

DISCUSSIONS ON ESTONIAN ECONOMIC POLICY

Topical issues of economic policy

in the European Union

Articles (CD-ROM) * Summaries * Chronicle

ESTNISCHE GESPRÄCHE ÜBER WIRTSCHAFTSPOLITIK

Aktuelle wirtschaftspolitische Probleme

in der Europäischen Union

Beiträge (CD-ROM) * Zusammenfassungen * Chronik

EESTI MAJANDUSPOLIITILISED VÄITLUSED

Majanduspoliitika aktuaalsed küsimused

Euroopa Liidus

Artiklid (CD-ROM) * Kokkuvõtted * Kroonika

21st year of issue * 21. Jahrgang * 21. aastakäik

2/2013

Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy: Topical issues of economic policy in the European Union /
Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik: Aktuelle wirtschaftspolitische Probleme in der Europäischen Union /
Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused: Majanduspoliitika aktuaalsed küsimused Euroopa Liidus

Established in 1984 / Gegründet im Jahre 1984 / Asutatud aastal 1984

EDITORIAL BOARD / REDAKTIONSKOLLEGIUM / TOIMETUSKOLLEGIUM

Peter Friedrich (University of Federal Armed Forces Munich, University of Tartu)

Manfred O. E. Hennies (Fachhochschule Kiel)

Enno Langfeldt (Fachhochschule Kiel)

Stefan Okruch (Andrassy Gyula Deutschsprachige Universität Budapest)

Armin Rohde (Ernst-Moritz-Arndt Universität Greifswald)

Mart Sörg (Tartu Ülikool)

EDITORS / REDAKTEURE / TOIMETAJAD:

Sulev Mäeltsemees (Tallinna Tehnikaülikool)

Matti Raudjärv (Tartu Ülikool)

Janno Reiljan (Tartu Ülikool)

FOUNDER, COORDINATOR AND CHIEF EDITOR /

GRÜNDER, KOORDINATOR UND CHEFREDAKTEUR /

ASUTAJA, KOORDINAATOR JA PEATOIMETAJA:

Matti Raudjärv (Tartu Ülikool – Pärnu Kolledž ja Mattimar OÜ)

The publication is published once or twice a year / Die Publikation erscheint bis zu zwei Mal im Jahr / Publikatsioon ilmub kuni kaks korda aastas

Articles have been published in the databases: / Die Beiträge sind in der

Datenbanken: / Artiklid on avaldatud andmebaasides: **DOAJ** – Directory of Open Access Journals (Netherlands), **EBSCO** – Elton B. Stephens Company (USA),

ECONIS – Economics Information System (Germany) and **SSRN** – Social Science Research Network (USA)

CONTACT - KONTAKT: Matti Raudjärv

Tartu Ülikool (Pärnu Kolledž)

University of Tartu (Pärnu College) **or** Mattimar OÜ

Ringi 35

Kose tee 79

80012 Pärnu

12013 Tallinn

Estonia

Estonia

matti.raudjarv@ut.ee

mattir@hot.ee

www.mattimar.ee

UNIVERSITY OF TARTU UNIVERSITY TARTU TARTU ÜLIKOOL

TALLINN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT TALLINN TALLINNA TEHNIKAÜLIKOOL

UNIVERSITY OF APPLIED SCIENCES OF KIEL FACHHOCHSCHULE KIEL
KIELI RAKENDUSÜLIKOOL

Ernst Moritz Arndt UNIVERSITY OF GREIFSWALD
Ernst Moritz Arndt UNIVERSITÄT GREIFSWALD
Ernst Moritz Arndti GREIFSWALDI ÜLIKOOL

MATTIMAR OÜ * GmbH * Ltd

DISCUSSIONS ON ESTONIAN ECONOMIC POLICY
Topical issues of economic policy in the European Union

ESTNISCHE GESPRÄCHE ÜBER WIRTSCHAFTSPOLITIK
Aktuelle wirtschaftspolitische Probleme in der Europäischen Union

EESTI MAJANDUSPOLIITILISED VÄITLUSED
Majanduspoliitika aktuaalsed küsimused Euroopa Liidus

2/2013



BWV • BERLINER WISSENSCHAFTS-
VERLAG GmbH



MATTIMAR
anno 1993

BERLIN * TALLINN

**Discussions on Estonian economic policy: Topical issues of economic policy
in the European Union, 2013, No.2**
**Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik: Aktuelle wirtschaftspolitische
Probleme in der Europäischen Union, 2013, Nr.2**
**Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused: Majanduspoliitika aktuaalsed küsimused
Euroopa Liidus, 2013, nr.2**

Berlin, Tallinn: BWV * Mattimar

21st year of issue / 21. Jahrgang / 21. aastakäik

BERLINER WISSENSCHAFTS-VERLAG GmbH, MATTIMAR OÜ, 2013

ISSN 1736-5597 (trükis),
ISSN 1736-5600 (CD-ROM)
ISSN 2228-1878 (pdf)

ISBN 978-9985-844-42-7 (trükis)
ISBN 978-9985-844-43-4 (CD-ROM)
ISBN 978-9985-844-44-1 (pdf, online)
ISBN 978-3-8305-3221-7 (trükis)
ISBN 978-3-8305-3221-7 (CD-ROM)

Before publishing, the articles in this collection have been anonymously
peer-reviewed by independent reviewers holding a doctor's degree.

Alle Beiträge der vorliegenden Publikation wurden vor der Veröffentlichung
anonym von unabhängigen promovierten Experten rezensiert.

Käesolevas publikatsioonis avaldatud artiklid on eelretsenseeritud anonüümselt
sõltumatute doktorikraadiga retsensentide poolt.

Printed in the publishing house of Miniprint OÜ / Gedruckt in der Druckerei
Miniprint OÜ / Trükitud trükikojas Miniprint OÜ

© Esikaas ja üldkujundus: Mattimar OÜ, 2013

© Kirjastamine: BWV * BERLINER WISSENSCHAFTS-VERLAG GmbH,
MATTIMAR OÜ, 2013

SISUKORD

Riigivõlg ja võlakoo muse nihkumine põlvkonnalt põlvkonnale. Täiendavaid kaalutlusi: kas rahapoliitilised otsetehingud ('Outright Monetary Transactions' – OMT) on vastavuses EL lepinguga? (Manfred O. E. Hennies ja Matti Raudjärv)	7
Staatsverschuldung und intergenerative Lastenverschiebung. Ergänzende Überlegungen: Sind 'Outright Monetary Transactions' (OMT) EU-vertragskonform? (von Manfred O. E. Hennies und Matti Raudjärv)	11
Public debt and shifting of the debt burden from one generation to the next. Further considerations: do outright monetary transactions (OMT) comply with the EU Treaty? (by Manfred O. E. Hennies and Matti Raudjärv)	15
Xiao Feng, Peter Friedrich	A location model of a trust of public firms
Anne Keerberg, Aet Kiisla, Sulev Mäeltsemees	University implementing its community service role through curriculum development in a regional college 32
Maret Kirsipuu	Family and non-family business differences in Estonia 58
Maret Kirsipuu, Uno Silberg	Women in family enterprises in Estonia 74
Sirje Pädam, Üllas Ehrlich	Public environmental expenditures in Estonia during 1995-2011 93
Jüri Ratas, Sulev Mäeltsemees	Role of environment in strengthening competitiveness of cities by example of European Green Capitals and Tallinn 106
Matti Raudjärv	On certain aspects of the need and possibility for the administrative-territorial reform in Estonia 123
Armin Rohde	Anmerkungen zur aktuellen Geldpolitik des Eurosystems 145

KOKKUVÕTTED / ZUSAMMENFASSUNGEN / SUMMARIES

Xiao Feng, Peter Friedrich	Ein Standortmodell für einen Konzern öffentlicher Unternehmen
Anne Keerberg, Aet Kiisla, Sulev Mäeltsemees	Ülikooli ühiskonnateenimise rolli täitmine regionaalse kolledži õppekavaarenduse kaudu 166
Maret Kirsipuu	Pere- ja mittepereettevõtte erisus Eestis 171
Maret Kirsipuu, Uno Silberg	Naine Eesti pereettevõtluses 175

Sirje Pädam, Üllas Ehrlich	Avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutused Eestis aastatel 1995-2011	181
Jüri Ratas, Sulev Mäeltsemees	Keskkonna osa linnade konkurentsivõime tugevdamisel Euroopa Roheliste Pealinnade ja Tallinna näitel	185
Matti Raudjärv	Mõnedest haldusterritoriaalse reformi vajalikkuse ja võimalikkuse aspektidest Eestis	190
Armin Rohde	Remarks on recent monetary policy of the Eurosystem	196

KROONIKA / CHRONIK / CHRONICLE

A.

Tähelepanuväärsed Eesti majandusteadlased, majandusõppejõud ja teadusorganisaatorid /
Bedeutende estnische Wirtschaftswissenschaftler, Hochschullehrer für Wirtschaft und Wissenschaftsorganisatoren /
Notable Estonian economists, economic academics and scientific research organisers

Professor Mait Miljan (16.09.1939 – 1.06.2007). In memoriam. (Marg Sörg) ..	199
Professor Dr. Mait Miljan (16.09.1939 – 1.06.2007). In memoriam. (Zusammenfassung)	204
Professor Mait Miljan (16.09.1939 – 1.06.2007). In memoriam. (Abstract)	206

B.

Majanduspoliitika teaduskonverentsid Eestis (1984-2013)
Wissenschaftliche Konferenzen über Wirtschaftspolitik in Estland (1984-2013)
Scientific conferences on economic policy in Estonia (1984-2013)

B1. Rahvusvaheline majanduspoliitika XXI teaduskonverents toimus 2013. aastal Jänedal (Matti Raudjärv)	207
Die XXI. Internationale wissenschaftliche Konferenz über Wirtschaftspolitik 2013 in Jäneda (von Matti Raudjärv)	210
XXI international scientific conference on economic policy was held at Jänedal in 2013 (by Matti Raudjärv)	213
B2. Majanduspoliitika teaduskonverentside loetelu /	
Liste der wissenschaftlichen Konferenzen über Wirtschaftspolitik /	
List of scientific conferences on economic policy	216

RIIGIVÕLG JA VÕLAKOORMUSE NIHKUMINE PÕLVKONNALT PÕLVKONNALE¹

Täiendavaid kaalutlusi:

**kas rahapoliitilised otsetehingud ('Outright Monetary Transactions' – OMT)
on vastavuses EL lepinguga?**

Seoses avaliku sektori tohutult kasvavate võlgadega nii Euroopa Liidu siseselt kui ka maailma teistes juhtivates tööstusriikides, kerkib ikka ja jälle esile etteheide, et niimoodi koormatakse üha enam ka nende maade elanikkonna tulevase põlvkondi. Sellised üldistavad väited on väärad. Nimetatud probleemi asjalik uurimine nõuab diferentseeritud kaalutlemist. Seejuures tuleb ranget vahet teha, kas nende riikide avaliku sektori võlad on omamaiste võlausaldajate juures (riigi sisevõlg) või asuvad võlausaldajad väljaspool riigipiire (riigi välisvõlg), olgu siis võlausaldajad kas füüsilised või juriidilised isikud.²

Tingimusel, et avaliku sektori võlausaldajate puhul on tegu omamaiste võlausaldajatega, siis siseriiklikku finantsvara kasvab juurde. Kui elanikkonna omanduses on riigi võlapaberid, siis saab temast riigi võlausaldaja, niisiis iseenese võlausaldaja. *Summa summarum* ei muutu niisuguste finantstransaktsioonide käigus rahvamajanduslik varaline seis. Riigivõla tasakaaluks on sama suur fiktiivne finantsvara omamaiste investorite käes. „Ei saa rahvas üldkokkuvõttes rikkamaks, kui finantskapitali kasvatamine toimub riigivõlakirjade omandamise näol, ega vastupidi – ei jää ta vaesemaks, kui niimoodi kasvab riigivõlg, kuna see on ju ühe ja sama protsessi teine külg.“³

Kuidas hinnata olukorda, mis tekib aastate möödudes, kui riigil tuleb võetud võlgu tagasi maksta hakata? Kas siis riigivõlgade kustutamine tekitab lisakoormust põlvkonnale, kellele langeb tagasimaksmise kohustus?

Oletagem, et riik ei suuda tulevikus võlgade tagasimaksmist jooksvatest riiklikest sissetulekutest finantseerida. Siis tuleb riigil makse tõsta, et olla võimeline oma

¹ Eestikeelse artikli (mis oli aluseks ka ingliskeelse artikli tõlkele) terminoloogiat konsulteeris Eesti Panga Nõukogu esimees (1998-2008), Tartu Ülikooli emeriitprofessor Mart Sõrg.

² Mõisteid *riigi sisevõlg* ↔ *välisvõlg* tuleb lahus hoida mõistepaarist *varjatud [implizite]* ↔ *nähtav [explizite]* riigivõlg. Järgnevad mõttekäigud põhinevad tegelikule, riigi eelarves *selgelt* väljatoodud defitsiidile. Varjatud riigivõla puhul on seevastu tegu esialgu veel mitte realiseerunud, vaid kõigest ennustatava defitsiidiga, mis võib tekkida kehtiva seadusandluse alusel (seoses riigiametnike pensionite, sotsiaalmaksete, nt pensioni-, ravi- ja hoolduskindlustuse ja muude riigi poolt garanteeritud väljamaksetega), seoses eeldatava demograafiliste muutustega (rahvaarv, vanuseline struktuur) ja pidades silmas riiklike sissetulekute arengut. Nii kallinevad eeldatavalt sotsiaalhüved ja selleks vajalikud riiklikud lisaväljaminekud, samuti toimuvad muutused ka finantseerimises (sotsiaalmaksete ja/või maksude tõstmine, nähtav riigivõlg), mis puudutavad alles järeltulevad põlvkondi ja ei vii selles mõttes juba kohe alguses võlakoormuse nihkumiseni.

³ Donner, O., Grenzen der Staatsverschuldung. Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv, köide 56, 2 (1942), lk 183 jj.

võlgu tagasi maksta. Tõepoolest tuleb oma riigi kodanikel siis kanda lisamaksukoormat. Aga kellele tulevad kasuks tagasimaksed niisuguses olukorras? Loomulikult sellele samale, lisamaksudega koormatud põlvkonnale! „Tegelikult toimub ainult raha ühest taskust teise tõstmine“⁴. Kokkuvõttes ei muutu sisevõla tõttu - kõrvale jättes selle, et vahepeal on võimalik majanduslike kasvuefektide tekkimine – *ceteris paribus (muidu samadel tingimustel)*, üldsegi mitte see kogurahasumma, mis elanikkonnal on kasutada.

Eelpool kirjeldatu ei välista muidugi seda, et seeläbi tekivad raskelt mõjuvad, paljusid inimesi puudutavad muudatused erasektori ümberjaotamissüsteemis. See toimub juhul, kui majandussubjektid, kel tuleb lisanduvat maksukoormat tegelikult kanda, pole samad isikud, kellele kuuluvad riigivõlakirjad välja lunastatakse.⁵ Rahvamajanduse kui terviku ostujõud aga ei vähene. Seega võib tõdeda järgmist: võlakooormuse nihkumine põlvkonnalt põlvkonnale ei olene riigivõla olemasolust, kuivõrd riigivõlakirju omandavad omamaised majandussubjektid. Sama kehtib riigi poolt makstavate intresside kohta võlakirjade omanikele.

Teisiti võib lugu olla siis, kui riigivõlakirju omandavad piiritagused ostjad. Nüüd tekivad tulevikus võlakustutus- ja intressikohustused maksesaajatele välismaal. Kui maksetähtaja saabudes ei saa selliseid makseid jooksvatest riiklikest sissetulekutest finantseerida, tuleb tõsta makse. See võib tendentsina antud maksumaksjate põlvkonna potentsiaalset elustandardit alandada.

Kuivõrd see keskmises ja kaugemas perspektiivis tõepoolest nii juhtub, sõltub sellest, mis otstarbel riik võlgade najal saavutatud ostujõudu tarvitab. Kui seda kasutatakse ülekaalukalt tarbimiseesmärkidel, näiteks jooksvateks avalikeks väljaminekuteks⁶ ja relvastuseks, siis koormab see tõepoolest tulevase põlvkondi, ilma et nad sellest mingit kasu saaksid.

Kui seevastu riigivõlgadega finantseeritavaid väljaminekuid kasutatakse esmajoones tulevikule orienteeritud projektide tarbeks, nagu see infrastruktuurikulutuste puhul kõige laiemas mõttes on⁷, siis tõstavad sellised väljaminekud rahvamajanduse kasvupotentsiaali. Kui see tulevikus viib majanduskasvu suurenemisele, siis tuleb see tulevastele põlvedele kasuks. Järelikult toimub niisuguse vahendite kasutamise korral võlakooormuse nihkumine põlvkonnalt põlvkonnale ainult siis, kui hilisemat hädavajalikuks osutunud maksukoorma tõstmist tajutakse suuremana kui majanduskasvu baasil tekkinud heaolu tõusu.

Euroopa Liidu sisese võlakriisi teravnemisega alustas Euroopa Keskpank (EKP) alates 2010. aasta maist järelturul rahapoliitiliste otsetehingute (OMT) abil

⁴ Samas, lk 185.

⁵ Mõelgem seejuures käibemaksude selgelt vähenevat mõju, eriti mis puudutab toiduaineid.

⁶ Nagu näiteks palkadeks, riigipensioniteks, pensioniteks, millel puudub kate sissemaksete näol.

⁷ Näiteks kulutused haridusele, teadusuuringutele ja arendustegevusele, kommunikatsiooni- seadmetele, teede väljaehitamisele.

kõigepealt Kreeka võlakirjade kokkuostmisega, seejärel osteti ka Iiri ja Portugali omi ja alates 2011. aasta augustist lisaks veel Itaalia ja Hispaania võlakirju. 2012. aasta veebruariks oli nende võlakirjade kogumaht kasvanud 219,5 miljardi euroni.⁸ Antud hetkel oli uude aktsiooni eesmärk abistada hättasattunud maid finantseerimiskulutuste vähendamisel.⁹ Kui käesoleva artikli küsimuse asetuse juures käsitleda mõistet 'põlvkond' üksiku riigi suhtes, siis tuleb Euroopa Keskpanka vaadelda kui piiritagust ehk välismaist institutsiooni. Selles mõttes kehtivad eelpool esitatud väited.

Mis puudutab rahapoliitilisi otsetehinguid, siis lähemal vaatlusel kerkib küsimus, kas EKP kirjeldatud tegevus mahub veel tema mandaadi raamidesse. EL lepingu artikkel 123 kohaselt on EKP-l otsesõnu keelatud liikmesriikidele võimaldada laenusaamisel soodustusi. See tähendab seda, et keskpank ei tohi EL riikidele pakkuda võimalust vahetult kasutada EKP krediite. Muidu tekiks oht, et aja jooksul kujuneb mitte enam ohjeldatav inflatsioonipotentsiaal. Tänu niisugustele rahastamisvõimalustele kaoks sellele lisaks veel surve valitsustele struktuurireformide läbiviimiseks, mis puudutab industrialiseerimist, infrastruktuuri ja töajuturgu, samuti kaoks surve kuhjunud võlgade vähendamiseks.

Uurida tuleks, kas EL lepingu artikkel 123 põhimõtte keelab ka Euroopa Keskpangal osta juba emiteeritud võlakirju. Lisaks tuleb veel selgitada, kas see keeld kehtib ka siis, kui nende võlakirjade puhul on tegu niisuguste maadega, kes täidavad Euroopa stabiilsusmehhanismi (European Stability Mechanism, ESM)¹⁰ tingimusi.

Igasuguse keskpanga igiomast ülesannet silmas pidades tuleb esitada oluline küsimus: kas kriisimaade majanduslikud raskused, millega EKP üritab rahapoliitiliste otsetehingutega võidelda, on märgiks rahapoliitilise transmissiooni häiretest või on tegu nende maade majanduslike, eriti fundamentaalsete struktuuriprobleemidega? Teisisõnu: kas EKP üritab juba emiteeritud võlakirjade kokkuostmisega paralüüsida häireid rahapoliitilise instrumentide ahela mõjuseostes¹¹, et meetmete tõhusust tõsta või vähemalt säilitada, või tegeleb keskpank rahapoliitilisi otsetehinguid tehes kaudselt riikide rahastamisega, minnes mööda EL lepingu artikkel 123-st?

Igal juhul tekivad seoses EKP ostutegevusega – ja see tuleb endale selgeks teha – ettearvatud ühised riskid. Et keskpanga rahahulga dramaatiline suurenemine

⁸ Allikas: EZB

⁹ Kas EKP ka aastatest 2013 ja 2014 edaspidi selle saavutat on küsitav, pärast seda kui USA Föderaalreservi juhatuse esimees kuulutas välja senise madala intressipoliitika peatset lõppu, kuigi tingimusel, et majandus- ja tööhõivekasv USA-s positiivses suunas arenevad. Ja veel: „Keskpanga ülesannete hulka ei kuulu kõrgemate riskipreemiate takistamine.“ (Jürgen Stark (2006. a. juunist kuni 2011.a. septembrini EKP juhtivökonomist) – tsitaat intervjuus saksa ajalehele Handelsblatt, 26.07.2013, lk 24 jj.)

¹⁰ Selle reformiprogrammi kohaselt (Secondary Market Support Facility, lühidalt: SMSF) võimaldab ESM osta sekundaarturul riigi võlakirju, ja nimelt piiramatus koguses.

¹¹ Rahapoliitilised meetmed → instrumentide variaabel (rahabaas = keskpanga rahahulk) → sihtvariaabel (intressitase) → lõppeesmärk (hinnataseme stabiilsus)

rahapoliitiliste otsetehingute tõttu esimese ostuvooru kestel pole siiani inflatsiooniliselt mõjunud, pole veel tõendiks selle kohta, et EKP üritas tõepoolest üksnes kõrvaldada häireid rahapoliitilistes mõjuseostes. EKP tegutseb oma rahapoliitiliste otsetehingutega (OMT) „hämaras tsoonis kuskil raha- ja fiskaalpoliitika vahemail.“¹² Kus lõpeb rahapoliitika, kust algab fiskaalpoliitika? Nende küsimuste üle vaieldakse praegu ägedasti ja vastakalt. Neile ei saa vastata üldiselt, seda ei saa teha ka kohtud.¹³ Vastuseid saab põhimõtteliselt leida üksnes konkreetses olukorras ja konkreetseid makroökonomilisi raamtingimusi arvestades.

August 2013

Manfred O. E. Hennies
Kiel/Warder,
Saksamaa

Matti Raudjärv
Tallinn/Pirita-Kose ja Pärnu,
Eesti

¹² Clemens Fuest (Euroopa Majadusuuringute Keskus) Saksa Konstitutsioonikohtu ees Karlsruhes 11. juunil 2013.

¹³ Tegelikult on mõttetu, seda küsimust Saksa Konstitutsioonikohtule otsustamiseks esitada, kuna see kohus ei ole pädev EKP-le juhiseid jagama. Üksnes Euroopa Kohus Luksemburgis võiks selle üle otsustada, aga seda ka ainult tingimusel, kui kohtunikel ja nende nõustajatel on vajalikud erialased teadmised.

STAATSVerschULDUNG UND INTERGENERATIVE LASTENVERSchiebung

Ergänzende Überlegungen:

Sind 'Outright Monetary Transactions' (OMT) EU-vertragskonform?

Im Zusammenhang mit den exorbitant ansteigenden öffentlichen Schulden sowohl innerhalb der Europäischen Union als auch in führenden Industriestaaten der übrigen Welt wird immer wieder der Vorwurf erhoben, dass damit die zukünftigen Generationen dieser Länder zunehmend belastet würden. Pauschale Aussagen dieser Art sind falsch. Eine sachliche Untersuchung dieser Frage bedarf differenzierter Überlegungen. Dabei muss streng unterschieden werden, ob sich die öffentlichen Sektoren dieser Staaten per saldo gegenüber gebietsansässige (interne Staatsverschuldung) oder gebietsfremde (externe Staatsverschuldung) Personen (natürliche oder juristische) verschulden.¹

Handelt es sich bei den Zeichnern der öffentlichen Schuldtitel um Gebietsansässige, dann entsteht zusätzliches inländisches Geldvermögen. Als Inhaber von Staatspapieren wird die Bevölkerung Gläubiger ihres Staates, also von sich selbst. Summa summarum ändert sich durch solche finanziellen Transaktionen der volkswirtschaftliche Vermögensbestand nicht. Der Staatsschuld steht in derselben Höhe fiktives Geldvermögen in den Händen der gebietsansässigen Anleger gegenüber. "Weder wird das Volk im Ganzen durch Geldkapitalbildung in der Form des Erwerbs von Staatstiteln reicher, noch durch Zunahme der Staatsschuld, die ja nur die andere Seite desselben Vorganges ist, ärmer."²

Wie ist die Situation in den späteren Jahren zu beurteilen, wenn der verschuldete Staat die Kredite zurückzahlen muss? Wird jetzt zur Tilgung der Staatsschulden die davon betroffene Generation zusätzlich belastet?

Angenommen, der Staat kann den zukünftigen Schuldendienst nicht aus den laufenden öffentlichen Einnahmen finanzieren. Dann muss er die Steuern erhöhen,

¹ Die Begriffe *interne* ↔ *externe Staatsverschuldung* sind zu unterscheiden von dem Begriffspaar *implizite* ↔ *explizite Staatsverschuldung*. Die folgenden Überlegungen beziehen sich auf tatsächliche, in den Staatsbudgets e x p l i z i t e ausgewiesene Defizite. Bei der impliziten Staatsverschuldung handelt es sich dagegen um zunächst noch nicht realisierte, sondern nur prognostizierte Defizite auf der Grundlage der gegenwärtigen Gesetzgebung (in Bezug auf Beamtenpensionen, Zuschüsse zu gesetzlichen Renten-, Kranken- und Pflegeversicherungen, sonstige staatliche Leistungsversprechen), des voraussichtlichen demografischen Wandels (Bevölkerungszahl, Altersstruktur) und der geschätzten Entwicklungen der öffentlichen Einnahmen. Sowohl die zu erwartenden steigenden Sozialleistungen und die dazu notwendigen zusätzlichen Staatsausgaben als auch Fragen der Finanzierung (Erhöhung von Sozialabgaben und/oder Steuern, explizite Staatsverschuldung) treffen erst nachfolgende Generationen und führen insofern nicht von vornherein zu intergenerativen Lastenverschiebungen.

² Donner, O., Grenzen der Staatsverschuldung, in: Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv, Band 56, 2 (1942), Seiten 183 ff.

um seine Schulden zurückzahlen zu können. In der Tat haben dann die Inländer zusätzliche Steuerlasten zu tragen. Aber wem kommen denn in einer solchen Situation die Tilgungsbeträge zugute? — Eben derselben, mit zusätzlichen Steuern belasteten Generation! "Es wird lediglich von einer Tasche in die andere gezahlt"³. Insgesamt ändert sich durch eine innere Staatsverschuldung – abgesehen von den in der Zwischenzeit möglicherweise eingetretenen Wachstumseffekten – *ceteris paribus* nichts an der Geldsumme, welche der Bevölkerung zur Verfügung steht.

Das schließt allerdings nicht aus, dass damit gravierende interpersonale Verteilungsänderungen im Privatsektor entstehen. Das ist dann der Fall, wenn die Wirtschaftssubjekte, welche die zusätzliche Steuerlast tatsächlich zu tragen haben (Steuerindossatare), nicht deckungsgleich sind mit jenen Personen, deren Staatstitel eingelöst werden.⁴ Der Volkswirtschaft als Ganzes wird aber keine Kaufkraft entzogen. Somit kann festgestellt werden: Eine intergenerative Lastenverschiebung tritt durch eine Staatsverschuldung nicht ein, soweit die Staatstitel durch gebietsansässige Wirtschaftssubjekte gezeichnet werden. Entsprechendes gilt für die Zinszahlungen des Staates an die Inhaber der Schuldtitle.

Anders verhält es sich möglicherweise, wenn Gebietsfremde die öffentlichen Schuldtitle zeichnen. Jetzt entstehen in der Zukunft Tilgungs- und Zinszahlungsverpflichtungen gegenüber Zahlungsempfängern im Ausland. Können bei Fälligkeit diese Zahlungen nicht aus den laufenden öffentlichen Einnahmen finanziert werden, müssen auch in diesem Fall die Steuern erhöht werden. Das kann in der Tendenz den potenziellen Lebensstandard der davon betroffenen Generation senken.

Inwieweit das mittel- und längerfristig tatsächlich der Fall ist, hängt davon ab, wofür der Staat die durch die Verschuldung erworbene Kaufkraft verwendet. Wird diese überwiegend konsumtiv, also für laufende öffentliche Ausgaben⁵ und Rüstungsgüter eingesetzt, dann belastet das insoweit in der Tat zukünftige Generationen, ohne dass diese davon einen Nutzen haben.

Werden dagegen die mit der Staatsverschuldung finanzierten Ausgaben in erster Linie für zukunftsgerichtet Projekte verwendet, wie das bei Infrastrukturausgaben im weitesten Sinne⁶ der Fall ist, dann steigern diese Ausgaben die Wachstumspotenziale der Volkswirtschaft. Führt das in der Zukunft zu höherem Wirtschaftswachstum, kommt das auch nachfolgenden Generationen zugute. Folglich findet bei solchen Mittelverwendungen eine intergenerative Lastenverschiebung nur dann statt, wenn die später notwendig werdende zusätzliche

³ ebenda, Seite 185.

⁴ Man denke beispielsweise nur an die ausgesprochen regressive Wirkung der Umsatzsteuern, vor allem auf Subsistenzmittel.

⁵ wie zum Beispiel Gehälter, Pensionen, nicht durch Beitragszahlungen gedeckte Renten.

⁶ zum Beispiel Ausgaben für Bildung, Forschung und Entwicklung, Kommunikationseinrichtungen, Ausbau von Verkehrswegen.

Steuerbelastung höher empfunden wird als die Wohlstandssteigerungen durch Wirtschaftswachstum.

Mit der Zuspitzung der Verschuldungskrise innerhalb der Europäischen Union war die Europäische Zentralbank (EZB) ab Mai 2010 zunächst dazu übergegangen, an Sekundärmärkten mit 'Outright Monetary Transactions' (OMT) zuerst griechische Staatsanleihen, danach irländische und portugiesische und ab August 2011 auch öffentliche Schuldverschreibungen aus Italien und Spanien aufzukaufen. Bis Februar 2012 war das Gesamtvolumen dieser Bonds auf eine Gesamthöhe von 219,5 Milliarden Euro angewachsen.⁷ Ziel dieser bis dato neuartigen Aktionen war es, die Finanzierungskosten der in Bedrängnis geratenen Ländern zu senken.⁸ Wird bei der hier zur Diskussion stehenden Frage der Begriff Generation auf die einzelne Nation bezogen, ist die EZB als gebietsfremde Institution anzusehen. Es gelten insoweit die zuvor getroffenen Aussagen.

Im Hinblick auf die OMT-Geschäfte stellt sich anschließend die Frage, ob sich die EZB mit diesen Aktivitäten noch im Rahmen ihres Mandats bewegt. Nach Artikel 123 der EU-Verträge ist es der EZB strikt verboten, Mitgliedstaaten Kreditfazilitäten einzuräumen. Das bedeutet, dass sie den Regierungen der EU-Ländern nicht die Möglichkeit bieten darf, unmittelbar EZB-Kredite in Anspruch zu nehmen. Es bestände sonst die Gefahr, dass sich im Laufe der Zeit ein nicht mehr zu beherrschendes Inflationspotenzial aufbauen könnte. Darüber hinaus würden Finanzierungsmöglichkeiten dieser Art den Druck auf die Regierungen senken, Strukturreformen – vor allem auf den Gebieten Industrialisierung, Infrastruktur und Arbeitsmärkte – umzusetzen und angehäuften Schulden zu reduzieren.

Zu untersuchen ist, ob der Grundsatz des Artikels 123 der EU-Verträge auch den Ankauf bereits emittierter Staatsanleihen durch die EZB verbietet. Ergänzend ist zu klären, ob dieses Verbot auch dann gilt, wenn es sich bei den Papieren um Schuldscheine von Ländern handelt, welche die Bedingungen des Reformprogramms des Europäischen Rettungsmechanismus (European Stability Mechanism, ESM)⁹ erfüllen.

In Bezug auf die ureigenste Aufgabe einer jeden Zentralbank lautet die entscheidende Frage: Sind die wirtschaftlichen Schwierigkeiten der Krisenländer, denen die EZB mit ihren OMT zu begegnen versucht, Zeichen für Störungen des geldpolitischen Transmissionsprozesses oder für wirtschaftliche, insbesondere

⁷ Quelle: EZB

⁸ Ob die EZB das auch über 2013/2014 hinaus erreichen wird, ist fraglich, nachdem der Präsident des Federal Reserve Boards der US-amerikanischen Notenbank ein baldiges Ende der bisherigen Niedrigzinspolitik angekündigt hat, allerdings unter der Voraussetzung, dass sich Wachstum und Beschäftigung in den USA weiterhin positiv entwickeln. Im Übrigen: "Es ist nicht Aufgabe einer Zentralbank, höhere Risikoprämien zu verhindern." (Jürgen Stark, von Juni 2006 bis September 2011 leitender Volkswirt der EZB), Aussage in einem Interview im deutschen Handelsblatt vom 26.07.2013, Seite 24 f.)

⁹ Nach diesem Reformprogramm (Secondary Market Support Facility, kurz: SMSF) ist es dem ESM gestattet, Staatspapiere auf Sekundärmärkten anzukaufen, und zwar unbegrenzt.

strukturelle Fundamentalprobleme dieser Länder? Mit anderen Worten: Versucht die EZB durch den Ankauf bereits ausgegebener Bonds Störungen im Wirkungszusammenhang der geldpolitischen Zielkette¹⁰ zu paralysieren, um die Effizienz ihrer Maßnahmen zu erhöhen oder zumindest zu erhalten, oder betreibt sie mit ihren OMT unter Umgehung von Artikel 123 der EU-Verträge indirekt Staatsfinanzierung?

Auf alle Fälle entstehen durch die Ankäufe der EZB – und darüber muss man sich im Klaren sein – unkalkulierbare Gemeinschaftsrisiken. Dass die dramatische Ausweitung der Zentralbankgeldmenge durch die OMT-Geschäfte in der ersten Ankaufrunde bisher nicht inflationär gewirkt hat, ist kein Indiz dafür, dass die EZB tatsächlich nur Störungen der geldpolitischen Wirkungszusammenhänge zu beseitigen versucht hat. Die EZB bewegt sich hier mit ihren OMT in einer "Grauzone zwischen Geld- und Fiskalpolitik."¹¹ Wann hört Geldpolitik auf, wo beginnt Fiskalpolitik? Diese Fragen werden gegenwärtig vehement und zum Teil kontrovers diskutiert. Sie können nicht generell – schon gar nicht von Gerichten¹² – beantwortet werden. Antworten hierauf können im Grunde nur in der speziellen Situation unter Berücksichtigung der konkreten makroökonomischen Rahmenbedingungen gefunden werden.

August 2013

Manfred O. E. Hennies
Kiel/Warder,
Deutschland

Matti Raudjärv
Tallinn/Pirita-Kose und Pärnu,
Estland

¹⁰ Geldpolitische Maßnahmen → Instrumentvariable (Geldbasis = Zentralbankgeldmenge) → Zielvariable (Zinsniveau) → Endziel (Preisniveaustabilität)

¹¹ Clemens Fuest (Zentrum für Europäische Wirtschaftsforschung, ZEW) vor dem Deutschen Bundesverfassungsgericht in Karlsruhe am 11.06.2013.

¹² Es ist im Grunde abwegig, diese Frage dem deutschen Verfassungsgericht zur Entscheidung vorzulegen, weil dieses der EZB keine Weisungen erteilen kann. Allenfalls der Europäische Gerichtshof in Luxemburg könnte hierüber entscheiden, allerdings nur dann, wenn die Richter oder ihre Berater den notwendigen Sachverstand besitzen.

PUBLIC DEBT AND SHIFTING OF THE DEBT BURDEN FROM ONE GENERATION TO THE NEXT

Further considerations:

do outright monetary transactions (OMT) comply with the EU Treaty?

In connection with the immensely increasing public debt both within the European Union and in other leading industrial countries of the world, reproaches are made again and again that this constitutes also an increasing burden for the future generations of the population of these countries. Such generalisations are wrong, however. Objective treatment of this problem requires differentiated consideration. We should keep public debt owed to domestic creditors (internal public debt) strictly separate from that owed to foreign creditors (international public debt) in these countries regardless of whether the creditors are natural or legal persons.¹

If the creditors of the public debt are domestic creditors, the domestic financial assets are increasing. If the population holds public bonds, it becomes the creditor for the state, i.e. the creditor for itself. *Summa summarum* such financial transactions do not change the financial situation of the national economy. Public debt is set off by the equivalent fictitious financial assets held by domestic investors. „The people on the whole do not become richer if the financial capital is grown through the acquisition of public bonds, and *vice versa* – they do not become poorer if this increases the public debt as this is another aspect of the same process.“²

How to assess the situation which will develop years later when the state will have to repay the debts? Will redemption of the public debt create an additional burden for the generation who will have the obligation to repay it?

Let us assume that the state will not be able to finance repayment of the debt from the current state revenues in the future. Then the state will have to raise taxes to be able to repay its debts. The citizens of the state will then indeed have to bear the burden of additional taxes. But who will benefit from the repayments in such a situation? Surely, the same generation which is burdened with additional taxes!

¹ The concepts *internal public debt* ↔ *international public debt* have to be kept separate from the pair of concepts *implicit* ↔ *explicit national debt*. The following thoughts are based on the actual deficit *expressly* stated in the state budget. Implicit public debt, on the other hand, is just forecasted deficit which has not become a reality yet but may arise on the basis of effective legislation (in connection with the disbursement of pensions of government officials, social benefits, e.g. pension insurance, health care benefits, long-term care benefits and other payments guaranteed by the state), in connection with expected demographic changes (population, age structure) and considering the development of public revenues. Thus the social benefits and the required additional state expenditures will increase and also changes will be made in their financing (increasing of social benefits and/or taxes, explicit national debt), which will concern only the next generations and will not lead to the immediate shifting of the debt burden in that sense.

² Donner, O., Grenzen der Staatsverschuldung. Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv, Volume 56, 2 (1942), pp 183 *et seq.*

„Money is actually moved only from one pocket to another“³. All in all, in the case of domestic debt – apart from the possible impact on economic growth meanwhile – *ceteris paribus* (all other things being equal), the total amount of money available to the population will not change in any way.

The description presented above certainly does not exclude any severe impact of changes in the redistribution system of the private sector which concern many people. This will happen if the economic agents who actually have to bear the additional tax burden are not the same persons to whom the public bonds will be repayed.⁴ The purchasing power of the national economy as a whole will not decrease, however. Thus we can state the following: shifting of the debt burden from one generation to the next will not depend on the existence of the public debt to the extent that public bonds are acquired by domestic economic agents. The same applies to the payment of interest by the state to holders of bonds.

The situation may be different if public debt is acquired by foreign buyers. Now the debt repayment and interest obligations will be to payees who are abroad. If such payments cannot be made in due time from current public revenues, the taxes will have to be raised. Such a trend may decrease the potential living standards of the particular generation of taxpayers.

To what extent it will actually happen in mid-term or long-term will depend on the purposes for which the state uses its purchase power achieved with the assistance of debts. If it is predominantly used for consumption purposes, e.g. for current public expenditures⁵ and purchasing of arms, it will really burden the future generations without giving them any benefit.

On the other hand, if expenditures financed with public debt are used above all for projects intended for the future, such as infrastructure expenditures in the broadest sense⁶, such expenditures will increase the growth potential of the national economy. If it will lead to future economic growth, it will benefit the future generations. Consequently, such use of funds will shift the debt burden from one generation to the next only if the subsequent absolutely necessary increase of the tax burden is perceived higher than the increase in welfare achieved on the basis of the economic growth.

With the outburst of the debt crisis within the European Union, the European Central Bank (ECB) first started to buy Greek bonds from the after-market from May 2010 through outright monetary transactions (OMT), then also Irish and Portuguese bonds and from August 2011 in addition also Italian and Spanish bonds. By February 2012

³ *Idem*, p. 185.

⁴ Think about the clearly decreasing impact of value-added taxes, particularly concerning food products.

⁵ For instance, on salaries, state pensions, pensions not covered by contributions.

⁶ Such as expenditures on education, scientific research and development activities, communication equipment, road construction.

the total volume of these bonds had increased to 219,5 billion euros.⁷ The objective of this novel measure was to assist the countries in trouble for the moment to decrease their financing costs.⁸ From the aspects of „the generation“ of single countries, the European Central Bank should be viewed as a foreign institution. In that respect the statements provided above apply.

As to outright monetary transactions, their closer review raises the question of whether the described activities of the ECP are still included in its mandate. According to Article 123 of the EU Treaty, any favouring of Member States in providing loans is expressly prohibited to the ECP. This means that the Central Bank is not allowed to provide directly any ECP credit facilities to EU Member States. Otherwise there is the risk that the inflation potential that would develop in the course of time may become unmanageable. Besides, such financing opportunities would make it possible to exert pressure on governments to perform structural reforms in the areas of industrialisation, infrastructure and labour market, and there would be no pressure to decrease the accumulated debts.

It is worth finding out whether Article 123 of the EU Treaty prohibits the European Central Bank to buy also bonds already issued. In addition it would be necessary to find out whether this prohibition applies also to the bonds of countries which comply with the conditions of the European Stability Mechanism (ESM)⁹.

An important question should be asked, bearing in mind the ultimate duty of any central bank: are the economic difficulties of the countries in crisis, which the ECP makes efforts to fight by way of outright monetary transactions, signs of disorders in monetary policy transmission, or are these economic problems, particularly fundamental structural problems of these countries? In other words: is the ECP trying to paralyse disorders in the interactions in the chain of monetary policy instruments¹⁰ by buying already issued bonds in order to increase or at least maintain the efficiency of the measures, or is the Central Bank indirectly financing the countries with its outright monetary transactions, ignoring Article 123 of the EU Treaty?

⁷ Source: EZB

⁸ It is questionable whether ECP will achieve this also after 2013 and 2014, after the Chairman of the Board of Governors of the U.S. Federal Reserve System declared the imminent end to the current low-interest policy, although only in case of positive developments of the economic and employment growth in the U.S.A. And more: „The duties of the Central Bank do not include blocking higher risk premiums.“ (Jürgen Stark (Economist of the ECP from June 2006 to September 2011) – a quote from his interview to the German newspaper *Handelsblatt*, 26.07.2013, p. 24 *et seq.*)

⁹ According to this reform programme (Secondary Market Support Facility, briefly SMSF), ESM makes it possible to buy government bonds in the after-market and namely in unlimited amounts.

¹⁰ Measures of monetary policy → instrument variable (monetary base = amount of funds of the Central Bank) → target variable (interest rate) → ultimate goal (price level stability)

At any rate, the purchasing activities of the ECP – and this should be understood – are accompanied by unforeseeable common risks. The fact that the dramatic increase in the amount of funds of the ECP due to outright monetary transactions during the first round of purchases has had as yet no impact on inflation does not prove that ECP was indeed only trying to eliminate problems from the interactions of monetary policy. ECP performs its outright monetary transactions (OMT) „in the gray zone somewhere between monetary and fiscal policies.“¹¹ Where does monetary policy end and fiscal policy begin? These issues are currently subjects of heated disputes and controversies. There is no general answer for them and also courts cannot decide them.¹² Answers can in principle be found only in a specific situation and by taking into account specific macroeconomical framework conditions.

August 2013

Manfred O. E. Hennies
Kiel/Warder,
Germany

Matti Raudjärv
Tallinn/Pirita-Kose and Pärnu,
Estonia

¹¹ Clemens Fuest (Centre for European Economic Research) before the Constitutional Court of Germany in Karlsruhe on 11 June 2013.

¹² It would actually make no sense to present this issue to the Constitutional Court of Germany for adjudication as this court is not competent to give instructions to the ECP. Only the European Court of Justice in Luxembourg could issue a judgment in this issue and only provided that the judges and their consultants have the required technical knowledge.

A LOCATION MODEL OF A TRUST OF PUBLIC FIRMS¹

Xiao Feng², Peter Friedrich³
Tongji University, University of Tartu

Abstract

The decision oriented theory of the public firm (Feng, Friedrich 2013) becomes extended. The authors consider that sometimes public firms **compete horizontally** as well. This can be due to competition among the public owners (e.g. municipalities) considering location choices for public firms they own, or public firms competing against each other. We mention some results related to the first type of competition and we refer to how the literature on location choices under oligopolic conditions could be referred to within the framework of our basic approach. One approach by Cornes and Hartley (2001) also allows modelling the establishment of **joint ventures** and their location choices. The basic model of the public firm is used to provide insight into the location choices of a **trust of public firms**. The trust exhibits coordination at three levels via the politically-oriented decision-making body of the public owner, the trust's headquarters and subsidiary public firms. The resulting model illustrates the interplay of different decision-makers and the effects of the coordinating activities. The first attempts to formulate a public firm decision-making oriented location theory exist.

Keywords: location theory, public firm theory, industrial location theory, competition among public firms, principal agent, trust of public firms

JEL Classification: D61, D73, HO, H11, H42, H70, D61, D73, L32, N9, R14, R53

I. Introduction

The theory of public firm developed on the basis of a public firm theory (Feng, Friedrich 2013) concentrated on locational choice of one public enterprise and vertical co-ordination by its owner. However, the location choices are also influenced through competition and co-ordination with other public enterprises. These firms may have different public owners, e.g. municipalities, or may be subsidiaries of a trust of public firms. How the **decision oriented public firm location theory** and competition theory concerning public firms can be linked to

¹ The authors acknowledge the support of the Estonian Science Foundation's grant 8580 and target financing of the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research 0180037s08.

² Prof. Dr. Xiao Feng, director of Sino-German College of Applied Sciences (CDHAW), Training Building, Jiading Campus, Tongji University, 4800 Cao An Highway, Shanghai, P. R.China (201804), Tel.: 0086 (0)21 6958 4732, Fax.: 00 86 (0)21 6958 9621, fengxiao@tongji.edu.cn

³ Prof. Dr. h.c. Peter Friedrich, senior researcher, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Narva Rd. 4, 51009 Tartu, Estonia, Tel. 00372 7376333, Fax 003727376327, Peter@mtk.ut.ee

location theory of a public firm is shown in this article⁴. The research task concerns how location decisions of public firms get coordinated and is influenced by **horizontal competition**. This task leads to the following **questions**:

- How can models of horizontal competition among public firms and owners of public firms be extended to location theory?
- How to integrate the location theory of one public firm into the horizontal and vertical co-ordination within a trust of public firms?

The competition theories and related location theories are not repeated in this article in detail. They are offered in literature. Here the relation between location theory and the decision oriented theory of one public firm is stressed

The authors devote the second **section** to the incorporation of the theory of the public firm into location theory approaches or of competition theory into some approaches of public office location theory. A model Location model of a public trust follows in the third section. Some hints for further development of this kind of location theory of public firms follows in the conclusive section.

II. Public firms in horizontal competition

A competitive localization situation exists if **municipalities compete** on the basis of the **establishment of municipal firms** (e.g. wellness swimming pools, convention halls). This can be formulated as a game where two municipalities are the players, and the municipalities have gains (F) or losses to be avoided or votes. The strategies can be locations. The payoff at the location may result from our model above or in the case of votes by applying the extended Pelzman model (Feng, Friedrich 2013). However, if the **public firms themselves compete** as well, the payoff is additionally determined by a duopoly solution embedded in the model above (Friedrich 1988). For each pair of locations, the solution above is determined at a given price (solution above) for the competitor. Following this assumption a **Launhardt-Hotelling solution** is elaborated to yield the payoffs. There can be several solutions in dominant strategies, equilibrium points, absolute equilibrium points, and so on (Friedrich, 1976 pp. 237 and 287). The solutions for the duopolies and municipal competition provides other results such as employment, prices, outputs, votes, use of land, and so on, and different payoff matrices result. If the municipal firms export to another municipality as well, positive payoffs may lead to a movement of location in the direction of the city limit between the two municipalities. If the policy is to prevent losses, the locations tend to move in the opposite direction. If both municipalities use simple indicators, such as jobs as payoffs, they are in **severe conflict**. The conflict may reduce if the payoffs are different or more sophisticated resulting from a utility analysis including several goals.

This is obvious in the case of attracting a public firm of a non-municipal public body (e.g. a federal or provincial firm) or if such a firm is considering a move to a

⁴ The reader should also turn to the development of public firm location theory presented in the article: Basic Approaches to a Location Theory of One Public Firm (Feng, Friedrich 2013).

competing municipality. In the first and the second case, a **game** can be formulated, where the strategies are locations offered to the firm or its public decision-maker, where the public decision-maker chooses a location according to its preferences among the locations offered and where payoffs consequently result. The individual payoffs can be delineated using the model above or through other information. If both players use simple indicators such as jobs, a constant sum game or a zero-sum game in the **case of a resettlement** can result. Then this may lead to a minimax solution in terms of location. That is also true if, in both cities, the same **parties govern the city**, and they expect to strengthen their power through the settlement (e.g. immigration of additional party members). However, if the local governments in one of the cities fear an influx of inhabitants that will not vote for the ruling party, this city will not be interested in the settlement of the public firm. The payoffs in the game change totally, and this city offers no location to the public firm or a very unfavourable one; therefore, leaving the settlement to the competitor.

If there is political competition between the two parties in a community to form the local government by offering locations, and if there are three different groups of voters, a **vote paradox** (Mueller 2002) may occur. Under these circumstances, the party which offers the voters first loses votes because the opposite party always finds an alternative location to beat the political competitor. Therefore, the resulting location is determined by the sequence of location campaigns.

Sometimes several municipalities want to establish a **joint public firm**. They expect positive payoffs particularly if the common location is chosen within their territory. If there are three municipalities with equal decision-making strength (e.g. through size, population, voters, financial means) the **high school problem** results (Isard, Smith, Isard, Tung, Dacey 1986). Two of the municipalities may form a coalition so as to locate the public firm near these two municipalities. However, the third municipality may destroy the coalition by offering to form a new coalition with one of the decision-makers. In this case, the decision-maker who was excluded may disrupt this coalition by making a counter offer. The **coalition process creates a cycle** and a rule must exist to stop the negotiations in order to find a location (e.g. a location near all three municipalities).

Another **extension** of an **approach developed by Cornes and Hartley (2001)** makes it possible to determine the number of municipalities joining in the formation of a public enterprise at different possible locations. If we consider the total sum of resources needed at location "a" using X_a , we can name the share of municipality i using $x_{ia}/\sum x_{ja}$. The utility gains c_{ia} from the establishment of the public firm, increasing with the growing share of municipality i in E_a , where the dis-utilities b_{ia} are related to its share⁵. An optimal share function is determined for each

⁵ There are n municipalities i which could form a joint enterprise at location a.

The utility function of town i is:

(1) $u_{ia} = c_{ia} \cdot (x_{ia} / \sum x_{ja}) - b_{ia} \cdot x_{ia}$; c_{ia} **positive evaluation**, b_{ia} **opportunity costs**, x_{ia} resources from i, X_a total resources for the public enterprise,
Municipalities apply **autonomous strategy** and **determine an optimal response function**.

municipality. As the sum of all shares must achieve 1, we can add all the share functions to a total function. Where this function equals 1, we find a **solution** and determine the number of municipalities engaged in the cooperation (c.f. Figure 10). If the utility w_i becomes larger than the added share, the function gets less steep and moves to the right. That means there will be less municipalities joining the public firm; however, the utility of the participating towns and the total investment sum turns out to be higher if a more costly firm and location is chosen. The same is true if the opportunity costs of finance shrink. The opposite development occurs if the utilities of the municipalities decrease or opportunity costs of finance increase. These models are more useful for explaining **which location is chosen and which communities cooperate**. However it does not help identify the most desirable location from the point of view of society. There must be an additional welfare function to detect the **optimal social location** for public firms from the different locations achieved from evaluations of the municipalities involved. Then vertical evaluation and an element of competition is introduced.

Other models refer to identifying a location for **hazardous facilities**, where such a function is introduced by requiring efficient – mostly cost minimal sites. The externalities extend beyond the border of the community selected as a site. A pattern of compensation payments among the communities allowing a location is developed (Waehrer 2003). For some models, it is assumed, as in public facilities location theory, that **costs should be minimized**. The costs for locations within a community are possessed by the community. The costs associated with a location outside the community border are considered public information. Cost minimal locations are to be determined (Kunreuther, Kleindorfer 1986; Kunreuther, Kleindorfer, Knez, Yasick 1987). When considering the negative effects of a site, the tendency of a community prevails to locate the facility near the border (Ingberman 1995). Cross-border effects can also be considered (Richardson, Kunreuther, 1993) where external effects occur in non-neighbouring municipalities as well. Some authors (Armstrong, 1996; Bernheim, Whinston 1986; McAfee, McMillan 1988; McAfee, McMillan, Whinston 1989; Rochet, Choné 1998; Jehiel, Moldovanu 1996; Frey, Oberholzer-Gee 1996; Frey F. Oberholzer-Gee, Eichenberger 1996; Jehiel, Moldovanu, Stacchetti 1999; Williams 1999) develop or discuss mechanisms to compensate decision-makers involved in such a way that a cost minimal site is going to be chosen. There are other mechanisms that are directly related to public firms and concern investment (Friedrich 1969, 1976), or are debated in the literature on participating in private public partnerships (Grimsey, Lewis 2004) or the literature on built up growth pools and clusters in transformation processes (Friedrich, Feng 1998). The location problem for public firms is embedded in two ways. There are municipalities competing horizontally for or against a location. The cost functions dealt with in the models may be interpreted as the difference between turnover and cost, net-benefits, utilities and political returns (votes), thus making it possible to introduce the location problem as discussed here.

The **optimal solution** that means the optimal number of communities and an adequate volume for X_a is determined where the sums of the values of the optimal respond strategies adds up to one.

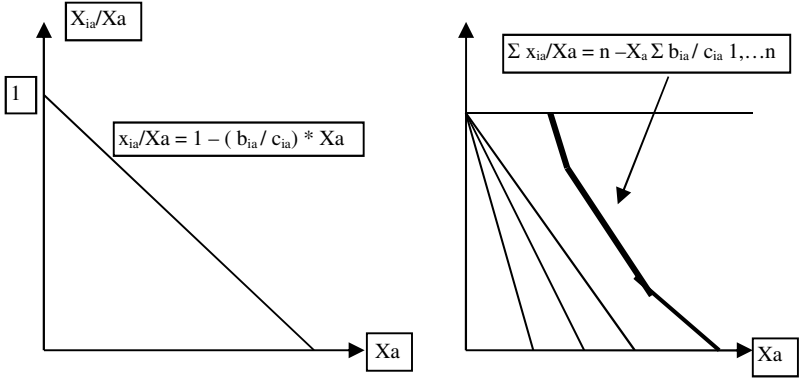


Figure 10. Share function solution for location a (compiled by the authors).

The problem is that most of these contributions try to prove that there are siting policies and **compensation schemes** that can determine optimal locations (Waehrer 2003); however, they do not come up with rules that can be applied in real situations. There are many additional legal and economic restrictions that do not allow for compensations (i.e. gifts among municipalities and horizontal fiscal equalization among municipalities are not allowed), and difficulties exist in organizing and participating in auctions etc. Moreover, most of these models consider a mix of vertical and horizontal competition between municipalities.

III. Location model for a trust of public firms

The interaction between vertical and horizontal factors of competition as well as economic and political factors with respect to selecting a location for public firms is demonstrated using a **three-level model**. It consists of **public firms at the bottom belonging to a public trust**. There is public firm j in region j . The firms are co-ordinated financially by the **headquarters of the public trust** that receives financial means for investment through the public owner (e.g. **ministry of finance of a government**). **Voters** live in region j on whose voting behaviour the government depends. Voters are sensitive to the output of firm j and the financing of budget D . The size of fixed capital A_j (s_{j1} , s_{j2}) for firm j equals **budget D_j** to cover fixed costs K_{Fj} . The fixed costs also depend on the **location s_{j1} , s_{j2}** of the public firm. We assume a production function (10) in Table 1, where the production depends on A_j and on Labour L_j and on material C_j . Then there is a demand function (11) and the self-financing of the variable costs (equation (12)). The utility of management depends on output X_j and labour L_j (equation (13)). The **maximization of the utility of management** under the restriction of the self-financing of variable costs (14) yields first order conditions referring to directions 1 and 2. The indifference curves for the management are shown in Figure 11.

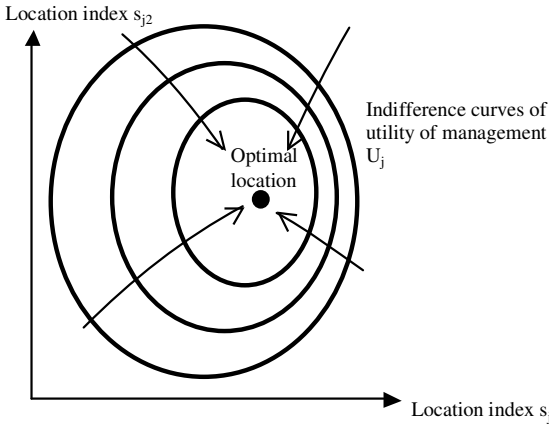


Figure 11. Optimal location of one public firm belonging to the trust (compiled by the authors).

The relation of the marginal changes to fixed costs by location variations in different directions equals the proportion of the subsequent differences. They comprise the variation in wage costs minus the variation in production volume multiplied by the marginal turnover. This is equivalent to the rule that the **rate of marginal utilities** by moving **equals the proportion of marginal gross profits**⁶.

The relation mentioned above also exists if the location is given and optimal output is determined. The proportion of marginal utilities to factor variations equals the proportion of marginal gross profits. The implied relation between input C_j and L is shown in (14.2) as are the terms for C and L . The optimal **solution for Output X_j** is shown in (14.3) and the relation between X_j and the fixed factor A_j (fixed costs K_{Fj} and budget D_j) is demonstrated in Figure 12. Equation (14.4) derives the **utility of management** at a given location.

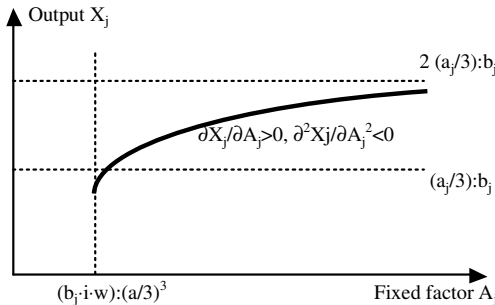


Figure 12. Development of the output if the fixed factor is varied (compiled by the authors).

⁶ Look also section IV.

Table 1. Equations concerning public firm j ($=1,2$)

(10) Production function	$X_j = A_j(s_{j1}, s_{j2}) \cdot L_j \cdot C_j,$ with s_{j1}, s_{j2} – location index D_j – Budget to cover fix costs while $A_j(s_{j1}, s_{j2}) \cdot K_{Fj} = D_j$
(11) Price–demand function	$P_j = a_j - b_j \cdot X_j = a_j - b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j$ with a_j, b_j – parameters of price–demand function
(12) Self–financing of variable costs	$w_j(s_{j1}, s_{j2}) \cdot L_j + i \cdot C_j = P_j \cdot X_j$ with w_j – wage dependent on location
(13) Utility of management	$U_j = L_j \cdot X_j$
(14) Utility maximization	Max! $U_j = L_j \cdot X_j = A_j \cdot L_j^2 \cdot C_j$, while $(a_j - b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j = w_j \cdot L_j + i \cdot C_j$; Lagrange–Function: $L = A_j \cdot L_j^2 \cdot C_j + \lambda \cdot [(a_j - b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j - w_j \cdot L_j - i \cdot C_j]$
(14.1)	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial s_{j1}} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial A_j}{\partial s_{j1}} = \frac{(\partial w_j / \partial s_{j1}) - (\partial A_j / \partial s_{j1}) \cdot (a_j - 2 \cdot b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot C_j}{(\partial w_j / \partial s_{j2}) - (\partial A_j / \partial s_{j2}) \cdot (a_j - 2 \cdot b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot C_j}$
(14.2)	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial L_j} = 0, \quad \frac{C_j}{L_j} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{w_j - (a_j - 2 \cdot b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot A_j \cdot C_j}{i - (a_j - 2 \cdot b_j \cdot A_j \cdot L_j \cdot C_j) \cdot A_j \cdot L_j}$ $L_j = \frac{a_j}{3} \cdot \frac{a_j/3 + \sqrt{(a_j/3)^2 - b_j \cdot (i \cdot w_j / A_j) / (a_j/3)}}{b_j \cdot w_j}, \quad C_j = \frac{w_j / A_j}{a_j/3}$
(14.3)	$X_j = \frac{a_j/3 + \sqrt{(a_j/3)^2 - b_j \cdot (i \cdot w_j / A_j) / (a_j/3)}}{b_j}, \text{ while } \frac{a_j/3}{b_j} < X_j < 2 \cdot \frac{a_j/3}{b_j},$ $\frac{\partial X_j}{\partial A_j} = X'_{Aj} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot (a_j/3)} \cdot \frac{i \cdot w_j / A_j^2}{b_j \cdot X_j - a_j/3} > 0,$ $\frac{\partial^2 X_j}{\partial A_j^2} = - \frac{i \cdot w_j}{(a_j/3) / b_j} \cdot \frac{X_j - (a_j/3) / b_j + A_j/2}{(b_j \cdot X_j - a_j/3)^2 \cdot A_j^3} < 0$
(14.4)	$U_j = \frac{a_j/3}{w_j} \cdot \left[\frac{(a_j/3) + \sqrt{(a_j/3)^2 - b_j \cdot (i \cdot w_j / A_j) / (a_j/3)}}{b_j} \right]^2$

Public firms in region j are co-coordinated by a **trust headquarters** (c.f. Table 2). The headquarters maximizes its utility by allocating total budget D to finance fixed costs K_{Fj} , which are expressed by $A_j(s_{j1}, s_{j2})$ and are equal to $D_j - D_j$ adds up to total budget D (equation 16). The utility of the trust of public firms is linked to the

outputs of the public firms. The parameters characterizing the headquarters are not directly location dependent. Through the output of the public firms, the budget allocation solution for the headquarters depends indirectly on the selection of a location for the public firms. The **resulting budget split** is shown in equations (17) and (18) in Table 2 and graphically depicted in Figure 13.

Table 2. Equations related to the headquarter of the public firms trust

(15) Utility
$W = \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j \cdot X_j$ with α_j : evaluation parameter of output of public firm j
(16) Total budget
$D = \sum_{j=1}^2 D_j = \sum_{j=1}^2 K_{Aj} = \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j$
(17) Utility maximization
$\text{Max! } W = \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j \cdot X_j, \text{ while } D = \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j,$ $X_j = [a_j/3 + \sqrt{(a_j/3)^2 - b_j \cdot (i \cdot w_j / A_j) / (a_j/3)}] / b_j;$ Lagrange-Function: $L = \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j \cdot X_j + \lambda \cdot (D - \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j)$ $\partial L / \partial A_j = \alpha_j \cdot X'_{Aj} - \lambda = 0, \forall j,$ $\frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdot w_1 / a_1 \cdot \sqrt{(a_2/3)^2 - b_2 \cdot (i \cdot w_2 / A_2) / (a_2/3)}}{\alpha_2 \cdot w_2 / a_2 \cdot \sqrt{(a_1/3)^2 - b_1 \cdot (i \cdot w_1 / A_1) / (a_1/3)}} =$ $\frac{\sqrt{\alpha_1 \cdot w_1 / a_1 \cdot b_2 \cdot X_2 - a_2/3}}{\sqrt{\alpha_2 \cdot w_2 / a_2 \cdot b_1 \cdot X_1 - a_1/3}}$
(18) Budget allocation
$F(A_1, A_2) = \frac{A_1^2}{A_2^2} - \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2} \cdot \frac{w_1 / a_1}{w_2 / a_2} \cdot \frac{b_2 \cdot X_2 - a_2/3}{b_1 \cdot X_1 - a_1/3} = 0, \text{ while } D = A_1 + A_2,$ $\frac{dF}{dD} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial A_1} \cdot \frac{dA_1}{dD} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial A_2} \cdot \frac{d(D - A_1)}{dD} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial A_1} \cdot \frac{dA_1}{dD} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial A_2} \cdot (1 - \frac{dA_1}{dD}) = 0,$ $\frac{dA_1}{dD} = A'_{D1} = \frac{-\partial F / \partial A_2}{\partial F / \partial A_1 - \partial F / \partial A_2} > 0, \quad \frac{dA_2}{dD} = A'_{D2} = 1 - \frac{dA_1}{dD} = \frac{\partial F / \partial A_1}{\partial F / \partial A_1 - \partial F / \partial A_2} > 0,$ while $\frac{\partial F}{\partial A_1} = \frac{A_1^2}{A_2^2} \cdot [\frac{2}{A_1} + \frac{X'_{A1}}{X_1 - (a_1/3) / b_1}] > 0, \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial A_2} = -\frac{A_1^2}{A_2^2} \cdot [\frac{2}{A_2} + \frac{X'_{A2}}{X_2 - (a_2/3) / b_2}] < 0$

The owner government of the public trust **maximizes votes**. In this way it establishes an optimal total budget (Table 3, and equations (19), (20), (21), Figure 14), which is determined by:

- Features of the production functions
- Features of the demand functions

- Preferences of the utility functions of the management of public firms, and of the management of the headquarters
- Vote maximization of the owner government
- Voter preferences and voting behaviour
- Factor prices
- Location dependence of voters and of the fixed costs of the public firms

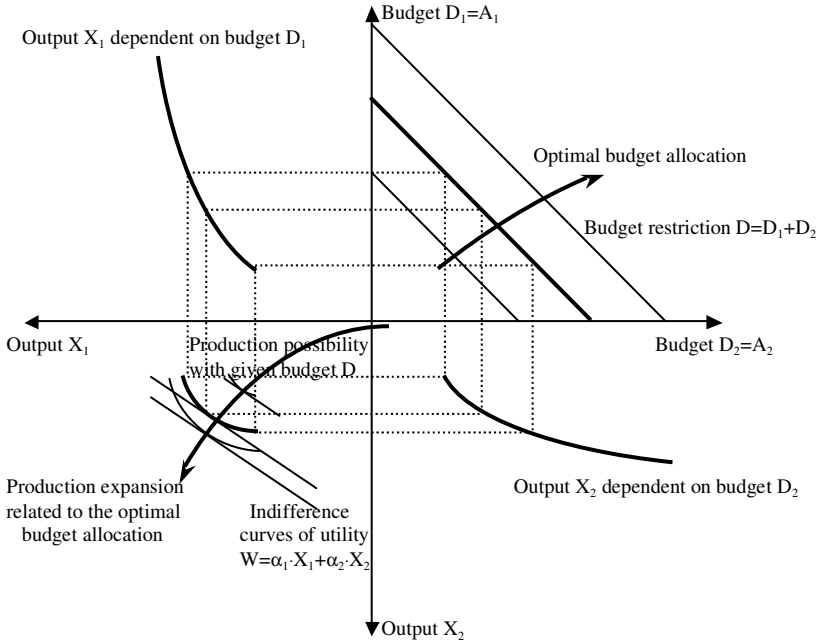


Figure 13. Allocation of budgets by the trust headquarters (compiled by the authors).

The **optimal budget** and implicitly the optimal locations are shown in Table 3. When concentrating on location-dependent fixed costs, the basic proposals mentioned above hold for a public firm. When we emphasize changes in distance depending votes, the solutions change. Through location-dependent votes, the solution is pulled to points of high vote sensitivity. The following **propositions** with respect to public firm 1, result.

(1) If **no voters sensitivity changes**:

The marginal changes due to production and budget adjustments are the same in either direction (c.f. Table 3: the third and fourth term in equation (21)).

Table 3. Equations concerning the public trust in the public owner

(19) Votes area	$V = \sum_{j=1}^2 V_j, \text{ while} \quad \text{with } V_j: \text{ Votes in region } j$ $V_j = \beta_{X_j}(s_{j1}, s_{j2}) \cdot X_j - \beta_{D_j}(s_{j1}, s_{j2}) \cdot D \quad \beta_X: \text{ output dependent voting}$ $\beta_D: \text{ budget dependent voting}$
(20) Maximization of Votes	$\text{Max! } V = \sum_{j=1}^2 V_j = \sum_{j=1}^2 (\beta_{X_j} \cdot X_j - \beta_{D_j} \cdot D), \text{ while } D = \sum_{j=1}^2 D_j = \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j$ $\frac{dV}{dD} = \sum_{j=1}^2 \left(\frac{\partial V_j}{\partial D} + \frac{\partial V_j}{\partial X_j} \cdot \frac{\partial X_j}{\partial A_j} \cdot \frac{dA_j}{dD} \right) = \sum_{j=1}^2 (\beta_{X_j} \cdot X'_{A_j} \cdot A'_{D_j} - \beta_{D_j}) =$ $\sum_{j=1}^2 \beta_{X_j} \cdot X'_{A_j} \cdot A'_{D_j} - \sum_{j=1}^2 \beta_{D_j} = 0$ $\sum_{j=1}^2 \beta_{X_j} \cdot X'_{A_j} \cdot \left[1 - \frac{\frac{1}{A_j} + \frac{a_j \cdot b_j}{3 \cdot i \cdot w_j} \cdot X'^2_{A_j} \cdot A_j^2}{\sum_{j'=1}^2 \left(\frac{1}{A_{j'}} + \frac{a_{j'} \cdot b_{j'}}{3 \cdot i \cdot w_{j'}} \cdot X'^2_{A_{j'}} \cdot A_{j'}^2 \right)} \right] = \sum_{j=1}^2 \beta_{D_j} \text{ and } D = \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j$
(21) Location Optimisation	$\frac{\partial V}{\partial s_{j1}} = \frac{\partial \beta_{X_j}}{\partial s_{j1}} \cdot X_j - \frac{\partial \beta_{D_j}}{\partial s_{j1}} \cdot D + \beta_{X_j} \cdot \frac{\partial X_j}{\partial s_{j1}} + \sum_{j'=1}^2 (\beta_{X_{j'}} \cdot X'_{A_{j'}} \cdot A'_{D_{j'}} - \beta_{D_{j'}}) \cdot \frac{\partial D}{\partial s_{j1}} = 0,$ $\frac{\partial V}{\partial s_{j2}} = \frac{\partial \beta_{X_j}}{\partial s_{j2}} \cdot X_j - \frac{\partial \beta_{D_j}}{\partial s_{j2}} \cdot D + \beta_{X_j} \cdot \frac{\partial X_j}{\partial s_{j2}} + \sum_{j'=1}^2 (\beta_{X_{j'}} \cdot X'_{A_{j'}} \cdot A'_{D_{j'}} - \beta_{D_{j'}}) \cdot \frac{\partial D}{\partial s_{j2}} = 0$ $\frac{\partial V}{\partial s_{j1}} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial s_{j2}} = 0, \forall j$ $\frac{\partial \beta_{X_j}}{\partial s_{j1}} \cdot X_j - \frac{\partial \beta_{D_j}}{\partial s_{j1}} \cdot D, \quad \frac{\partial \beta_{X_j}}{\partial s_{j2}} \cdot X_j - \frac{\partial \beta_{D_j}}{\partial s_{j2}} \cdot D$ $\beta_{X_j} \cdot \frac{\partial X_j}{\partial s_{j1}}, \quad \beta_{X_j} \cdot \frac{\partial X_j}{\partial s_{j2}}$ $\sum_{j'=1}^2 (\beta_{X_{j'}} \cdot X'_{A_{j'}} \cdot A'_{D_{j'}} - \beta_{D_{j'}}) \cdot \frac{\partial D}{\partial s_{j1}},$ $\sum_{j'=1}^2 (\beta_{X_{j'}} \cdot X'_{A_{j'}} \cdot A'_{D_{j'}} - \beta_{D_{j'}}) \cdot \frac{\partial D}{\partial s_{j2}}$ Marginal variation of votes: - without production and budget adjustments - because of production adjustments - because of budget adjustments

(2) If only location output sensitive votes change:

Marginal changes in votes due to production and budget adjustments as well as votes changes due to marginal output votes and the resulting adjustments being the same in each direction.

(3) If budget and output sensitive votes change:

Marginal changes in votes induced by the sensitivity changes as well as due to output and budget changes having to be equal in all directions.

The same is true for public firm 2.

Thus a **theory of public firm location** is formulated by integrating several of the location theories mentioned earlier. The **vote maximal budget** is shown in Figure 14. The vote maximal total results when the marginal increase in output dependent votes absolutely equals the marginal decrease in budget dependent votes.

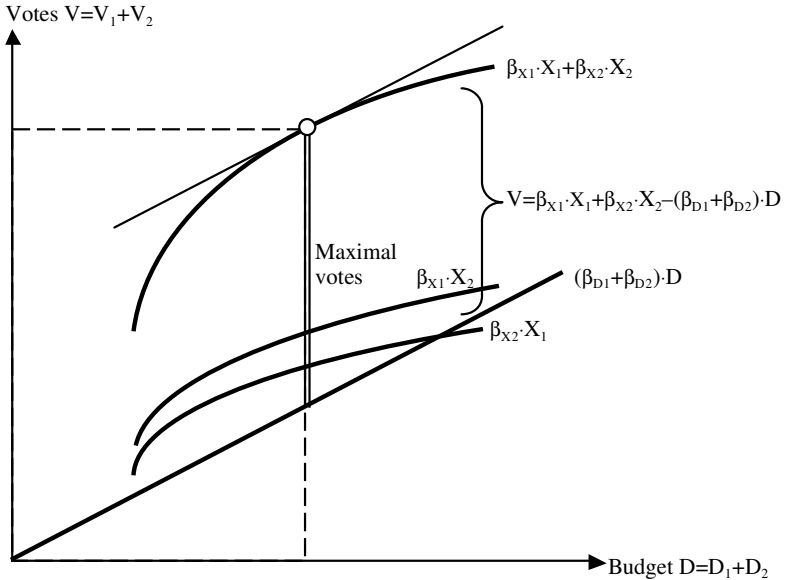


Figure 14. Vote maximal total budget (compiled by the authors).

IV. Conclusions and further research development

The decision oriented theory of the public firm (Feng, Friedrich 2013) becomes extended. The authors consider that sometimes public firms **compete horizontally** as well. This can be due to competition among the public owners (e.g. municipalities) considering location choices for public firms they own, or public firms competing against each other. We mention some results related to the first type of competition and we refer to how the literature on location choices under oligopolic conditions could be referred to within the framework of our basic approach. One approach by Cornes and Hartley (2001) also allows modelling the establishment of **joint ventures** and their location choices.

The basic model of the public firm is used to provide insight into the location choices of a **trust of public firms**. The trust exhibits coordination at three levels via the politically-oriented decision-making body of the public owner, the trust's headquarters and subsidiary public firms. The resulting model illustrates the interplay of different decision-makers and the effects of the coordinating activities. The first attempts to formulate a public firm decision-making oriented location theory exist.

The microeconomic public firm trust location model and location theories provided can be **extended in various ways**:

- More public firms, different types of public firms and several trusts can also be introduced;
- More competitive parameters of actions could be considered for public firms;
- Different market forms and private-public competition among firms can be integrated;
- Different vote functions for federal, state and local governments should be introduced;
- Competition among governments on one side and their public firms could be involved (Lindemann 1999);
- A set of horizontal and vertical competition models to explain and predict competition for investor settlement (in China), developed by Feng (2005), could be linked to these approaches;
- Other location theories concerning growth, development, growth pole and cluster theory and infrastructure theories, could be adapted for the purposes of public firm location theory.

References

1. **Armstrong, M.** (1996) Multiproduct Nonlinear Pricing, *Econometrica*, Vol. 64, pp. 51-75
2. **Bernheim, D., D. Whinston** (1986) Menu Auctions, Resource Allocation and Economic Influence, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 101, pp. 1-31
3. **Cornes, R., R. Hartley** (2001); Joint Production and Share Functions, Working Paper, Department of Economics, Keele University, Keele
4. **Feng X.** (2005), Theorie der unternehmerischen Standortwahl, des Standortwettbewerbs und raumwirtschaftlicher Effekte, Manuskript, München.
5. **Feng X., P. Friedrich** (2013), Basic Approaches to a Location Theory of One Public Firm,
6. **Frey, B.S., F. Oberholzer-Gee** (1996), Fair siting Procedures: An Empirical Analysis of their Importance and Characteristics, *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, Vol. 15, pp. 353-376
7. **Frey, B.S., F. Oberholzer-Gee, R. Eichenberger** (1996), The Old Lady Visits your Backyard: A Tale of Morals and Markets, *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 104, pp. 1297-1313
8. **Friedrich, P.** (1969), Investitionskriterien für Gemeindeunternehmen, Mohr, Tübingen

9. **Friedrich, P.** (1976), Standorttheorie für öffentliche Verwaltungen, Nomos, Baden-Baden
10. **Friedrich, P.** (1988), X-Ineffizienz öffentlicher Unternehmen – ein ausschlaggebendes Privatisierungsargument?, in: H. Brede (Ed.), Privatisierung und die Zukunft der öffentlichen Wirtschaft, Nomos, Baden-Baden, pp. 235-265
11. **Friedrich, P.** (1998), Gebührensteuerung mittels geeigneter Kostenrechnung - Ein Analyserahmen -, in: H. Brede (Ed.), Preise und Gebühren in der Entsorgungswirtschaft, Nomos, Baden-Baden, pp. 181-220
12. **Grimsey, D.; Lewis, M.K.** (2004), Public Private Partnerships, The Worldwide Revolution in Infrastructure Provision and Project Finance, Elgar, Cheltenham, Northampton
13. **Ingberman, D.E.** (1995), Siting noxious facilities are market efficient? Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, Vol. 29, pp. S20-S33
14. **Isard W., T.E. Smith, Isard P., T.H. Tung, M. Dacey** (1986), General theory, Social, Political, Economic and Regional, MIT-Press, Cambridge Mass., London
15. **Jehiel, P., B. Moldovanu** (1996), Strategic Nonparticipation, Rand Journal of Economics, Vol. 27, pp. 84-98
16. **Jehiel, P., B. Moldovanu, E. Stachetti** (1999), Multidimensional Mechanism Design for Auctions with externalities, Journal of Economic Theory, Vol. 85, pp. 258-293
17. **Krelle, W.** (1976), Preistheorie, II. Teil, Mohr, Tübingen
18. **Kuhnreuther, H., P. R. Kleindorfer** (1986), A Sealed-bid Auction Mechanism for Siting Noxious Facilities, American Economic Review, Vol. 76, pp. 295-299
19. **Kuhnreuther, H., P.R. Kleindorfer, P.J: Knez, R. Yasick** (1987), A Compensation Mechanism for Siting Noxious Facilities: Theory and Experimental Design, Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, Vol. 14, pp. 371-383
20. **Lindemann, S.** (1999), Theorie und Empirie kommunalen Wirtschaftsförderungs-wettbewerbs, Nomos, Baden-Baden
21. **McAfee, R.P., J. McMillan** (1988), Multidimensional Incentive Compatibility and Mechanism Design, Journal of Economic Theory, Vol. 46, pp. 335-354
22. **McAfee, R.P., J. McMillan, M.D. Whinston** (1989), Multiproduct Monopoly, Commodity Bundling, and Correlation of Values, Quarterly Journal of Economics, Vol. 104, pp. 371-383
23. **Mueller D.C.** (2002), Public Choice III, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
24. **Richardson, J., Kunreuther H.** (1993), Essential test for a Nash-efficient Mechanism for Collective Choice with Compensation, Journal of Behavior and Organization, Vol. 22, 349-369
25. **Rochet, J.C., P. Choné** (1998), Ironing, Sweeping, and Multidimensional Screening, Econometrica, Vol. 66, pp. 783-826
26. **Wahrer, K.** (2003), Hazardous Facility Siting when Cost Information is Private: An Application of Multidimensional Mechanism Design, Journal of Public Economy Theory, Vol. 5, pp. 605-622

UNIVERSITY IMPLEMENTING ITS COMMUNITY SERVICE ROLE THROUGH CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN A REGIONAL COLLEGE

Anne Keerberg¹, Aet Kiisla², Sulev Mäeltsemees³
Tallinn University of Technology

Abstract

The three roles of a higher education institution are teaching, research and community service. The objective of the article is to analyse how a university regional college can implement the task of community service via its curriculum development. The theoretical base lies on the positions of internationally recognised scientists of education policy as well as OECD definitions and clarifications that are compared to the cases of the regional colleges (in Narva and Kuressaare) of two universities (respectively University of Tartu and Tallinn University of Technology).

The set task enables to study as a whole such components as the content and design of curricula, teaching and assessment methods, extracurricular activities, topics and supervision of students' research works, cooperation with partners. A comprehensive approach is a precondition of a well-functioning curriculum, with community service being the unifying aspect.

The results of current study are applicable in case of the analysed curricula and colleges, they partly applicable in case of any other similar curricula and units. Prerequisites of the colleges' network evolvement, holistic impact and compliance with the region-specific needs is a significant topic the additional study of which has already begun.⁴

Keywords: regional policy, higher education, universities' community service, research and development, human capital, curriculum development

JEL Classification: I23, I25, O15, O31, R58

Introduction

Historically, the primary role of universities has been teaching. As a result of Alexander von Humboldt's academic revolution in the mid-19th century, scientific research became the second main function of a university, yet closely connected to

¹ Anne Keerberg MA; Director, Kuressaare College of Tallinn University of Technology; Rootsi 7, Kuressaare; anne.keerberg@ttu.ee

² Aet Kiisla MSc; Director for Academic Affairs, Lecturer, Narva College of University of Tartu; Raekoja plats 2, Narva; aet.kiisla@ut.ee

³ Sulev Mäeltsemees PhD; Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences, Tallinn University of Technology; Ehitajate tee 5, Tallinn; sulev.maeltsemees@ttu.ee

⁴ Research and Innovation policy Monitoring Programme 4.5
<http://www.tips.ut.ee/index.php?module=32&op=1&id=3464>

teaching. Community service, the third role of universities became a discussion issue in the late decades of the 20th century only. That was caused by changes in the society – globalisation, networking, a closer connection to the community, development of service industry and knowledge-based production. (Chatterton and Goddard 2000; OECD 2007: 21; Bass and Silverstein 1996; Arbo and Benneworth 2007). Research is, as a rule, considered the most important task of a university (among universities research universities are often separately pointed out), on which teaching is naturally based. Community service is mostly called the third task, but is closely connected to the first and second tasks. During recent years, community service has become highly valued, in the countries of young democracies in particular. (Chatterton & Goddard 2000:447)

Rapid changes assume a university to build a closer connection to its environment, a quicker reaction to and higher flexibility in meeting the community expectations. Community service enhances both study and R&D activities, providing services to businesses and public sector institutions as well as contributing to the administrative capacity building of a region. Community service has taken its place next to study and research activities but is closely integrated in them. It is a pro-active activity, enhancing transferring and adapting internationally created knowledge according to the community needs in all its regions. (Chatterton & Goddard 2000; Virtanen 2001)

The Universities Act, adopted in Estonia in 1995, identifies the mission of a university in providing services based on educational and research activities: “The mission of a university is to advance science, academic practice, create and develop possibilities based on integrated instruction and research for obtaining up-to-date higher education corresponding to the Standard of Higher Education, to organise continuing education and provide services to the society which are based on educational and research activities.” (Ülikooliseadus 1995: §4) The 2003 amendment to the Act provides details on the academic levels of higher education but the mission of a university remains unchanged (Ülikooliseadus 2003: §4). The 2008 amendment to the Act §4 provides a subsection pointing out the need for cooperation in the activity of a university: “Upon accomplishing its mission, universities cooperate with each other as well as with the entire society by supporting the development of the society and the preservation of national culture by effective research, development or other creative activities and by creating and developing possibilities based on integrated instruction and research activities for international cooperation, acquisition of higher education based on scientific approach as well as for continuing education.” (Ülikooliseaduse... 2008: §7).

The Universities Act or any other legal acts don't specify the term “college”. The regional colleges of public universities have been established, commencing from the amendments of 1996 in the Universities Act §19 (3¹), according to which a structure of a university may include institutions of the university that are in their activity guided by the statutes adopted by the council of the university (Ülikooliseaduse... 1996: §1 p.23). In 2011, a provision was inserted in the Act §19 (1), stating that in case of possibility, the structure of the university is developed considering regional needs (Erakooliseaduse... 2011: §3 p.1).

The establishment of university's new units including the colleges is by law an autonomous decision of the university. In 1990s, University of Tartu and Tallinn University of Technology used this opportunity. The creation of Narva College was initiated by the Ministry of Education in order to improve the quality of teacher training for schools with Russian as a language of instruction. The creation of Kuressaare College was initiated by the university and its partners from county and local governments. The reasoning came in both cases from different state and county strategies. For the opening of the new curricula the colleges made an application to their universities where the connection with the region was explained. Expert opinions from regional partners were added. Curriculum development is always done in accordance with regional partners' opinions, since both universities have the requirement of having these partners in every program council.

Since regional colleges in Estonia haven't been established as a result of a wider systematic research, additional research is needed. A broad-based research project is already currently in progress and the results will be reported in 2014. The authors of current paper also participate (including data collection) in the project as it includes all regional colleges in Estonia, and focuses on whether Regional Higher Educational Institutions are the result of intrauniversity competition, local initiative or national innovation policy⁵. While the data for the wider analysis is being collected we concentrate on two colleges and their two curricula and thereby contribute to the better understanding of the possibilities of the regional colleges in the regional development. The uniqueness of this contribution lays in the way how regional engagement is looked at - the combination of the three roles of universities and curriculum development.

The objective of current article is to analyse at the example of Narva College of University of Tartu and Kuressaare College of Tallinn University of Technology whether and how the development of curricula in region-specific fields, research and development as well as contributing to socio-cultural activity support cooperation in the region and the mission of community service.

The research questions for achieving this goal are: What can curriculum development provide in order to foster service to the region? Does a regional college and its curricula have to implement all three tasks of the university in the same proportion as the university in general?

The objective set enables a comprehensive study in a curriculum design: content of the study activity, teaching and assessment methods, extracurricular activities, topics and supervision of students' research works, cooperation with partners. A comprehensive approach is a precondition of a well-functioning curriculum, with community service being the unifying aspect of current article.

⁵ Research and Innovation policy Monitoring Programme 4.5
<http://www.tips.ut.ee/index.php?module=32&op=1&id=3464>

The article analyses the possibilities to support community service via curriculum development, based on the dimensions formulated by OECD: knowledge creation in the region, human capital formation and knowledge transfer, cultural and community development. Upon preparing the article, the following has been studied: analysis of documents based on the documents on curricula design, analyses, reports, minutes of meetings and other summaries of the kind. In addition, colleges and their development plans as well as other strategic documents and regional activity related materials have been studied. Many of these documents are not for public use. Information is presented through authors' experience as they have been active participants and observers of all processes described.

The results of current study are applicable in regional units (counties) in case of all curricula meeting similar conditions, some results are more specific and thus applicable only in the curricula under current study.

The activity of the two regional colleges of the two biggest Estonian universities under study is governed by the same national legal acts, making the cases well comparable. At the same time, the activity of these colleges is independent of each other and therefore the maximum reliability and applicability in a broader sense (to other similar colleges) are secured. The cases under study are independent of each other as the colleges operate under different universities and are geographically located far away from each other. Also the regions under study have quite different socio-economic profiles. Same refers to the curricula, one of them belongs to a social and the other to a technological sphere which in turn secures the validity in case of different curricula and universities.

Description of research objects

There are 29 educational establishments in Estonia where higher education can be acquired (as of 31.01.2013 www.hm.ee). Higher education is provided by both public and private educational establishments. There are six public universities.

Estonian public universities have seven regional colleges, located away from their main campuses in Tallinn or Tartu⁶. The colleges are located all over Estonia, offering curricula and advancing R&D activity specific to their region and university. The rectors of public universities have signed an agreement (24.11.2008) setting the strategic goal of a joint development of a regional competence centres network covering Estonia and required for promoting lifelong learning and entrepreneurship in the region. In addition to teaching, regional colleges contribute to building regional innovation systems and support community development activities.

⁶ Narva College, Pärnu College and Viljandi Culture Academy of University of Tartu; Kuressaare College and Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology; Haapsalu College and Rakvere College of Tallinn University.

University of Tartu has approved in 2008 the guidelines of the regional programme that underpin the development of education and research and development activities in the regions (Tartu... 2008). According to the Development Plan of University of Tartu “the university shall in cooperation with partners, develop and strengthen the university’s colleges as training and competency centres, in order to promote balanced development in Estonia through the transfer of knowledge and skills.” (University... 2009)

The Council of Tallinn University of Technology has approved in 2009 the bases of regional activities, which stresses the need to contribute to the balanced development of the country through training, counselling, and communication, provision of services and applied research in all counties of Estonia. Regional activities are based on its regional colleges; the university has set a strategic goal to develop the Competence Centres in Saaremaa and Ida-Viru counties. (Tallinna... 2009)

The mission of Narva College is to act as the leading force driving the development of knowledge-based society and to be the guarantor of its continuity in Ida-Viru County, to serve the society through study and research work, to offer its students the best opportunities for self-development and decent education, to help them apply their knowledge in the society; and to promote development of connections between various cultures in Estonia. (Narva... 2008)

Development Plan of Kuressaare College formulates the mission: “Kuressaare College of TUT provides the availability of higher education in West-Estonia and contributes to fostering regional sustainability and capacity in cooperation with community and county organisations, public sector institutions and business sector.” (Development... 2011)

Narva is situated on the border between the European Union and Russia. There are four HEIs operating in Narva but only one of them is public – Narva College of the University of Tartu. The College was established in 1999 as an answer to the needs of the region, mainly to educate the teachers of the schools providing education in the Russian language. Later on, other lines of education have been launched, among them the curriculum of Local Government’s Administration (LGA) at the level of higher professional education.

Ida-Viru County Development Plan emphasizes that integration processes play an important role in the development of communities. Integration should be carried out not only in language-training, but also through other substantive activities, including education and research (Ida-Viru... 2012). Access to higher education for non-native speakers of English has become more complicated, as highlighted in the recent study by Praxis (Praxis... 2013). Thus it is the College’s moral obligation to support the integration process. Developing the curriculum of LGA by Narva College supports the development goals of Narva city: to become the best municipality with highest local administrative capacity in Ida-Viru County. To achieve this goal it is necessary to increase the competence of the officials (Narva... 2007).

Kuressaare College was established in 1999 as an institution of Tallinn University of Technology and a legal successor of the Institute of Islands Development. The College started with education in the field of tourism, characteristic of Saaremaa. Later on, education in electronics, business and small craft building was started, the latter of which has in the process of developing the Estonian regional innovation strategy been brought forward as a production sector with a region-specific and high development potential (Tiits 2007). In 2011, Small Craft Competence Centre, a research and development centre was established as a structural unit of the College.

Saare county development strategy emphasizes the importance of developing a cluster-based entrepreneurship, stating the tourism and the maritime economy as the most important fields of the county. The goal is to make available know-how in these areas, including the development of curricula (Saare... 2008). Kuressaare city's strategic goal is to develop comprehensive educational and career opportunities for the island; in collaboration with Kuressaare College and Estonian Maritime Academy Kuressaare aims to create conditions for the establishment of a maritime education center in Kuressaare (Kuressaare... 2013).

There are less than 100 students of Local Government's Administration speciality in Narva College. Estonians make up about 30% of the students; others are native Russian speakers, mostly of the Russian nationality. As of 1.10.2012, 50 students attended the Small Craft Building curriculum in Kuressaare College. The students of both specialities involve both gymnasium leavers and people employed in the respective sector.

Theoretical Framework – Regional Contribution of Higher Education Institutions

Upon studying the topic of community service, the authors have applied a diversity of approaches: the role of universities in innovation (Charles 2006; Westnes et al 2009; Allison and Eversole 2008), the role of the managing staff of universities (Gunasekara 2004), the perspectives of the academic staff (Bond and Paterson 2005), knowledge transfer via communication networks of the academic staff (Vaessen and Velde 2003), involvement in development activities as a regional policy instrument (Hudson 2006). The aspects closer and more relevant to the focus of current article are observed in a more detail.

While exploring how Nijmegen University (Netherlands) impacts on the study environment of the organisations of the region, Vaessen and Velde (2003) draw a conclusion that just the very existence of a university in a region increases the region's prestige and the academic staff have next to their professional activity an impact on the neighbourhood through their personal contacts as well as various formal and informal networking. The work points out the significance of transferring their knowledge and expertise in the course of social communication outside their work assignments. (Vaessen and Velde 2003: 107).

The quality of the teaching depends, among other issues, on the involvement of the academic staff in community service. Bond and Paterson (2005) questioned over 800 and interviewed over 80 members of academic staff in England and Scotland. The authors point out that the members of the academic staff demonstrate an active involvement in and connection to their community both in principal and practice; the involvement is identified at different geographical levels and often under unfavourable conditions. The authors study involvement from two aspects: social and economic (these aspects are often called 'soft' and 'hard' respectively). The vast majority of respondents believe that the participation of universities in debates outside their institutions is important. 88% also believe that it is important to provide advice to policymakers (Bond and Paterson 2005: 338). The reasons for such activities are mainly related to the sense of duty or responsibility, not practical gain or prestige.

Regional networking can be thought of as an institutional survival or strengthening strategy for universities (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 481). Higher education institutions provide education, conduct research and play an active role in the development of their economic, social and cultural environment. "Within the individual institution, the challenge is to link the teaching, research and community service roles by internal mechanisms (funding, staff development, incentives and rewards, communications, etc.) that make these activities more responsive to regional needs" (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 482). Regional contribution to civil society is conducted through extra-mural activities of individual staff as we also read in Bond and Paterson (2005) or through providing liberal adult education, through public lectures, etc (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 489). From a regional perspective, higher education institutions can be the key local agencies that are able to bring together within the territory different national interests (OECD 2007: 30).

Hudson (2006) has described the development of legislative and financial framework of the third mission of higher education institutions in Sweden during half a century. Despite the fact that the legislation in the field was quite vague, the majority of HEIs proved to be central actors in the regional growth partnerships (Hudson 2006: 398). The author illustrates the process on the example of Umeå University which is similar to Narva and Kuressaare Colleges as it is also peripheral. Their regional engagement was not only answering the needs of the region by conducting research, teaching and offering cooperation but also by widening recruitment to higher education and supplying the labour market with qualified personnel (Hudson 2006: 402). One of the biggest obstacles was that decision-making processes in a big university were often cumbersome and slow moving (Hudson 2006: 404).

Similar to Sweden, the regional activity of higher education institutions was extended in Finland. In line with a regional extension, emphasis on performing the community service mission increased, universities became instruments of regional policy implementation. Just extending is not sufficient, alongside with teaching the university has to contribute to the creation of knowledge-based jobs in cooperation with business and public sectors so that specialists with higher education could find

a job in the region according to their qualification. (Virtanen 2010) The branches of higher education institutions act as focal points of research and innovation networks, mediators of competences and additional resource fostering an international dimension. The activity, impact and quality of the units acting outside university cities have little been studied and thus a more detailed analysis is required to draw in-depth conclusions. (Vihula, Kosonen and Sotarauta 2006)

One of the most extensive researches in the field of the community service of universities has been the OECD initiated under the IMHE (Institutional Management in Higher Education) programme thematic review project “Supporting the contribution of HEIs to regional development” in the course of which HEIs and regions evaluated their cooperation. The first period of 2005-2007 embraced 14 regions across 12 countries (Arbo and Benneworth 2007; OECD 2007). In the second round in 2008-2011 another 14 regions attended and in the last round in 2010-2012 6 regions participated (OECD 2012).

Charles and Benneworth (2002) have developed a tool that benchmarks regional contributions of HEIs, which includes seven themes and can be used in measuring and comparing the regional contribution of HEIs. Very importantly, Charles and Benneworth (2002) draw attention to promoting sustainability. This tool has in some rewording become the basis of the OECD guidelines for self-analysis, according to which it is recommended to evaluate the regional engagement and contribution of HEIs under the following dimensions (Guidelines... 2008):

- The contribution of HEIs to the creation and development of regional innovation systems. **Knowledge creation in the region through research** and its application, e.g. spin out companies, intellectual property rights and consultancy. Usually, by knowledge creation ‘hard’ contributions and innovation are meant. In the ‘soft’ fields different new forms of knowledge and its creation are addressed – data, skills, networking and experience (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 480).
- The contribution of the study activity to developing knowledge and skills meeting the needs of a labour market. **Human capital formation and knowledge transfer** – re-localisation of a learning process using learning in a real work-environment or practical training, graduate employment in the region, continuing education, professional development and lifelong learning activities. The main question of knowledge transfer is how to get the right knowledge to the right people. The knowledge itself could be either explicit or tacit. (Calo 2008)
- **The support of HEIs to social, cultural and non-waste technological development.** Cultural and community development contributing to the milieu, social cohesion and sustainable development on which innovation in the region depends. Universities have historically had a great role in nation-building, promoting sustainable development, people’s awareness (Arbo and Benneworth 2007: 52; Zilahy and Huisinigh 2009). The role of HEIs in increasing regional administrative and cooperation capacity. Development of the administrative capacity for regional cooperation, community development and management

capacity. The academic staff carries a remarkable role by participating as experts in decision making bodies of regional level (Arbo and Benneworth 2007: 71).

Relying on the reports analysing the cooperation of HEIs and regions, the OECD analyst Puukka points out that even if the regions that have participated in the self-evaluation process are very different and their differences are diverse, all share the problem of vast development inequalities inside their regions that requires solutions (Puukka 2009). The same problem is pointed out in the analysis of the terms of reference for developing the strategy of regional development of Estonia 2020: inside the country, the development inequalities of regions are too high, in order to attain the objectives of regional development, a more efficient involvement of policies of different sectors is required to implement the strategy. It is pointed out in the analysis that to foster the competitiveness of labour range outside Tallinn and Tartu, the potential of regional colleges of universities can be considered. (Eesti... 2012). Despite the small size of the country, the regional development of Estonia is highly uneven and the results of the 2012 census confirmed the departure of the population from a number of counties. With the support of colleges, it is possible to offer broader possibilities for learning and working that in turn increases the development potential of a region and reduces the level of departure of the population.

In the framework of a regional policy, the innovation capacity may be increased as well as the connection of businesses to universities and research institutions. Economic specialisation, based on the competence advantages of regions, is vital for balancing regional development. The role of regional policy has also been stressed out in the 2020 European strategy for smart economic growth. (Regionaalpoliitika... 2010)

Knowledge Creation and Research in the Region

Knowledge creation and research in the region and their application shows the ways through which higher education institutions are involved with regional innovation systems. Its primary focus is on the 'hard' contributions, such as the inputs to firm-based innovation, including consultancy (OECD 2007: 117-142). 'Soft' contributions mean broader research which helps to create a common understanding of priorities for regional development amongst regional stakeholders and prepare the ground for cooperation between the academic and non-academic community. Public Administration as a discipline generally carries more 'soft' aspects whereas Small Craft Building represents 'hard' ones.

In the context of lifelong learning, knowledge creation takes on different characteristics. In particular, it is important to differentiate between codifiable knowledge (data), tacit knowledge (skills), knowledge required for networking or acquaintances and experience. These forms of 'hybrid knowledge' become the most valuable type of knowledge depending upon interpersonal relationships, trust and cooperation and are most readily developed within the region. (Chatterton and

Goddard 2000: 480) These thoughts will be closely studied in the context of both curricula. Next to research, it is also important to discuss the content of a curriculum or the essence of knowledge from the point of view of regional needs.

Knowledge creation and research in Narva College are mainly oriented to issues of multiculturalism. The results are not directly transferable into regional innovation systems. They are acting as the base for all actions in this multicultural region. This research is appreciated by the state which is continuously ordering cross-cultural communication training-courses for different target groups. This way research is connected to lifelong learning. Research in the Local Government's Administration curriculum is practically absent because of the lack of academic personnel in the field. This might be the biggest shortcoming of the curriculum. The solution seems to lie in a closer cooperation with other universities but their research interests are not clearly connected to multiculturalism (in Public Administration). The students' research papers are mainly in the form of graduation theses which are preferably on the topics with a practical outcome. In case of in-service students it is logical that they write a thesis which has a practical value to their organisation and this is actually very valuable in terms of regional engagement. The cooperation of students and lecturers has little been employed as the lecturers' interests are somewhat broader and more theoretical. Therefore, maybe we just have to accept that there is no jointly created knowledge in such a small regional college.

Since the classical knowledge creation is rather weak in the field of Public Administration, the knowledge creation in the context of lifelong learning and the composition of the curriculum or the essence of the knowledge offered should rather be focused at.

The Standard of Higher Education sets homogeneous general requirements to the curricula of the same level education programmes. Upon designing some curricula, it is possible to commence from professional standards (e.g. Small Craft Building) but in Public Administration no concrete standards exist. "The main regulative mechanism has been competition. This has led to rather similar developments in the programmes' composition as well as using the already existing strengths in the institutions" (Kalev et al 2008: 146).

The objective of the LGA curriculum is to train local government officials, especially for the region. Narva College tries to provide the students with the tools to work in civil service, the general understanding about the public sector and society overall; and more focused knowledge about local government. Practical training makes up a big part of the curriculum. The content of the curriculum is being constantly developed and revised on the suggestions of the Programme Council which consists of future employers, lecturers, students and graduates.

Denhardt (2001) has formulated the big questions of Public Administration education:

- Do we seek to educate our students with respect to theory or to practice?

- Do we prepare students for their first jobs or for those to which they might aspire later?
- What are the appropriate delivery mechanisms for MPA courses and curricula?
- What personal commitments do we make as Public Administration educators?

In respect to the first question about theory and practice, one thing to consider is what graduates are doing in the future. If they wish to go to work in public service immediately as professional higher education graduates usually do, they should get as much practical guidance as possible. If they choose to continue studying at the Master's level, they should have more theoretical subjects. Since both ways are accepted, it makes finding the balance between theory and practice hard but a necessary task. In other words, we are discovering the balance between codifiable and tacit knowledge (see Chatterton and Goddard 2000).

How can the students with different needs and future plans be helped within the same curriculum? This issue is similar to Denhardt's second question. Denhardt (2001: 531) has tried to answer this question but even he said: "Educators in Public Administration have frequently assumed there is one best way to construct programmes and policies and that we should take a one-size-fits-all approach to our students. /.../ Some people are simply more interested in theory than others – and that goes for faculty as well as students".

Denhardt suggests that the differentiation between pre-service and in-service students is needed: "students require different kinds of knowledge and skills at different points in their careers" (Denhardt 2001: 527). Nonetheless he sees the possibility of learning from each other if these audiences are taught together. One part of the class has life-experience and broader world-view; they can link new knowledge to the existing one ('know-how', 'know-who' and 'know-why'). The others are good learners ('know-what') but they do not have the context where to put the new knowledge in. These groups can support each other in acquiring the 'hybrid knowledge' (see Chatterton and Goddard 2000). The challenge for Public Administration educators (see Denhardt's fourth question) is to choose learning methods that take advantage of this composition. Denhardt (2001: 532) recommends, if designing different curricula is impossible due to the size of the programme, a set of common core courses might be followed by different electives. The student interested in continuing studies at next level, should receive more theory and the student interested in entering a labour market should receive more practical knowledge and skills.

The contribution of Kuressaare College to the creation of regional innovation systems and to research activity is more systematic and clearer, compared to the case of Narva College. Small Craft Building is a 'hard' contribution (Chatterton and Goddard 2000), supporting the business sector of the region. Small regions can be successful in knowledge creation in specific sectors (smart specialisation), in which they have competitive advantages compared to other regions and in which the expected benefit is biggest (Foray, David and Hall 2009).

In Estonia, boatbuilding shows major concentration on the mainland coastal areas and the island of Saaremaa. Boatbuilding is a specific field of activity on islands, where there is a respective historical tradition and experience.

Two years ago, Small Craft Competence Centre, a research and development centre was established as a structural unit of the College with the aim of accumulating and developing respective knowhow and transferring it to businesses (scc.ee). The very idea of the Small Craft Competence Centre was initiated in the course of developing Estonian regional innovation system in 2005-2008, where small craft building was identified as the strategic field of activity to be primarily developed in Saaremaa. (Eesti.... 2008)

Small craft cluster development strategy has identified the lack of knowhow as the main development barrier of the sector: technical design, product development, development of production technology, certifying and testing small craft (Väikelaevaehituse... 2010). The idea of a Small Craft Competence Centre is based on overcoming this deficit. Next to developing knowhow, services and infrastructure, it is essential to develop education in small craft building at the same time on the level of both vocational training and higher education. Cohesion between the roles of teaching, research and community service is a precondition for the respective activities to meet the needs of a region (Chatterton and Goddard 2000). Since the boatbuilding sector has mainly been concentrated in Saaremaa, the benefit from the cooperation between respective businesses and research is highest to this region (Foray, David and Hall 2009).

The Competence Centre has good preconditions to develop into a substantial service provider and partner to businesses in applied research, relying on the activity of the University of Technology in this field. It is more complicated to meet the needs of businesses in small craft design as Estonia lacks respective competence and the international search for contacts has not given the expected results yet.

As a conclusion, it may be stated that university colleges provide access to new knowledge and develop the competence of public and private sectors across Estonia; they support the creation of regional innovation systems and the development of region-specific fields of economy. Certain services, like training, information requests, mediation of contacts, consultancy, project management, technology and product development and applied research become the instruments of cooperation.

The case of Kuressaare College characterises one of the possible cooperation forms, where an education and research institution together with private and public sectors contribute to the development of the small craft competence centre, vocational training and higher education in Saaremaa. The region-specific sphere has been identified in common discussions, in which the college had the role of a leader, connector of target groups and mediator of contacts. The strengths of the college in this process have been good contacts with necessary institutes in the university, international connections and project management competence. The weakness identified is the different speed of activity of education and research institutions and

businesses, the development processes in universities and the time required to apply for funds in several agencies are time-consuming and differ greatly from the pace, businesses are used to. Businesses require quicker results and their needs for services change quickly in time.

The case of Narva College is directed at a softer knowledge creation, the development of cooperation between academic and non-academic communities and to the knowledge creation through lifelong learning and graduation thesis of a practical nature. Like in Kuressaare, the competence of project management is essential in Narva College. Project based solutions are applied to mitigate regional problems: unemployment, professional training and integration.

Current chapter reveals region-specific activities that may on the one hand be a weakness and on the other hand – a strength. Authors have realised that regional colleges focus on applied research mainly. The proportion of research compared to the study activity and project management in different networks is less than in the faculties of universities.

Human Capital Formation and Knowledge Transfer

The core idea of human capital formation is how to transfer the right knowledge to the right people and what the role of higher education institutions in a regional labour market is.

Knowledge transfer is the focal topic in studying the cooperation of universities and businesses. Respective studies have been conducted also in Estonia, e.g. “Indicators measuring university-industry cooperation” (Seppo and Lilles 2012), “The policy suggestions concerning motivations and barriers of university-industry cooperation” (Seppo and Roolah 2012), “Benchmarking of governmental support measures for university-industry cooperation” (Rõigas, Seppo, Varblane 2012).

One of the most effective mechanisms for knowledge transfer is the knowledge which is embedded in students and graduates. This is a critical element of the regional role played by higher education institutions. Thus, human capital formation considers the broader significance of labour market processes for the technological and organisational dynamism of regions. (OECD 2007: 143-164) Chatterton and Goddard (2000: 489) elaborate that the most effective knowledge transfer mechanism between HEIs and the external environment is through the institutional teaching function, that is to say through staff and students.

Universities' role in the human capital system is performing two functions. Firstly, it is supplying highest level skills for the national economies: graduates. Secondly, universities also play a role on the demand side of human capital – if universities become better at opening pathways downwards to access non-traditional higher education students, they can increase the upwards drive within the general population for a process of upskilling that will help to produce economic growth. In this way, universities are seen as a critical connection in the human capital pyramid

that, in turn, helps to determine competitiveness and economic growth in particular places. (Arbo and Benneworth 2007: 39)

OECD (2007: 143) states three points that explain how HEIs are involved in human capital formation: first, higher education institutions can widen access to higher education, particularly from remote areas and/or communities with low traditions of participation in higher education e.g. through lifelong and e-learning activities. Second, they can improve the balance between labour market supply and demand through creating improved labour market intelligence, enhancing links with the employers and supporting new enterprising. Third, higher education institutions can attract talent to the region and help to retain it. For example, the people taken up a job in Narva College, are mostly non-local, but while working and living in Narva they participate in the city development activities outside the college. Kuressaare College has involved new people in the region through the activity of the Competence Centre mainly.

Taking that as the basis, current chapter analyses the questions of widening the student body and its connection with the local labour market.

To ensure the inflow of highly motivated students, Narva College carries out projects that help to increase trust towards the College and improve its image. With activities aimed at the general public, the College prepares and develops the target group for themselves and the other HEIs.

Kuressaare College, in cooperation with the City Government, operates a robotics group for basic school students all the year round to increase the interest in a technical field among the youth. In the framework of the Kuressaare Maritime Days, the College has since 2008 carried out vision conferences on maritime topics. High level conferences and a hobby group for the youth improve the image of the College in the region and increase the interest and trust among the potential students.

For finding the best Public Administration students there are some additional and more specific measures. The speciality is introduced in the events of public servants, in-service training courses are arranged as well as public lectures and debates that facilitate introducing the programme. To increase trust towards the curriculum, the best graduation theses are sent to well-known and respected professionals for revision.

Finding motivated students from all over the country is important in many ways; mostly it is useful for the region, also for the students themselves. Finding good students is just the first step, it is quite a challenge to keep them in a peripheral college. A number of students hold speciality related jobs prior to entering the College, others take up jobs during their studies. It is very important to offer the students flexible ways to study, at the same time without compromising on the quality. One way of doing that is e-support and e-courses. An additional advantage of e-courses for PA students is that in this way students get better acquainted with different e-services which are well developed and highly appreciated in Estonia both

in public administration and businesses. E-learning is an advantage also therefore that not all lecturers are local. The combination of distance learning and contact education is comparable to the Provincial University of Lapland which is situated in the sparsely populated northern part of Finland (OECD 2007: 150).

Human capital formation in the region can be achieved by HEIs, if they observe the needs and changes of a labour market and react to them. The unemployment rate in Ida-Viru County has always been beyond the national average, 10.5% and 6% respectively (September 2013). “Statistical research concluded that Russian-speaking minorities in Estonia and Latvia have a significantly higher probability of being unemployed compared to the titular population of these countries” (Elsuwege 2004: 23). For Narva College it means that the education it offers should not be too abstract or too theoretical. Also the specialization must not be too narrow.

The LGA curriculum is taught in Estonian that is too difficult to many people. Since civil service prerequisites speaking Estonian at the highest level, the College cannot change the language of instruction. Instead, different CLIL (content and language integrated learning) methods are used. By the graduation time students are good specialists and speak fluent Estonian. Even if they do not seek for finding a job in the public sector, they still have an advantage on the labour market.

The university assists to build a good living and working environment. If our graduates succeed in their career, the university can attract better students and, as a result, there will be more educated people in the region. If the society is more mature and innovative, more people have a good education, HEI can operate with wiser partners.

The curricula in Kuressaare College are based on local specifics and needs, but in preparing specialists, the needs of Estonia on the whole are considered and recruitment campaigns are targeted across Estonia, not only at the local county.

The curriculum in Small Craft Building is one of a kind in Estonia, on both vocational training and higher educational level instruction in this field is provided in Kuressaare only. According to entrepreneurs, one of the biggest barriers of the boatbuilding sector development is the shortage of qualified labour force (Hartikainen 2008, 2010). In the Tallinn University of Technology, shipbuilding related education was provided until 1975. Currently, it is possible to specialise in shipbuilding during Bachelor's studies under the curriculum of Product Development and Production Engineering in the TUT Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and to continue Master's studies in the Helsinki University of Technology (Aalto University) according to a cooperation contract. The Kuressaare Regional Training Centre was the first vocational training institution in Estonia to provide vocational training in boatbuilding ten years ago.

The Small Craft Building curriculum in Kuressaare College is a joint curriculum, launched in cooperation of Tallinn University of Technology and the Estonian Maritime Academy by integrating the existing curriculum modules and developing

new modules and subjects missing in Estonia so far. The success of a curriculum depends on academic staff (Bond and Paterson 2005). The Small Craft Building curriculum involves teaching staff from Tallinn University of Technology and the Estonian Maritime Academy, specialists from boatyards and experts from partner universities (Croatia, Finland, Sweden, Germany).

The strength of small craft building lies in the boatyards' concentration in Saaremaa that enables connecting theoretical studies to practical training in boatyards. Cooperation with the Kuressaare Regional Training Centre allows the cohesion between educational levels and provides a possibility for those finishing vocational training to continue with higher education. The College participates together with the Association of Estonian Boatyards in developing and carrying out professional examinations.

Prior to launching the curriculum, a survey in training needs was conducted by Kuressaare College. There are about 600 people employed in the sector, out of engineering jobs 60% and of managerial jobs 55% were occupied (Hartikainen 2008). The years of recession had had no major impact on the sector (Hartikainen 2010). Beside the businesses involved in boatbuilding, repair and maintenance, the curriculum is of benefit to the businesses manufacturing products of light materials. The competence of material studies in the curriculum is secured by cooperation with the TUT Faculty of Mechanical Engineering. The language of some of the subjects is English and they are instructed by the partners of the College from Finland, Sweden, Croatia etc. The objective is to develop a business training module in English that could also be offered to Erasmus-partners.

The subject syllabi of the Small Craft Building curriculum are also fit for in-service training for businesses of other marine-related sectors like tourism, fishery, port services etc. In connection with the existing curricula in Kuressaare College, further development in specialisation (maritime tourism, recreation, experience industry, electronic systems for small craft) is possible.

By 2013, there are yet no graduates from the Small Craft Building curriculum, thus, it is not possible to analyse feedback from graduates or the contribution to the industry. Still, in-service training courses have transferred the knowledge of the speciality to small craft building businesses both in Saaremaa and across Estonia. To develop the curriculum, also representatives of respective businesses are included in the Programme Council in order to secure the study programmes and students to meet the needs of a labour market in the best possible way.

The chapter of human resource formation confirms and complements the fact that regional colleges focus their activity either on increasing their strengths or decreasing weaknesses. A college can focus on the knowledge existing in a certain location and this location is best for a further development and application of the knowledge. In such a case, students are expected to enter the college not on the basis of their place of residence but of interest. On the other hand, it is possible to focus on the shortcomings that are the biggest barriers of a comprehensive development of

the region. In such a case, the main focus is on educating local students. In both cases, it is important from the sustainability point of view to maintain a connection with other specialities provided by the education institution that gives the students certain possibilities for choice and/or specialisation. It is also important to keep an optimum work load of the lecturers whose competences are most valuable if they live locally and participate in the life of the community instead of just participating in the study activity.

Both Narva and Kuressaare colleges extend an access to education in their regions, providing learning possibilities to the young people of the region who for different reasons can or will not go to schools further away. When acquiring education in the region, the probability of them later working in the region is also higher. A number of students from other regions in the college often enter a labour market in the region where they have studied, a college offers in the form of lifelong learning a possibility to bring together studying with work and family lives. It is impossible to objectively evaluate if regional colleges have to make bigger efforts to recruit student candidates than the faculties of universities in bigger centres. It still may be assumed that to compete with the possibilities of the capital and university cities, more advertising and explanatory work is required. Cooperation with the public sector institutions and organisations secures up-to-date and relevant content of teaching, the graduation thesis of students support the development of the institutions and businesses of the region.

On the one hand, the strength of a regional college lies in the connection to its university as the unified requirements assume the quality being attained in all units of the university, incl. colleges. On the other hand, their location and closeness to the institutions and businesses of the region is another strength as direct communication and common discussions give a possibility for a flexible reaction to the needs of a labour market. A regional college cannot due to its limited capacity offer a wide range of specialities, but in cooperation with the university and other HEIs it is possible to bring education programmes and in-service courses to the location in accordance to the existing demand. The specialities of a college must have a certain common part but not to be very similar, otherwise the possibilities of choice and specialisation are reduced. In case of a too narrow focus, some region-specific fields may stay uncovered and sustainability of a college may be jeopardised. When its original mission gets accomplished the need for a college ceases to exist. Hence regional colleges should broaden the variety of specialities.

Contribution to Social, Cultural and Environmental Development

The attitudes and practices of higher education institutions are studied in relation to the social, cultural and environmental development of the region, not only as means to economic progress but also as ends in themselves. (OECD 2007: 165-180)

Higher education institutions shape the local civic society through community service. There are several ways to act as a community developer, for example, providing leadership, analysis, credibility while participating in regional networks.

They also can provide a framework through which ideas can be shared and transmitted. A second aspect of the service role of HEIs concerns community and voluntary action in the region. Thirdly, HEIs own a number of facilities such as libraries, sports centres, and arts and cultural venues that are often significant regional facilities offering public access. (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 490, 493)

The keywords of regional development are social cohesion and sustainability. Next, it is explored how Narva College and Kuressaare College, incl. the Local Government Administration curriculum and the Small Craft Building curriculum support them. It is analysed if there are any threats or shortcomings in this matter.

One can observe obvious differences in the cultures of Estonians and Russians in Narva. In this case it is not just cultures we are talking about, but different civilisations. "The countries around Baltic Sea are in possession of two civilisations of global relevance: the Western Christian and the Orthodox." (Maciejewski 2002: 33-34; see also different writings of Samuel Huntington) Narva is standing on the border of those civilisations. In recent decades integration in Estonia has had both success stories and failures. Integration should not be a task of one ministry; it should be a common interest of several stakeholders. As a large portion of the Russian speaking population lives in Narva and in Ida-Viru County, it is the College's moral obligation to support the integration process.

Social cohesion or unity in the community can be supported only if HEI's presence is felt by the community. In addition to academic affairs, it is sometimes good to retreat from the core competence just to remind the community of HEI's existence and offer something else. In case of Narva College, there are different cultural and sports events organised. Since integration and cross-cultural communication is such an important issue, it is necessary to support it outside and inside the College.

Kalev et al (2008: 127) in their overview of public administration curricula of Estonia judge rightly that Narva College is an institution of integration. A public servant has to know, how things are organised in other regions and be able to learn from the best ones. To ease the problem the College organises field trips for every speciality. The aim of the field trips is broadening, deepening and illustrating the knowledge the students gain during lectures and other forms of classroom work as well as to establish networks (Chatterton and Goddard 2000) with future employers. The other reason is less connected to the curriculum and studying: the more people travel, the more they feel a connection with other regions and the less they feel excluded. "The language barrier has created a situation that the non-Estonians feel being trapped into their own world" (Küün 2006: 129).

Recruiting some students outside Ida-Viru County would promote integration and language studies as well. Joint activities give common memories and unite people. Lecturers have to acknowledge the fact that they are teaching in a multicultural environment and overcome the difficulties that sometimes occur. Students from outside Ida-Virumaa create a bigger need to use Estonian as the language of group work and other conversations. Estonians have an ideal possibility to study Russian

in Narva – language classes are supported by the Russian speaking environment outside the study activity. It is useful for officials to know the language that is spoken by a quarter of Estonia's population. Moreover, the Constitution of the Republic of Estonia §51 states: "In localities where at least one-half of the permanent residents belong to a national minority, everyone has the right to also receive responses from state agencies, local governments, and their officials in the language of the national minority."

Obviously, integration and social cohesion play a very important role in Narva College's community service but the other important keyword is sustainability. Sustainable development of the region can be achieved only in cooperation of many interest groups (local government, entrepreneurs, non-governmental organisations and volunteers).

Narva College could be more steadily and profoundly present in local networks. The College has an extensive experience in writing strategic documents, reports, project applications. City and county governments could have a bigger gain from it. Since it is easier to change one's own behaviour, the members of the academic staff and administration should be better aware of the ongoing developments in their field in the region. If the trust of being competent and interested has been built, proposals of cooperation may follow.

The Public Administration curriculum has exceptional possibilities of supporting cooperation between sectors, e.g. practical training is carried out in a local government, state agency and the third or private sector organisation. Such experience definitely helps to a better understanding the partners. There are also some subjects that promote public-private partnership and teach students to see the society as a whole not just from the point of view of their job position.

For Narva College, the function of community service is neither complicated nor requiring extra effort. This is a natural part of the College's existence. Sometimes the 'third role' may become overwhelming and seem like the most important one. Probably Narva College should be careful not to lose the focus as all three roles have to be in balance. Another issue is if the balance should be the same as in the university on the whole. The College's challenge is to connect the role of community service tightly to the tasks of the study and research activities. Every separate action should support the College's mission and not to be sporadic.

HEIs have a major impact on the organisations of their location region both through formal and informal communication (Vaessen and Velde 2003). Universities hold an important role in the community awareness raising and capacity building of the region (Arbo and Benneworth 2007).

Boatbuilding has been a traditional field of activity in Estonian coastal areas, thus the Small Craft Building curriculum and R&D activity in Kuressaare College are closely connected to the culture characteristic of islands.

The academic staff carries a significant role of experts in the work of regional decision making bodies and management networks (Arbo and Benneworth 2007). For a better understanding between entrepreneurs and the university, it is crucial to have direct contacts, to be present and located in the same region for creating the so-called local buzz and communication forum (Bathelt, Malmberg and Maskell 2004). Such a forum is a pre-condition for networking, discussions, developing and implementing common strategies.

As a regional educational and R&D institution, Kuressaare College has a significant role in being an active partner to the businesses of the region, vocational training establishments, local governments, county government and other social partners. The employees of the College participate in the work groups for developing and monitoring the implementation of regional strategies, the City Council and its committees, management and directing bodies of the Association of Saaremaa Entrepreneurs, the Association of Estonian Boatyards and other development organisations. Two thirds of the College employees are involved in professional or other bodies and organisations. The employees of Kuressaare College participated in the development process of the national maritime strategy for 2012-2020 (adopted by the Decree of the Government of the Republic on 2.08.2012)

Kuressaare College initiated the establishment of the Saaremaa competence network bringing together 15 partners from public, NGO and private sectors. The network is an association of partners, performing the role of a central information and development platform of the region that analyses the competence fields of the region and elaborates the common activity plan for developing the region-specific competences. As a result of discussions, the network compiled the development ideas of Saare County into the conception of a so-called Maritime House, having four pillars: small craft building, small harbours, fishery, aquaculture and maritime tourism. The activity of the network has become less active during a couple of recent years as apart from the College, no other partner has been ready to take leadership.

Contribution to social, cultural and environmental development gives regional colleges a number of and diverse possibilities to be useful for their regions and to gain from it in a long run. Each college identifies the ways that are most needed in the region and that the college is strong in. As described earlier, activities can efficiently be linked with concrete specialities and, thus, give more variety to activities. A contribution to social, cultural and environmental development through specialities is more concrete and focused and supplements the general respective activities of a college. It is important to secure regular monitoring of the activity, in order to identify the fields of improvement or withdrawal at some extent. It is essential to realise when an excessive contribution starts holding back development as the partners have started to take the share of a college for granted and to reduce their own share.

Also in this chapter it may be stated that a region-specific contribution may be based on both weaknesses and strengths. Kuressaare College relies on its strength in developing strategies in cooperation with partners. The network relying on one

leader organisation too much may be considered a weakness here. The strength of Kuressaare College may turn into a weakness in case of a little initiative from partners. In case of a strong leader, other partners do not necessarily feel enough responsibility and the activity of the network slows down if the leadership of the college reduces. Narva College relies on the weaknesses of the region in social sphere. Due to these weaknesses, Narva College cannot afford relying on its strengths only. These strengths will have to be developed in respect to the weaknesses of the region.

Current chapter reflects the most typical part of community service. As a matter of fact, it has a bigger scale in the activity of regional colleges than that in the faculties of universities. Hence the confirmation of the statement that the three roles of the university do not have to and cannot be similar across a university. All three have to be present but it has to be pointed out and supported that regional colleges have been established with the aim of serving the community and therefore meeting the region-specific needs is somewhat more acute than a traditional research activity. The authors of the article find that it is not possible to stress on specific research work and a broad-based community service simultaneously.

Conclusions

The article analyses at the example of the Narva College of the University of Tartu and the Kuressaare College of Tallinn University of Technology how the curriculum development in region-specific sectors, R&D and participation in socio-cultural activity support cooperation in a region and the implementation of the task of community service. Cooperation and regional engagement are evaluated in three aspects: knowledge creation in the region; human capital formation and transfer of knowledge; social, cultural and environmental development.

Rapid changes assume universities to have a closer connection to their external environment, faster reaction and higher flexibility to meet the expectations of the society. Regional colleges are the mediators of knowledge between their universities and local needs. On the one hand, colleges carry the competence and quality standards of the university and on the other hand, they are flexible and facilitate the adaption of the university competence to be applied in a region. Therefore, the curricula of professional higher education are of utmost importance in colleges. In addition to sectorial knowledge, regional colleges mediate the knowledge in project management, cooperation forms, fund raising possibilities, research, strategic planning etc.

The R&D activity of colleges is directed to the development of their study fields, promotion of entrepreneurship and innovation and increasing the development potential of a region in general. The case of Small Craft Building represents the creation of knowledge in a 'hard' sector and a contribution to support entrepreneurship and Local Government's Administration represents the creation of 'soft' knowledge (Chatterton and Goddard 2000), while the examples prove the importance of both kinds of knowledge to contribute to the development of a region.

In regions, mainly applied research is carried out and the volume of research work is somewhat smaller than in university faculties where different community service activities show a smaller proportion. It has to be born in mind that establishing regional colleges including the decisions about opening the curricula is a part of the community service of universities, thus a bigger share of respective activities, compared to research work, has been embedded in them.

Upon studying the topic at the example of two regional colleges, the authors have reached the conclusion that the role of representing the university and of a mediator is successful primarily in the framework of the specialities taught in the college and the related target groups. At a closer look at the specialities taught in the colleges, it may be concluded that the region-specifics may at the same time be a strength and a weakness of the region. Some specialities are created to support the strengths and some to mitigate the weaknesses of a region. The specialities taught have to have at least some inter-connection, otherwise the sustainability of specialities will suffer. Still, focusing cannot be an objective in itself as it may leave essential region-specific topics uncovered. When its original mission gets accomplished the need for a college ceases to exist. Hence regional colleges should broaden the variety of specialities.

More important than just detailed examples and suggestions of regional engagement through curriculum development (which can be found in different parts of this article) are the following generalizations. After the comprehensive study in a curriculum design (content of the study activity, teaching and assessment methods, extracurricular activities, topics and supervision of students' research works, cooperation with partners) the authors conclude that community service is not a separate extra activity for a university, it is integrated in all aspects of its activity. Thus, the title "third role" is only conditional in the sense that community service has appeared next to the two traditional roles of teaching and research but it is closely integrated in both (Chatterton and Goddard 2000). The tasks of the third role have to be connected to the specialities of a regional college, providing support to the curriculum development, quality of the study activity and marketing a curriculum and being useful to the region in a number of ways at the same time. All community service tasks can and have to be implemented in connection with concrete specialities – research, cooperation with partners, project management, carrying out events etc. It may be claimed that the community service activities not connected to the specialities fragmentize the college activities and disperse its objectives and are therefore not sustainable.

A regional college is a development engine in its region. Every speciality/curriculum is the engine in its own field. The academic staff has a remarkable role in participating as experts in decision-making bodies and management networks at a regional level (Arbo and Benneworth 2007). Colleges contribute to cooperation initiatives and preparation of regional development strategies together with partners but a cooperation network must not rely on one leader organisation too much. In case, the biggest share of responsibility lies with colleges for a long period, partners may become lazy and assume someone else to take the responsibility and implement

assignments. If in such a case, the strength of a college weakens or priorities are rearranged, the cooperation ceases due to the lack of leadership.

Colleges facilitate an access to education in their regions for young people and by offering possibilities for lifelong learning. Cooperation with local partners secures up-to-date and relevant content of studies and supports the process of the specialists with higher education finding a job relevant to their qualification in the region. In addition to the teaching role, a university has to contribute to the creation of jobs (Virtanen 2010). Studying in a place creates a probability of a number of people from other regions to stay on the labour market in the place of their studies.

Surveys on the regional development of Estonia often admit that the in-country development differences are way too big for such a small country and to address them, it is not enough to apply regional policy measures only, it is important to achieve a more efficient coordination of the policies of other sectors. These other sectors are supported by and tightly connected to the curricula taught in the regions.

To increase the competitiveness of a labour range outside Tallinn and Tartu, the potential of regional colleges of universities and their curricula can be considered, as stressed out in the analysis of the terms of reference for developing the Estonian regional development strategy 2020 (Eesti... 2012). The network of colleges serves an instrument in Estonia that can be used to facilitate a balanced development in a more efficient way.

References

1. **Allison, J. & Eversole, R.** (2008). A new direction for regional university campuses: catalyzing innovation in place. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Sciences* 21(2): 95-109.
2. **Arbo, P. & Benneworth, P.** (2007). Understanding the Regional Contribution of Higher Education Institutions: a Literature Review. OECD Education Working Papers, No. 9, OECD Publishing.
<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/30/49/38932283.pdf> (31.12.2012)
3. **Bass, S. A. & Silverstein, N. M.** (1996). Action Research: A Practical Model To Link Teaching, Research, and Community Service. *Metropolitan Universities: An International Forum* 7(3): 85-94.
4. **Bathelt, H., Malmberg, A., Maskell, P.** (2004). Clusters and knowledge: local buzz, global pipelines and the process of knowledge creation. *Progress in Human Geography*, 28: 31 - 56.
5. **Bond, R. & Paterson, L.** (2005). Coming down from the ivory tower? Academics' civic and economic engagement with the community. *Oxford Review of Education* 31(3): 331-351.
6. **Charles, D.** (2006). Universities as Key Knowledge Infrastructures in Regional Innovation Systems. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Sciences* 19(1): 117-130.
7. **Charles, D. & Benneworth, P.** (2002). *Evaluating the regional contribution of an HEI. A benchmarking approach.*

- http://www.hefce.ac.uk/pubs/hefce/2002/02_23.htm (31.12.2012)
8. **Chatterton, P. & Goddard, J.** (2000). The Response of Higher Education Institutions to Regional Needs. *European Journal of Education* 35(4): 475-497.
 9. **Denhardt, R. B.** (2001). The Big Questions of Public Administration Education. *Public Administration Review* 61(5): 526-534.
 10. **Elsuwege, P.** (2004). Russian-Speaking Minorities in Estonia and Latvia: Problems of Integration at the Threshold of the European Union. *Working Paper* 20, European Centre for Minority Issues (ECMI).
 11. **Foray, D., David, P.A. & Hall, B.** (2009). Smart specialisation: the concept. *Knowledge for Growth. Prospects for science, technology and innovation.* Report, EUR 24047, European Union. pp 25-29.
http://ec.europa.eu/research/era/pdf/knowledge_for_growth.pdf (16.12.2012)
 12. **Goddard, J. & Chatterton, P.** (1999). The Response of Higher Education Institutions to Regional Needs. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Paris: OECD Publications.
 13. **Gunasekara, C.** (2004). Universities and Communities: A Case Study of Change in the Management of a University. *Prometheus* 22(2): 201-211.
 14. **Hartikainen, A.** (2008). Väikelaevade ehituse ettevõtete koolitusvajaduse uuring. http://scc.ee/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/tty_VLE_kompetents.pdf (02.02.21013)
 15. **Hartikainen, A.** (2010). Ülevaade Eesti väikelaevaehitusest. http://scc.ee/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/komp_eeestivleylevaade.pdf (02.02.21013)
 16. **Hudson, C.** (2006). Regional development partnerships in Sweden: a way for higher education institutions to develop their role in the processes of regional governance? *Higher Education* 51(3): 387-410.
 17. **Kalev, L., Jakobson, M.-L., Sillaste, M., Soiver, V., Sootla, G.** (2008). Privately Funded Public Servants? Public Administration Higher Education in Estonia. Jenei, G. & Mike K. (ed.), *Public Administration and Public Policy Degree Programmes in Europe: the Road from Bologna*, pp. 107-151. Bratislava: NISPAcee Press.
 18. **Küün, E.** (2006). Mitteeestlastest noorte kohanemine eestikeelses töökeskkonnas [The adjustment of the nonEstonian youths into the Estonian speaking work environment]. *Estonian Papers in Applied Linguistics* 2: 119-130.
 19. **Maciejewski, W.** (2002). On the emergence of the Baltic Sea region and the reading of the book. Maciejewski, W. (ed.), *The Baltic Sea Region. Cultures, Politics, Societies*, pp. 1-50. Uppsala: Baltic University Press.
 20. OECD (2007). *Higher Education and Regions. Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged*. OECD, Paris.
 21. OECD (2012). Higher education in regional and city development. <http://www.oecd.org/edu/imhe/regionaldevelopment> (31.12.2012)
 22. **Puukka, J.** (2009). Korkeakoulut alueiden veturina – mitä opimme OECD:n arviointihankkeista? Kallberg, K & Pekkanen, P-R. (Toim.)
Maakuntakorkeakoulun monet muodot; Pohjois-Karjalan ammattikoulu. Tampere: Juvenes Print.
 23. **Rõigas, K., Seppo, M., Varblane, U.** (2012). Benchmarking of governmental support measures for university-industry cooperation. *Eesti majanduspoliitilised*

- väitlused. Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy.*
24. **Seppo, M. & Lilles, A.** (2012) Indicators measuring university-industry cooperation. *Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused. Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy.*
 25. **Seppo, M. & Roolaht, T.** (2012). The policy suggestions concerning motivations and barriers of university-industry cooperation. *Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused. Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy.*
 26. **Zilahy, G. and Huisingh, D.** (2009) The roles of academia in Regional Sustainability Initiatives. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 17(12): 1057-1066.
 27. **Tiits, M.** (2007). Kaupmeeste riik. Tartu: Eesti Teaduste Akadeemia.
 28. **Vaessen, P.M.M. & M. van der Velde** (2003). University Knowledge transfer through social and professional embeddedness: a case study. In R. Rutten, F. Boekema & E. Kuijpers (Eds.), *Economic Geography of Higher Education: knowledge infrastructure and learning regions*. London/New York: Routledge, 87-109.
 29. **Vilhula, A. & Kosonen, K.-J. & Sotarauda, M.** (2006). Yliopistot ja osaamiskeskusohjelmat aluekehittämisessä. Tampereen yliopisto, Alueellisen kehittämisen tutkimusyksikkö, SENTE-julkaisu 21/2006.
http://www.uta.fi/jkk/sente/netlibrary/J_21_2006_yliopistot_ja_osaamisk.pdf (02.02.2013)
 30. **Virtanen, I.** (2002). Yliopistojen kolmas tehtävä. Kunnallisanalan kehittämissäätiön Polemia-sarjan julkaisu nro 44. Vammalan Kirjapaino Oy.
http://www.polemiikki.fi/files/1153-14590_TAITTO.pdf (31.12.2012)
 31. **Virtanen, I.** (2010). Korkeakoulupolitiikka osaksi yhteiskunta- ja talouspolitiikkaa. Luovien läpi suhdanteiden. Suomen Ekonomiliitto SEFE ry:n 75-vuotisjuhlakirja. Suomen Ekonomiliitto, 82-97.
http://www.uwasa.fi/~itv/publicat/kk_pol.pdf (02.02.2013)
 32. **Westnes, P., Hatakenaka, S., Gjelsvik, M. Lester, R. K.** (2009). The Role of Universities in Strengthening Local Capabilities for Innovation – A Comparative Case Study. *Higher Education Policy* 22(4): 483-503.
 33. Development Plan of Kuressaare College 2011-2015. (2011).
http://193.40.254.28/public/k/Kuressaare-kolledz/Kolledz/Development_Plan_of_Kuressaare_College_2011-2015.pdf (21.09.2013)
 34. Eesti regionaalarengu strateegia 2020 lähteolukorra analüüs. (2012). Siseministeerium. https://www.siseministeerium.ee/public/ERAS2020_lahteolukorra_analuu.docx (15.03.2013)
 35. Eesti regionaalne innovatsioonistrateegia. (2008). Kolm regionaalset innovatsiooniarenduse tegevuskava 2007-2011. Käsikiri.
 36. Erakooliseaduse ja teiste seaduste muutmise seadus. (2011). *Riigi Teataja* I, 12.12.2011, 1 <https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/112122011001> (21.09.2013)
 37. Guidelines for the self-evaluation report 2008-2010. Review of higher education institutions in regional development. (2008).
<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/33/53/40139266.pdf> (31.12.2012)
 38. Ida-Viru maakonna arengukava 2014-2020. (2012). <http://ida-viru.maavalitsus.ee/documents/908800/3331462/Ida-Viru+maakonna+arengukava+2014-2020.pdf> (22.09.2013)
 39. Kuressaare linna arengukava 2014-2020 (2030). (2013).

- http://www.kuressaare.ee/uus/public/Kuressaare_linna_arengukava_volikogus_kinnitatud_2013.pdf (21.09.2013)
40. Narva kolledži arengukava 2008-2015. (2008).
<http://www.narva.ut.ee/sites/default/files/nc/arengukava.pdf> (26.9.2013)
 41. Narva linna arengukava 2008-2017. (2007). <http://web.narva.ee/files/4718.pdf> (22.09.2013)
 42. Praxis Center for Policy Studies & Institute of Baltic Studies. (2013). Open Forums on Integration: Report on Recommendations by Third-Country Nationals regarding Estonia's Integration Policy.
http://praxis.ee/fileadmin/tarmo/Projektid/Valitsemine_ja_kodanikeuhiskond/MI_SA_raport_ENGL_.pdf (22.09.2013)
 43. Regionaalpoliitika panus aruka majanduskasvu saavutamisse Euroopa 2020. aasta strateegia raames. (2010). Euroopa Komisjon. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52010DC0553:ET:NOT> (15.03.2013)
 44. Saare maakonna arengustrateegia 2020. (2008).
<http://saare.maavalitsus.ee/documents/906995/1026594/Saare+maakonna+arengustrateegia+2020.pdf> (21.09.2013)
 45. Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli regionaaltegevuse alused. (2009).
<http://docs.ttu.ee/id/672> (21.09.2013)
 46. Tartu Ülikooli regionaalprogramm. (2008). http://www.ut.ee/sites/default/files/livelink_files/terviktekst_19.02.2008.pdf (21.09.2013)
 47. University of Tartu Strategic Plan 2009–2015. (2009) http://www.ut.ee/sites/default/files/ut_files/UT%20Strategic%20Plan%202015.pdf (21.09.2013)
 48. Väikelaevaehituse kompetentsikeskuse strateegia. Lõppraport. (2010).
http://scc.ee/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/komp_strateegia.pdf (02.02.2013)
 49. Ülikooliseadus. (1995). *Riigi Teataja* I, 12, 119.
<https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/28729> (31.12.2012)
 50. Ülikooliseadus. (2003). *Riigi Teataja* I, 33, 206.
<https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/700440> (31.12.2012)
 51. Ülikooliseaduse muutmise seadus. (1996) *Riigi Teataja* I, 51, 965.
<https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/31291> (21.09.2013)
 52. Ülikooliseaduse, erakooliseaduse ja rakenduskõrgkooli seaduse ning nendega seonduvate seaduste muutmise seadus. (2008). *Riigi Teataja* I, 34, 208.
<https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/12997837> (31.12.2012)

FAMILY AND NON-FAMILY BUSINESS DIFFERENCES IN ESTONIA

Maret Kirsipuu
Estonian Maritime Academy

Abstract

This paper seeks to identify differences between family enterprises and non-family enterprises. The concepts of entrepreneurship, entrepreneur and enterprise/business are clarified. The paper contains the results of research conducted by the author among family entrepreneurs in 2007–2012 that can be compared to the research results reached by Wahl (2011). This research demonstrates that there are differences between family entrepreneurs and non-family entrepreneurs, which are primarily caused by that family entrepreneurs value first of all their family members, family traditions and only then profit earning.

Keywords: undertaking; family entrepreneur, family enterprise, family business, non-family business, small and medium-size enterprise, sole proprietor

JEL Classification: M10, M13, M19

Introduction

A family enterprise is an enterprise owned and often also managed by one or more members of the same family, or which is in family ownership. All these enterprises where other family members are not involved in or where majority is not held by family members can be regarded as non-family enterprises. A family enterprise in Estonia may be a company where family members have a majority holding, or a sole proprietor who has engaged family members in the business.

A problem for the current research is that studies of differences between a family enterprise and non-family enterprise are missing in Estonia. We need to know whether the differences are caused by business managers, organisational culture or family traditions.

An objective is to analyse differences between family enterprises and non-family enterprises in Estonia. For the achievement of this objective the following research tasks have been set: to provide an overview of an entrepreneur and an enterprise, to compare family and non-family entrepreneurs. The findings will contribute to the entrepreneurship theory and practice.

In this paper a family business is defined as an enterprise where a majority is owned by a family (company) or where family is operating the business (sole proprietorship); family members are spouse, children, kin and their spouses. A non-family business is an enterprise where family members have no majority holding (company) or where family members are not participating in the business (sole proprietor).

This paper analyses family and non-family enterprises, or family and non-family entrepreneurs. To analyse family entrepreneurs in Estonia the author carried out various surveys in the years 2007...2012; data on non-family entrepreneurs originate from a research by Wahl (2011) and analysis of these data will help accomplish the task.

Entrepreneur and business

In Estonia and in most of the European Union member countries the concepts of family enterprise and family entrepreneur are not regulated by law. In Estonia, the concept of entrepreneur (undertaking) has a legal formulation. An undertaking is a natural person who offers goods or services for charge in his or her own name where the sale of goods or provision of services is his or her permanent activity, or a company provided by law: a general partnership, limited partnership, private limited company, public limited company or commercial association (Äriseadustik, 1995). Hence a family enterprise in Estonia can be a company where family members have a majority holding, or sole proprietors who have engaged family members in business activity.

The concept of farmer as undertaking was legalised in Estonia in 2007. A farmer is an undertaking engaging in at least one activity which can be classified as production of agricultural products and who uses a farm for such purpose in the capacity of an owner, usufructuary or commercial lessee (Äriseadustik § 4 cl 4). On the basis of various research works conducted in Estonia it can be claimed that most of the farmers are family undertakings (Kaseorg, Siimon, 2007; Kirsipuu 2007; Kaseorg, Raudsaar, 2008; Kirsipuu, 2009a; Kirsipuu, 2009b; Kirsipuu, 2011; Kaarna, Masso, Rell, 2012; Kirsipuu, 2012).

Entrepreneurs may have businesses in different areas of activity. An enterprise is an economic entity managed by an entrepreneur who is either an elected management board, or executive manager or a partner or shareholder, or a physical person.

When registering a company its business name is entered into the register of the Centre of Registers and Information Systems at the Ministry of Justice (hereinafter commercial register); a company may only have one business name (Äriseadustik § 9). A sole proprietor may have several business names as long as such names are used with regard to different enterprises (Äriseadustik § 8). Based on the Commercial Code § 22 (The registration departments of the county and city courts shall maintain the commercial register of the enterprises of sole proprietors located in and companies whose registered office is in the territorial jurisdiction of the registrar) an undertaking and an enterprise can be treated as synonyms.

In 2008, a survey of family businesses was conducted among European Union member countries, European Economic Area and candidate countries to learn the concept, definition and significance of family businesses in member countries so as to collectively enact the concept of family business in the future. As a result of the research it was found that national governments should consider measures to create

a more favourable environment for family businesses, including enact the concept of family business, fiscal incentives for family businesses, taking the subject of family entrepreneurship into the curricula in education (Mandl, 2008).

By 2013 only a few member states have considered it worthwhile to enact the concept of family enterprise/business/undertaking in the legislation. For example, from among the European Union member countries only Italy has indirectly enacted the concept of family business, where small undertakings are agricultural producers, craftsmen and all undertakings doing business themselves or together with their family members (Codice Civile art 2083); in France, a family business is a business where an entrepreneur cooperates with the spouse who is in the role of either employee or partner (Code de Commerce articles L121-4...L121-8); in Romania, small undertakings include also private undertakings with family involvement (LAW... art 1 cl 2).

The European Union legislation has not provided any family business concept, only small and medium-sized enterprises are covered.

A research paper published in 2012 about European small and medium-sized undertakings in 2002–2010 demonstrated that the contribution of small and medium-sized enterprises to job creation, economic growth and innovation in that period was effective; for example, new jobs were created in the extent of 85% by small and medium-sized enterprises. In 2010, from 20.8 million enterprises (excluding financial sector enterprises) in the European Union 99.8% were small and medium-sized enterprises, and approximately 92% of them can be regarded as micro-enterprises with the staff of up to 10 (Kok et al, 2011).

Three classes of SME are distinguished: micro enterprises, small and medium-sized enterprises. Micro enterprises are enterprises that employ up to 9 people. Small enterprises employ between 10 and 49 people. Medium enterprises employ between 50 and 249 people. Large enterprises are defined as having 250 or more employees (Wymenga, Spanikova, Barker, Konings, Canton, 2012).

The European Commission has reached a conclusion that in the future more attention should be focused on small and medium-sized enterprises, including micro enterprises, all legislation should be revised and simplifications there made not later than in 2014 in order to ensure more active entrepreneurship (Smart..., 2013).

Entrepreneurs through economic activities increase productivity and develop entrepreneurial activities.

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is entrepreneurial activity as well as teaching and science that studies development of entrepreneurship, rise of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurs etc.

One of the first researchers of entrepreneurship was Richard Cantillon who accepted the decisive role of the entrepreneur in economic development of a private ownership based system and found that agriculture is the only source of wealth. Howard Aldrich explained that entrepreneurship should be discussed as human behaviour (Miettinen, Teder, 2006, 27–29).

The concept of entrepreneurship has been defined differently by different researchers, but the principles are similar in all of them. For example, according to Peter Drucker, entrepreneurship is an act of innovation involving endowing existing resources with new wealth-producing capacity. Robert Hisrich argued that entrepreneurship is a process of creating something new of value by devoting the necessary time and effort. Louis Stevenson and Carlos Jarillo clarified that entrepreneurship is a process by which individuals, on their own or within organisations, pursue opportunities. Manfred Gartner finds that entrepreneurship is the creation of organisations, a process as a result of what new organisations are born. At the same time, Timmons is of the opinion that entrepreneurship is a way of thinking, reasoning and acting that is opportunity obsessed, and Venkataram finds that entrepreneurship is an issue of how, by whom and with what consequences opportunities are found and exploited to introduce new products and services (Ibid., 34).

In parallel to investigating general entrepreneurial activities, studies on small businesses, including linking entrepreneurship to family, were conducted. One of the first who paid attention to small businesses was Alfred Marshall who discussed potential advantages of physical closeness in small businesses for the achievement of external scale effects. Research on small entrepreneurship was launched by David L. Birch, regional economy was studied by Giacomo Becattini who reached a conclusion that the population of families and businesses affect each other and the most important symptom of local cooperation is a homogeneous system of values that is associated with work ethics and family. The macro-level targeted research by David Storey discussed the role of small businesses in society and from regional development aspect (Ibid, 154–163).

Family participation in entrepreneurship is a potentially valuable source of information; the nature and extent of family connections influence the opportunities there are available to the entrepreneur (Casson, 1991, 368). If a family is constantly participating in entrepreneurial processes it can be called a family business (Craig, Lindsay, 2002). Family entrepreneurship was well advanced in Estonia before the occupation period: families owned both production and service businesses, and farms.

Private entrepreneurship was well advanced in Estonia in the past centuries, but during the period of occupation it could not work and was prohibited by law. The occupation periods in rural economy can be divided as follows: encumbering and restricting of family farms in the years 1940 to 1949; liquidation and compulsory collectivisation of family farms in 1949 to 1955; merging and development of

productive agricultural holdings in 1955 to 1980 and collapse of the collective farms system in 1980 to 1990 (Eesti...2007, 3).

Private entrepreneurship became possible again in the last years of the occupation period; in 1989 state small enterprises were established; in addition to state ownership, enterprises could be owned by legal persons and citizens of foreign countries (ENSV ettevõtteseadus, 17.11.1989). That period can be regarded as the beginning of contemporary entrepreneurship in Estonia, which intensified after Estonia regained independence in 1991.

In rural areas entrepreneurship started to evolve after the land reform and agricultural reform, when it became possible to recover the farms of one's grandparents. At the beginning of restitutions many small farms emerged where they could not develop any proper economic activity and therefore merging of land and farms began to provide larger arable land parcels and growth of technological capacities for more intensive production. At the same time also smaller enterprises remained, but their main activity was rather niche production and rural tourism (Eesti...2007, 3).

According to Statistics Estonia, there were 59,677 economically active enterprises (excluding sole proprietors) in 2009 (Majanduslikult..., 2012), including 59,528 (99.8%) small and medium-sized enterprises (Ettevõtte...,2012); with sole proprietors included the figure was 110,739 (Statistilisse..., 2012). The Statistics Estonia keeps accounts, in addition to the population of enterprises, also of a sample called economically active enterprises. According to international methods, economically active enterprises are those enterprises which employ at least one worker or which earn income from selling goods or services. According to the statistical profile of Statistics Estonia, there were 100,216 enterprises in Estonia in 2010, including companies and sole proprietors. Mostly they were small and medium-sized enterprises (up to 249 employees), and only 149 enterprises had more than 249 employees in 2010 (Kaarna et al., 2012).

Most of the enterprises in Estonia are small or medium sized. Micro enterprises in Estonia account for 94.3% of all enterprises and micro enterprises together with small enterprises 99.3% (Ojamaa, 2012). The same figures for the European Union are 92.2% and 99.8% (Structural..., 2012).

66% of the small enterprises classify themselves as family undertakings (Kaarna et al., 2012). Notwithstanding that on the basis of various research works it can be claimed that family entrepreneurship has been acknowledged among entrepreneurs as well as by the media. The definition of family entrepreneur is missing in Estonian legislation.

At the same time, research has been conducted to identify family entrepreneurs/family enterprises worldwide and to clear up differences/similarities of family and non-family enterprises or entrepreneurs.

Methodology

In order to clear up differences and similarities between family and non-family enterprises the author analysed her own research and the results of Wahl's (2011) research.

Combined quantitative and qualitative research methods were used for the research. Based on theoretical data, interview questions were formulated and targets were set what the interviews had to accomplish. The interviews were based on open-ended questions supplemented by special questions. Family enterprises were distributed into groups according to their characteristics so that the group components were similar but groups at the same time were different.

According to the objective of research, it is an explanatory paper. The composition of the paper (choice of research methods, sampling and collection of data; elaboration of comparison dimensions; grouping of results; defining and analysing principal relationships; drawing conclusions) is directly based on the research objective the achievement of which is a precondition for solving the research problem of this paper. By selecting the methods of research the most suitable methods, amount of information required, and timetable for research were determined. For working out comparison dimensions a sample was constructed, the questionnaires and interview questions were formulated; interviews were carried out, including transcripts of interviews; the results were coded and gathered into a database; a variable was chosen for every feature, which enabled to include similarities and differences between family enterprises and which helped to characterise the groups thus formed. Then the principal relationships were analysed, groups were formed and relationships between the groups were identified.

The research is based on Kluge's (2000) four-step empirically grounded grouping model and the methodological research principles developed by Wahl (2011) where the general principles have been established and the sequence of research composition stages have been decided, at the same time enabling combining of different methods, which in turn increases the reliability of the results.

In the next stage the questionnaires and interviews were coded, the results were grouped and empirical regularities were analysed. During the coding the results were grouped on the basis of significance so that specific codes were attached to important indicators. Then the relationships were analysed and the feature space groups were formed on the basis of similarities, which contain a certain number of sub-groups, for every feature its own. The feature space groups were formed with the help of data and prior theoretical knowledge. In the last stage the regularities characterising the groups and the results were analysed. During the analysis of regularities, the results were summed, the arithmetic mean was found and the percentage shares of certain features were calculated.

Analysis of family enterprises started already when the sample of family enterprises was generated and the coded results were added to the database. The database

gathering started in 2008. For the start, data were collected and in 2011 systematic coding of data began. The scientific method used in the research is abduction, which is based on explaining the primary hypotheses that definitely need to be tested later (Peirce, 1931). Abduction is the only logical operation which generates new ideas and determines the assumption, using deduction and regularities so as the assumption in turn would explain the deduction (Wahl, 2011). Based on the research problem and research tasks the most widespread method in social sciences was chosen for gathering input data for the research: questionnaire and interview. The interview method was chosen because it enables to personally communicate with the interviewee and ask supplementary questions later. Interviews are cognitive and express the views of interviewees about a certain subject (Thietart et al., 1999). The interviewee may not always provide information impartially (Researching..., 2000). Notwithstanding that interview has a cognitive approach the results may be expressed also factually, in numbers, which in turn proves that the strength of researcher's argument has great significance in research (White, 2000).

A total of 2035 hypothetical family entrepreneurs were questioned in writing in the years 2007–2011 to find out whether they regarded themselves as family businesses or not. Questionnaires were sent to 1500 respondents who regarded themselves as family entrepreneurs, verifying that 1320 of the respondents can be regarded as family undertakings; with more than one thousand of them interviews were conducted, and with 76 of the latter in-depth interviews.

Always when it is not possible to use the whole population or this involves a big time and financial resource it is recommendable to use a sample (Trochim, Donnelly, 2006). When starting the research not random sample but a specific sample was used, which was formed of beef cattle breeders doing performance testing in 2007 and sport horse breeders in 2008, those who had registered their horses in the sport horse database. Data were received from the database *Liisu* of the Estonian Animal Recording Centre and from the database of horses (Liisu..., 2007; Hobuste..., 2008). A random sample was generated using the principle of systematic random sampling that was applied since 2009. For every county a hypothetical list of family enterprises in alphabetical order was drafted; the sample was formed starting from a hypothetical family enterprise with a random number in the list and advancing by a predetermined step. The same principle was used for generating the interview samples. The random sample size was 10% of the enterprises in the respective rural region. Input data for the sample were received from the Agricultural Registers and Information Board's (PRIA) register of farm animals, from the holding register (PRIA..., 2009). The 2010 random sample was selected from among the undertakings registered in Estonia; the author removed from the sample those enterprises which had registered their holdings in PRIA's animal register and those whose legal address was in Tallinn. Input data for the sample were received from the information system of the Commercial Register accessible for registered users at the Ministry of Justice's Centre of Registers and Information Systems (Äriregistri..., 2010).

Wahl (2011) used for processing in his research Kluge's (2000) four-step empirically grounded grouping model according to which formation of types and typology should be systematic activity, a regular and iterative process. In the first stage, Wahl (2011) worked out relevant comparison dimensions, then grouped and conducted analysis of empirical regularities, which was followed by analysis of the relationships. Wahl (2011) aimed in his research to construct an ownership typology in the process of what features typical of non-family entrepreneurs were identified.

Wahl (2011) constructed the sample based on improbable choice to ensure with the choice of cases the presence of combinations of features in the sample. The sample comprised share and/or full owners of capital companies in the Republic of Estonia; he used extreme cases which contained plenty of information, were variable at the maximum to learn the opinion of owners/shareholders. The main period of interviewing was from 19 February to 11 June 2009 when 77 students from Tallinn University of Technology interviewed 154 owners (Wahl, 2011).

There is no classification for grouping family enterprises or non-family enterprises. Every researcher has classified undertakings according to the objective of research (on the basis of area of activity, education, year of establishment, gender of founder, organisational culture, etc.). The classifications are mainly based on features of either the enterprise (size, turnover, profit, number of employees, etc.) or the entrepreneur (personality traits, management style etc.). On the basis of literature, entrepreneurs are still more often grouped on the basis of personality traits and motives (Mugler, 1998). The research is based on entrepreneurs' decisions and feelings; grouping data on the basis of personality traits and opinions it is possible to determine the value judgements, which can be used to clarify strategic behaviour because value orientations differ from each other by type of motivational goal expressed by the value (Schwartz, 1992) while different value groups have different relationships with strategic behaviour (Chuah, 2010).

Both research works are based on Kluge's (2000) four-step empirically grounded grouping model, which was used to code the groupings in both research works and analyses were carried out to clear up differences and similarities and to select features. The results of both research works are comparable and can be considered reliable.

Analysis

All groups in both studies were coded and analysed to identify the differences and similarities and to choose the groups with the outcomes reflecting the objective of this research. Computer based data analysis was used for processing the outcomes: first a database was generated in excel tables and then the database was processed with a freeware data analysis package PALaeontological Statistics, hereinafter PAST (Hammer et al., 2001), version 2.00. Different algorithms and similarity measures were used in data analysis in order to choose the most similar from the solutions. On the basis of different algorithms dendrograms were generated, which provide an overview of the outcomes of the analysis. The quality of the hierarchical structure of

the dendrogram can be measured with the help of correlation coefficient: the closer the coefficient value to one, the higher the dendrogram quality and reliability of data (Hammer et al., 2001).

The data processing programme PAST enables to group the results on the basis of various characteristics (entrepreneurs, owner etc.). Irrespective of the principle of grouping, mathematical results are the same (Sneath et al., 1973). Using Ward's method for PAST cluster analysis appropriate feature spaces can be selected; the results were the smoothest using Hamming (Figure 1) and Euclidean (Figure 2) similarity measures.

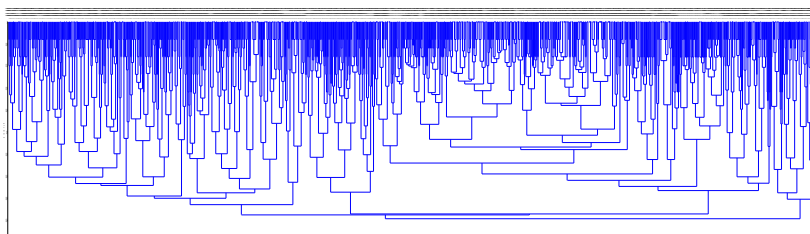


Figure 1. Dendrogram of hierarchically clustered family enterprises using Ward's method on the basis of Hamming's similarity measure, *R mode*, Coph. Corr.: 0.3563 (PAST ver. 2.00; calculation made by the author on the basis of data collected)

The correlation coefficient (Coph. Corr. = 0.3563; Coph Corr. = 0.2824) values in both works are close and suitable for determining the number of clusters on the basis of the dendrogram.

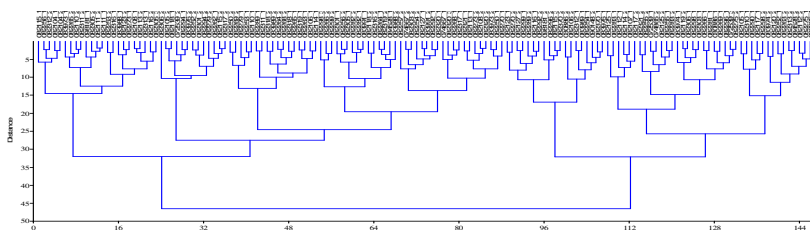


Figure 2. Dendrogram of hierarchically clustered owners on the basis of Euclidean similarity measure using Ward's method, *R mode*, Coph. Corr.: 0.2824 (PAST ver. 2.00) (Wahl, 2011)

Evaluating the relative distance of clusters in the dendrogram we can determine the number of clusters used in the analysis, which is described by an unrooted dendrogram in the neighbour joining clustering (Figure 3) where five different groups of family enterprises are formed, and a dendrogram (Figure 4) formed by four distinct ownership groups.

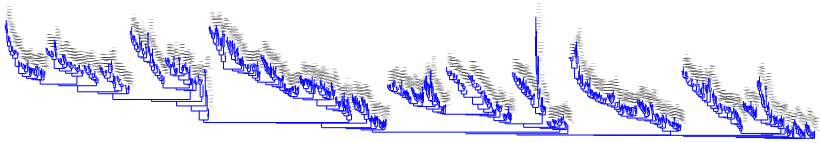


Figure 3. Unrooted dendrogram from neighbour joining cluster analysis, Euclidean similarity measure, stress 0.1257 (PAST ver. 2.00; calculation by the author based on data collected)

Neighbour joining clustering is considered an alternative method to hierarchical cluster analysis (Hammer et al., 2001).

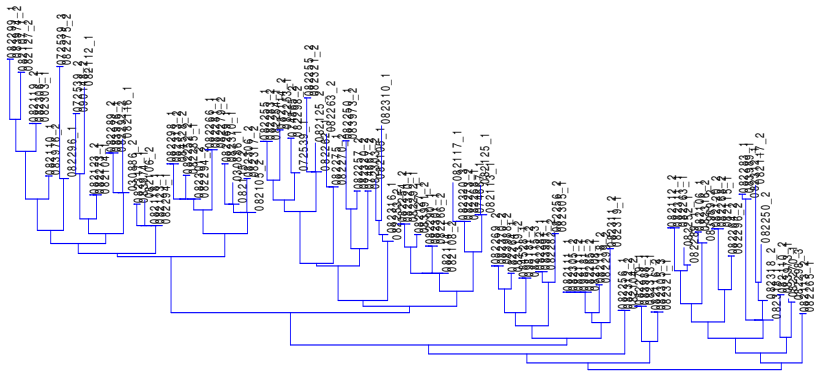


Figure 4. Unrooted dendrogram from neighbour joining cluster analysis, Horn's similarity measure, stress 0.3751 (PAST ver. 2.00 Wahl, 2011))

Multi-dimensional scaling enables to analyse groups of features formed in the neighbour joining clustering. The quality of the outcome is assessed with the help of such indicator as stress – the lower the stress value, the better the result; the stress value depends on the procedure and data analysed: the value 0.0 is perfect, value higher than 0.4 not any more (Malhotra, 2007).

The stress value of feature groups in Figure 3 is 0.1257 and the stress value of feature groups in Figure 4 is 0.3751. The values are lower than 0.4 and therefore the results can be considered of high quality.

The answers received from feature groups helped identify the differences and similarities between family entrepreneurs and non-family entrepreneurs; open questions were asked when interviewing entrepreneurs, where they could in greater detail speak about their value judgements and other topics.

This paper is restricted to the results of analysis as they demonstrate that the feature groups in both research works have been chosen in the best possible way and help to achieve the objective.

Results

This paper seeks to clear up differences between family and non-family enterprises in Estonia. The results of the research conducted by the author enable to compare the specific features of family enterprises to those of the research where non-family enterprises were analysed (Wahl, 2011). The results show clear differences.

The major reasons for becoming a family entrepreneur were being one's own master and providing welfare to their family members, whereas non-family entrepreneurs answered that they became an entrepreneur in order to have economic freedom (wealth, welfare, ensure successfulness, earn more money), or they seized an opportunity (privatisation, takeover, liquidation, liquid money).

A family entrepreneur is not afraid of taking full responsibility and a sole proprietor is acting under his/her name; non-family entrepreneurs, however, answered that they don't like responsibility.

Family entrepreneurs believe that more important than profit earning is satisfaction of family members and continuity of family business traditions. They do not wish to expand entrepreneurial activity but rather provide welfare for their family. At the same time, non-family entrepreneurs are convinced that the principal mission of a company is maximisation of profit, being more successful than the rivals, expanding the area of activity, creating new values.

Family entrepreneurs attach more importance to that the family members (spouse, children, kin) could be constantly employed in family business and they wish to be constantly in the centre of the business themselves and develop their family business. Owners of non-family enterprises, however, focus on the social role as employer and tax payer and rather wish to stay away from direct business activity themselves.

Family entrepreneurs usually manage their business themselves (in exceptional cases executive management is hired), make strategic plans and design the family business culture. On the other hand, collective will of the owners of a non-family enterprise may be formulated as a proprietary strategy, which not always coincides with the company's management strategy and owners may hinder business activity with rigidity.

In the first generation family enterprises the manager is mostly owner him/herself and hence no conflicts occur in management and in working out strategic plans. Non-family entrepreneurs believe that adequate behaviour is guaranteed when owners come to terms with themselves and frequent discussions between different parties (owner and management) help prevent conflicts in the company.

Family entrepreneurs attach a lot of significance to relationships between people in their family enterprise and are mostly oriented to person culture. More important for non-family entrepreneurs, however, is income from being an owner (including increase in capital); they find that power is achieved on the basis of personal authority, followed by identification (setting a good example, knowledge), rewarding (money, praise, attention), power gained on the basis of formal ownership and compulsion (money, punishment, dismissal).

Family entrepreneurs hope that their enterprise is sustainable and next generations will continue their business. Non-family entrepreneurs, at the same time, are ready to sell their shares or part of them immediately when a good offer is made.

Family entrepreneurs find that in an ideal case 100% of the family enterprise is in his/her or family ownership, but definitely more than 50%. Non-family entrepreneurs, however, often find that a 10 to 50% participation in a company is sufficient.

Differences of family enterprises from non-family enterprises are caused merely by long-term family traditions and orientation to different values. The core of the family enterprise's organisational culture as an integral whole is values the family business members count on and what the family enterprise wants to show outside. Family business values are revealed in the behaviour of employees, business operating processes and they help to achieve the family business objectives.

In family enterprises there are confidential relations between all members; everybody cares for each other, they are helpful and communicate also outside the work environment. A stable family business culture is supported by strong traditions where all employees of the family enterprise are involved so that also non-family employees feel themselves as family members.

Before starting a family enterprise a future family entrepreneur needs to be sure whether he/she wants to start the enterprise as a family entrepreneur or non-family entrepreneur. The wish to start a family enterprise is not enough; so as to start a successful family enterprise one has to be sure that the family members want to participate in the family enterprise. Otherwise it may happen that the family is not interested because business involves in the start-up phase a lot of restless nights and no leisure time at all.

A family enterprise can be successful only when all its family members are interested in the family enterprise to be successful and contribute the maximum effort. With strong and stable family relations the family enterprise is more likely to achieve success. Failures of family enterprises are often due to that they do not realise that family members do not want to or are not able to perform all works and this is often a reason for quitting or for hiring workforce outside the family.

Conclusions

The concept of family entrepreneur is not enacted in Estonia, although the European Union policy sets out growth of and support to entrepreneurship activity, to enhance responsible entrepreneurship, promote small and medium-sized enterprises and establish unequivocal criteria for micro enterprises and create a more supportive environment for family enterprises.

This paper defines family enterprises as undertakings where family has the majority holding or where family members take part in the business activity (in cases of sole proprietors); family members are spouse, children, kin and their spouses. Non-family enterprises are those enterprises where family members have no majority holding (companies) or where family members are not participating in the business (sole proprietorship).

This paper presented research results for which the author had gathered data in the years 2007–2012 and which clear up the differences of family entrepreneurs and family enterprises and that can be compared to the research conducted by Wahl (2011) among non-family entrepreneurs to identify the differences.

The objective of the paper which was to analyse differences between family enterprises and non-family enterprises in Estonia, was accomplished. It turned out that there is a clear difference between family enterprises and non-family enterprises, which is caused by long-term family traditions and orientation to different values. The core of family enterprises' business culture is the values that the family members value and count on and what the family wants to show outside. Family enterprises' values are revealed in the behaviour of employees, business operating processes and they help to achieve the family entrepreneur's objectives.

The novelty of the research is that it is the first extensive survey of Estonian family entrepreneurs; the results can be used in future research, for example, for analysing similarities between family enterprises and non-family enterprises.

References

1. **Casson, M.** (1991). Ettevõtja majanduslik käsitlus II. AS LetraSepp.
2. **Chuah, S.-H.** (2010). Do Human Values Explain Economic Behavior? An Experimental Study. Nottingham University Business School Research Paper No. 2010-01. [Online] SSRN (05.06.2012)
3. Code de Commerce, au 01. Mai 2013. [WWW] http://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/affichCode.do;jsessionid=7F7CD2D7D08FF18E7E77BB35260ED390.tpdjo09v_2?idSectionTA=LEGISCTA000019287890&cidTexte=LEGITEXT000005634379&dateTexte=20130501 (30.11.2012)
4. Codice Civile, 16.marzo 1942 [WWW] <http://www.leggiitaliane.it/>; [WWW] <http://www.rcscuola.it/disciplina/ccivile.pdf> (30.11.2012)
5. Commercial Code, passed 15.02.1995. RT I 1995, 26, 355, entry into force 01.09.1995; [WWW]

- <http://www.legaltext.ee/et/andmebaas/tekst.asp?loc=text&dok=X0001K25&pg=1&tyyp=X&query=%E4riseadustik&ptyyp=RT&keel=en> (01.06.2013)
6. **Craig, J., Lindsay, N.** (2002). Incorporating the family dynamic into entrepreneurship process. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise development*. Vol 9, 4, 416-43.
 7. Eesti põllumajandus XX sajandil (2007). Vol II, I, Inimene ja Ühiskond. Tallinn, 2007.
 8. ENSV ettevõtte seadus 17.11.1989, enforced 04.12.1989.
 9. Ettevõtete tulud, kulud ja kasum tegevusala ja tööga hõivatud isikute järgi. Ettevõtete arv müügitulu ja tegevusala järgi. (2012). Eesti Statistika. Andmebaas. Majandus. Ettevõtete majandusnäitajad. [WWW] http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/Database/Majandus/03Ettevetete_majandusnaitajad/06Ettevetete_tulu_d_kulud_kasum/02Aastastatistika/02Aastastatistika.asp (01.04.2013)
 10. **Hammer, U., Harper, D. A. T., Ryan, P. D.** (2001). PAST: Paleontological Statistics Software Package for Education and Data Analysis. *Palaeontologia Electronica*, 4(1), 9. [WWW] http://palaeo-electronica.org/2001_1/past/issue1_01.htm (01.05.2012)
 11. Hobuste andmebaas. Jõudluskontrolli Keskus. [WWW] <http://www.jkkeskus.ee/htr/> Accessible over the internal website (18.06.2008).
 12. **Kaarna, R., Masso, M., Rell, M.** (2012). Väikese ja keskmise suurusega ettevõtete arengusuundumused. Tallinn: Poliitikauuringute Keskus Praxis.
 13. **Kaseorg, M., Siimon, A.** (2007). Perefirmade loomise, tegutsemise ja arenguprobleemid Eestis. [WWW] <http://www.ut.ee/orb.aw/class=file/action=preview/id=302926/Kaseorg,+Siimon+28.10.pdf>.
 14. **Kaseorg, M., Raudsaar, M.** (2008). Family Firm as Social Entrepreneur in Post-Communist Transition Society: The Case from Estonia. [WWW] http://www.esu.fi/papers/23_Merike_Kaseorg_Mervi.pdf
 15. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2007). Füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja pereettevõtluses. Mattimar OÜ, http://www.emselts.ee/konverentsid/EMS2007/Ettevõtlus_ja_majanduspoliitika/Kirsipuu.pdf.
 16. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2009a). About Family Enterprises in rural areas. CD Eesti Majandusteaduse Seltsi Aastakonverentsi ettekanded Toila, 30-31.01.2009.
 17. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2009b). Rural entrepreneurship policy in Estonia Berliner, Tallinn: BMW*Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 97-116.
 18. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2011). Role of Family Business in Estonian Economy. Kirjastajad: BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2011, pp. 50-68.
 19. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2012). Sustainability of Rural Family Enterprises. BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2012, 83-104.
 20. **Kluge, S.** (2000). Empirisch begründete Typenbildung in der qualitativen Sozialforschung. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 1(1), Art. 14. [WWW] <http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0001145> (01.04.2012).

21. **Kok, J., Vroonhof, P., Verhoeven, W., Timmermans, N., Kwaak, T., Snijders, J., Westhof, F.** (2011). Do SMEs create more and better jobs? [WWW] http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/performance-review/files/supporting-documents/2012/do-smes-create-more-and-better-jobs_en.pdf (01.01.2013)
22. LAW on the stimulation of private entrepreneurs for the setting up and development of small and medium-sized enterprises No 133/1999. [WWW] http://www.cdep.ro/pls/proiecte/upl_pck.proiect?idp=1063 (30.12.2012)
23. Liisu JKK lihaste programm. Jõudluskontrolli Keskus. [WWW] http://www.jkkeskus.ee/liisu/?owner_id=&module=HerdList. Accessible in the internal website (01.10.2007)
24. Majanduslikult aktiivsed ettevõtted. ER:051 (2012) Eesti Statistika. Andmebaas. Majandus. Majandusüksused. Ettevõtluse demograafia. [WWW] http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/Database/Majandus/10Majandusüksused/03Ettevõtluse_demograafia/03Ettevõtluse_demograafia.asp (01.04.2013)
25. **Malhotra, N. K.** (2007). Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation, 5th Edition. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
26. **Mandl, I.** (2008). Overview of Family Business Relevant Issues. Contract No. 30-CE 0164021/00-51. Final Report. Vienna 2008, [WWW] http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/files/craft/family_business/doc/family_business_study_en.pdf (30.11.2012)
27. **Miettinen, A., Teder, J.** (2006). Ettevõtlus I Ettevõtlusest, ettevõtjatest ja ettevõtluspoliitikast. Tallinn, Külim 2006.
28. **Mugler, J.** (1998). Betriebswirtschaftslehre der Klein- und Mittelbetriebe, Band 1, Dritte überarbeitete Auflage.
29. **Ojamaa, K.** (2012). Euroopa Liidu regulatsioonide mõju arvestuspoliitikale Eestis. Pärnu Raamatupidamiskonverents 2012 "Vähem on parem" 22-23.11. Pärnu.
30. **Peirce, C. S.** (1931). *The Collected Papers* Vol. V: Pragmatism and Pragmatism. [WWW] http://www.textlog.de/peirce_pragmatism.html (01.04.2012)
31. PRIA Loomade register, ehitiste otsing. Põllumajanduse Registrite ja Informatsiooni Amet. [WWW] <http://neptuun.pria.ee/lr/faces/lr/lr.jsp>. Accessible in the internal website (01.08.2009).
32. Researching and Writing Dissertations in Business and Management, Riley, M., Wood, R. C., Clark, M. A., Wilkie, E., Szivas, E. (2000). Croatia, 280 p.
33. **Schwartz, S. H.** (1992). Universals in the Content and Structure of Values: Theoretical Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 1-65. New York: Academic Press. [Online] ScienceDirect (11.04.2008)
34. Smart regulation - Responding to the needs of small and medium - sized enterprises (2013), European Commission, Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, Brussels, 7.3.2013, COM(2013) 122 final [WWW] <http://eur->

- lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2013:0122:FIN:EN:PDF(31.03.2013)
35. **Sneath, P. H. A., Sokal, R. R.** (1973). Numerical Taxonomy: The principles and practice of numerical classification. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company.
 36. Statistilisse profiili kuuluvad ettevõtted. Andmebaas. Majandus. Majandusüksused. Üldandmed. (2012). [WWW] <http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/Dialog/varval.asp?ma=ER006&ti=STATISTILISSE+PROFIILI+KULUVAD+%DCKSUSED+TEGEVUSALA+%28EMTAK+2008%29+J%C4RGI&path=../Database/Majandus/10Majandusüksused/08Uldandmed/&lang=2> (01.04.2013)
 37. Structural business statistics overview. (2012). European Commission eurostat. Statistics Explained. [WWW] http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Structural_business_statistics_overview#Size_class_analysis (01.06.2013)
 38. **Thietart, R. A.** (1999). Doing Management research, London, 425 p.
 39. **Trochim, W., Donnelly, J. P.** (2006). The Research Methods Knowledge Base. 3rd edition. Cincinnati, OH:
 40. **Wahl, M. F.** (2011). Kapitaliühingute lõppomanike alusväärtuste ja tahte uurimine ning omanikkonna tüpoloogia konstrueerimine. Kirjastus: Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli Kirjastus, 186 lk.
 41. **White, B.** (2000). Dissertation Skills for Business and Management Students, London, 168 pp
 42. **Wymenga, P., Spanikova, V., Barker, A., Konings, J., Canton, E.** (2012). EU SMEs in 2012: at the crossroads Annual report on small and medium-sized enterprises in the EU, 2011/12. [WWW] http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/performance-review/files/supporting-documents/2012/annual-report_en.pdf (01.30.2013)
 43. Äriseadustik 15.02.1995, entered into force 01.09.1995-RT I 1995, 26, 355... RT I, 18.12.2012, 8.
 44. Äriregistri teabesüsteem. Justiitsministeeriumi Registre ja Infosüsteemide Keskus. [WWW] <https://ariregister.rik.ee/login.py>. For registered users (01.08.2010).

WOMEN IN FAMILY ENTERPRISES IN ESTONIA

Maret Kirsipuu, Uno Silberg
Academy of Security Sciences

Abstract

This article objective is to give an overview of the women in family enterprises on the basis of theoretical sources and approaches. In order to achieve this goal, an overview of the research findings have been provided, which have analyzed a woman's role in the family business. Family firms and family entrepreneurs have been defined differently by different authors, but what all definitions have in common is the family is involvement in business activities. A family entrepreneur can be both an individual whose entrepreneurial activities involve family members and a company, which was founded by family members. In family entrepreneurship, the members have trust towards each other and they communicate frequently, which will help them to achieve a common goal. The studies reflect predominantly men as family entrepreneurs in whose business activity the family members, including wife and children participate. The European Union has not yet provided a coherent definition of the family business, while increasing the role of women in family businesses in ensuring gender equality and giving importance to the role of the woman as the family entrepreneur.

Keywords: women, family, family enterprises, family business

JEL Classification: M10, M13, M19

Introduction

This article discusses one of the less studied areas in Estonia, the family business, and the role of women in family businesses. The problem is that so far there is no clear picture of the women who participate in Estonian family businesses. It is necessary to consolidate the existing data, in order, on this basis, to continue to carry out in-depth studies.

The objective of this article is to provide an overview of women enterprises among the family enterprises in Estonia.

For achieving the goal, this article provides an overview of the family business, the strategies of the European Union and the role of women in family businesses on the basis of theoretical sources and approaches.

The paper consists of four sections: the first section give an overview of the entrepreneurial activity and family business; the second section provides an overview of women role in family businesses; the third section presents the strategies of the European Union, and the fourth section provides an overview of women role in enterprises in Estonia.

In this article, a family business is the kind of business activity in which the family of the entrepreneur participates.

This is a theoretical article, which relies on existing theoretical approaches to the topic and on research.

Theoretical overview on previous empirical studies for considering women participation in family business: socio-economic, cultural demographic, political, legal etc framework, but the case of Estonia only the results of previous studies.

The article deals with women role among in the family business on the basis of the research carried out.

Entrepreneurial activity and Family business

Entrepreneurial activity can take place in particular when there is a suitable environment for an entrepreneurial activity and there are entrepreneurs, or where there are active people or people who want to act alone or with family members.

From the point of view of Marxist philosophy, a human being is a creature of society, the subject of societal and historical activities and knowledge. The system of human behavior, values, norms, knowledge and the worldview is shaped by the social environment, which is a complicated system of relations between people. (Eesti..., 1988) The individual is able to bare responsibility, set goals and develop entrepreneurial activities (Filosoofiakunst, 2007). The persons involved in family businesses must be in close social relationships. Close social relationships provide social support and help to find a place in society, social capital operates through trust and communication (Kaldaru, Tamm, 2003). In family entrepreneurship, the members have trust towards each other and they communicate frequently, which will help them to achieve a common goal.

As an individual entrepreneur, one can develop entrepreneurial activity, but normally, upon acceleration of economic activity, work cannot be done alone; a team is needed. The team may include both job seekers from outside the family as well as family members. One must have a strong personality to go through their chosen path alone, it is necessary to have caring companions with whom to cooperate (Cialdini, 2005). Cooperation requires mutual understanding and team work, the environment of which consists of four elements: culture, structure, incentives and people (Markides, 2000), in collaboration is achieved success (Stanne, 1999). Corporate success is hidden in people and achievement of success is up to the people's wishes and their desire to create value for companies, i.e., the key to success is mutual cooperation (Tõnismäe, Gern, 2006). Cooperation, which values traditions and ensures reliability, is traditional in family firms (Richards, 1997).

Family firms and family companies are defined differently by different authors, but all definitions have family involvement as common in business activities. Population of families and businesses mutually affects each other in different ways; there is a

wide array of options for working together: working from home, part-time and full-time paid work and acting as a small entrepreneur. A family company often inspires greater confidence when the public is informed of a traditional family businesses, e.g., whiskey producer William Grant and Sons emphasizes on each bottle label that it is a fifth generation family business (Miettinen, Teder, 2006). There cannot be drawn exact borders between the family and business, a family participates continually in business processes, as the family is engaged in business outside of working hours, the success is hoped to be achieved with the help of the entire family (Craig, Lindsay, 2002).

On the basis of U.S. research findings it can be argued that the majority of family businesses are born at the wish and the will of family members, there is a small number of those who take over a non-family business and continue with the family business, the majority will continue the family tradition through generations. The longevity of the family business is ensured if in a dispersed way family members are involved, further steps are planned and attitudes and goals are determined. (Chua, Chrisman, Chang, 2004)

A family consists of a couple with the offspring and relatives (Ölgekeelsussönaraamat, 2006). Women help to keep together the family business, if they have young children they focus in the beginning more on the family and later combine the family and business activities (Crouter, 1984). Women like to work more in the family business than outside; the women participating in a family business are better able to combine family and business activities (Lyman, 1988).

On the basis of the agent (representative) theory, one person depends on the activity of another, the relationships arising and problems emerging are solved with social norms (Schumann, 1992). According to the agency theory, if the represented are not protected publicly against the corruption of the agent, they refrain from the use of their agent and then the economy reduces to the level of a domestic economy and family business level and enterprise boundaries are determined by family ties (Smith, 2004). The agency theory can be compared to a marriage. In case of a traditional marriage, the wife often remains at home and waives a professional career, to justify such a waiver permanence of the marriage must be guaranteed. (Williamson, 1993)

Professional skills and family support is the only viable option in business (Verbeke, Kano, 2012). However, the capabilities of the family business consisting of only members of the family are limited and dependent on family members and their professional expertise, skills and goals (Carney, 2005; Gedajlovic, Carney, 2010). In a family company, family ties are treated with care, social relationships are important, which in turn gives the family company a competitive advantage over non-family companies (Carney, 2005). Family involvement in business activities affects the ability of the business, is effective and provides innovative development. The same time, family involvement reduces the risks and shortens the control procedures of the economic activity of the family company (Chua, Chrisman, Steier, Rau, 2012). The shares of the family business can be held by one member of the

family, but they can also belong to all the members of the family. The main thing is that the family participates in the business activities. In the case of large families it may often happen that not everybody is going to be involved in the family business but they will become wage labourers or start their own business. The entrepreneur acting on his or her own has no stocks or shares, but the family may participate in his or her entrepreneurial activities and in this case, the entrepreneur is a family company and its business activities are family-entrepreneurial activities.

Normally, it takes a lot of decisions and time to end up with a family business. Often in the beginning a non-family company is created, then the spouse is involved and lo and behold, the family business is there, eventually, when the entire family or the majority of the family is involved, it creates the whole-family-enterprise. There will be a relationship between the age of the family business and the involvement of the family members; involvement of the family may slow the development of the family business, sometimes in the beginning even hinder it. Family businesses are born with the needs of the family, the whole family involvement helps them to survive. Fewer family businesses are created by young married couples and very old age couples. Family entrepreneurship includes members of the family; as a result, the work duties of the family members increase and some management links are skipped. The age distribution may reflect sustainability. (Chua, Chrisman, Chang, 2004)

A family business can be both an individual whose entrepreneurial activities have involved family members as well as a company, which was founded by the family members. The studies reflect predominantly men as family entrepreneurs whose business activity involves family members, including his wife and children.

Significance of a woman in the family business

A woman's role as a mother has always been given a lot of importance, however, the role of women as an entrepreneur has been focused on only in recent decades. Normally it is expected when a family is established, the husband as the head of the family will start to feed the family, while the wife is raising the children and takes care of the home. However, modern women are not satisfied with this and want to contribute to society by skillfully combining the role of a mother, a wife, an entrepreneur, etc.

Most of the family businesses that are set up in the place of residence of the entrepreneur are family-oriented, only 20% are profit driven (Winter, Fitzgerald, 1993). Women prefer to create such family businesses that are home-centered, as a home-centered company will help to better link the family and the business, at the same time it requires constant self-discipline (Owen, Winter, 1991).

A woman's role in the development of the family business is important, the woman is the one who binds the household and the social life with the economic life of the family business and thus ensures the feeling of confidence of the whole family and business (Römer-Paakkanen, 2002) the intuition of women entrepreneurs is higher

evolved than that of men (Kakkonen, 2006). Römer-Paakkanen (2002) raised the woman's work in the family to an important place, brought it to the awareness of a wider audience and proved the important role of women in family businesses gave an overview of female entrepreneurs of family-owned companies, gave various examples of how they manage the combination of family life and business activity. The study of family companies found that the development of a family enterprise should not be regarded merely as a whole, but be sure to take into account the gender differences in families, the importance of women in family businesses is contributed to by the appreciation of the position of the family in society (Maeda, 2006). For example, a Japanese family company has to traditionally have a male heir, but in reality, there are no restrictions made, female widows often take over the management of the heritage, in order to maintain the unique family companies, which cater for the demands of both the society and the general population (Maeda, 2006).

The role of women in the economic activity of family businesses should not be underestimated (Rautamäki, 2007), women are able to skillfully combine lifestyle and work and at the same time keep them separated from each other (Hite, 2007), the woman provides the dynamic development of the family business (Heinonen, Stenholm, 2011). A woman's role should not be underestimated in the process of generation exchange in the family business. Koffi (2008) argues that family firms, whose descendants are male, are more robust in making managerial decisions, since the female descendants are too trusting. Upon the passing on of the business the question arises of whether to hand the company over to the wife, to the daughter or even to other relatives. From the conducted research works it can be inferred in case of a lack of a son, transferring the family business to the daughter or the spouse is more sustainable, at the same time upon transferring it does not matter whether it is from the father to the son or from the father to the daughter, it just needs to be taken into account that a transfer to the daughter may differ regarding the transfer process itself, because in addition to managing, the daughters want to know other inherent characteristics, such as the cultural character and relationship between the members (Dumas, 1989).

Results of the studies have shown that the role of women, as the mother of the family in the family business is important; woman's participation in the family business ensures business stability. Family entrepreneurship has an impact to the aspects of life of the entrepreneur: the household chores, social life, economic life and security of the whole family. If a family member creates a family business, often all the family members have to embrace a new way of life (Kakkonen, 2006; Römer-Paakkanen, 2002; Brazzale, 2007; Rautamäki, 2007; Heinonen et al., 2011).

Reconciling work and family has been on the agenda in Finland since 2000. Particular attention has been paid to reconciliation of salaried work and family, the role of women in the family and the involvement of children in entrepreneurial activities. Many women have given up paid work in order to assist the business activities of their husbands; the family is smoother and firmer, if all the members are working towards a common goal and in the same establishment. The advantage of a

family business is the sense of belonging of the members which non-family business members do not have. (Quo..., 2003)

Interviews with 555 female managers in Russia in 2007 revealed that 56% of them were a family business and the family business was set up by a woman. It turned out that the family businesses created and operated by women were conservative, social, oriented towards corporate culture enhancement. The research concluded that a woman will ensure success and sustainability in business. (Kickul, Gundry, Iakovleva, 2007) Family businesses created and managed by women are less prone to taking risks, they are more focused on the preservation of cultural heritage, women are not robust leaders and they lead the family business in a conservative and constructivist way (Sharma, Chrisman, Chua, 1997).

Woman should be given the opportunity to participate in the family business, a woman's sense of beauty and conservatism have the advantage in the business activities. When children are born, the role of a woman as mother must be given prominence and she should be less burdened with managerial tasks. A woman is able to involve children into the entrepreneurial activities at a young age, which will ensure that children when growing up wish and want to work for the family. Women are not risk takers, they give more importance to the family, women's involvement ensures harmony in the family and the family business activities. Women are happy to do networking, knowledge sharing and searching for answers to problems. (Parada, Gimeno, Melin, 2010)

The research conducted in Sweden in the years 1994-2008 examined the role of a wife and mother including the importance of a woman in a family business on the basis of articles published. It was found that when children are born, women put the children first, then when the children grown, they once again focus on the family business. In summary, it can be concluded that in the woman's life they rank the children first, then not taking into account the norms and for a woman as a business woman, the acquisition and the sharing of skills and the development of the family business. Women are able to skillfully combine the role of wife and mother, also the role of the wife-mother and entrepreneur. (Bjursell, Bäckval, 2010)

A woman's role in a family businesses has been studied, the compatibility of the wife and a family and the business activities have been analyzed, but a woman as the starter of the family business and what the woman's motives are on becoming a family entrepreneur have been studied only marginally.

European Union Strategy at the local level

Developed countries seek to ensure gender equality, where women are not run down and they are able to participate in the society as fully fledged citizens. In the European Union it is also important that gender equality is ensured.

In 2006 the Committee of the Regions published an opinion of the elimination of gender equality, the statement found that gender equality must become a generally

accepted and a desirable objective for the users of the services offered by local and regional authorities and should be the cornerstone of the activities of all governments and politicians. They believed that the European Union must ensure social equality, tackling gender inequality. In Europe the understanding that gender equality is an important goal and crucial to the economic well-being of Europe is growing. Although Europe can for example be proud of the standard of living, which is a model for the whole world, the economic welfare is not always accompanied by gender equality or women's greater well-being. Therefore, the opinion emphasized that economic prosperity does not automatically mean gender equality. Women need to be supported, violence needs to be eliminated and their equal treatment must be ensured. For this purpose must be strengthened the women's position in society, to ensure that they have access to the labor market. (Opinion..., 2006)

The Council of European Municipalities and Regions drew up a European charter for equality of women and men in local life. The Charter aims at the equality of women and men; the multiple discrimination and disadvantage, which is also due to gender, race, skin color, national and social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or other opinion, belonging to a national minority, property status, descent, disability, age, sexual orientation, or socio-economic status need to be addressed. A balanced and sustainable economic development of municipalities and regions promoting equality between women and men contributes to providing employment for women, taking into account the women's and men's needs and interests and the opportunities of promotion of equality between women and men. In the Charter, it was decided to provide assistance to women entrepreneurs and to provide financial assistance in order to avoid gender equality, women are encouraged to learn and acquire skills and raise their qualifications and to encourage employers to hire more female work force including women apprentices. (Euroopa kohalike..., 2006)

The Committee of the Regions (CoR) plenary session on 30 and 31.05.2013, reviewed the draft directive on gender balance in the improvement of listed companies, non-executive governing bodies among the members and related measures, which showed the inequalities between women and men in the European Union and the core values and key objectives which are set out in the EU Treaty (Article 3, paragraph 3) and the Charter of Fundamental Rights (Article 23). Pursuant to the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, Article 8, the EU objective in case of all measures is to eliminate inequalities between men and women and promote gender equality. Accordingly TFEU Article 157, paragraph 3, is the legal basis for EU action aimed at ensuring equal opportunities for men and women and the application of the principle of equal opportunities in the issues of employment and occupation. The Committee of the Regions emphasizes that it is important to support actions at the European level and ensuring a single pan-European legal framework in the field of gender equality and points out that it would be appropriate to put a greater emphasis on improving the gender balance in all members of the governing body, not only of non-executive governing body members. However, the CoR warns that certain factors continue to prevent women

taking up senior management positions, such as the lack of measures to facilitate the balance of work and family life. (Regioonide..., 2013)

Family businesses are increasingly attaining importance in public and policy discussions, both at a European and a Member State level (European Commission, 2013).

The first of the 10 principles to guide the conception and implementation of policies both at the EU and a Member State level refers to the creation of an environment in which entrepreneurs and family businesses can thrive and entrepreneurship is rewarded. Special emphasis is thereby given to the fields of entrepreneurship education, taxation, business transfers as well as female entrepreneurship. In the United Kingdom it was shown that family firms tend to offer more flexible working practices and this increases employment diversity. For example, they are more likely to have females on the board. In contrast to that, Norwegian family firms traditionally have been run paternalistically and tend to be inherited by the oldest son in spite of the fact that both genders according to the law of wills and succession have had the same right of inheritance for more than 150 years. Presently, however, and due to the gender equality changes in the society, there is a change in the paternalistic pattern. Ever more women of the next generation now take over the family enterprise. (Mandl, 2008)

Across Europe in 2008, about 70%-80% of enterprises are family businesses. However, the dependency of these assessments on the applied definition becomes obvious in those countries in which different research studies (being based on different definitions) come to varying results. For example, the application of the above-mentioned staircase/cascade definition elaborated in Denmark pinpoints a range of about 36% to almost 95% for family businesses' share in the total enterprise population. Family businesses' economic contribution can also be shown by illustrative indicators available for some of the countries. So it has, for example, been found for Belgium that 40% of the gazelles 11 of the Walloon region are family businesses. The sustainability of family businesses can exemplarily be pinpointed by data available for Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom. 30% or more of the family businesses have already gone through one generational transfer and are presently in the hand of the 2nd 3rd or even later generation. For Slovenia, the share of family businesses in the 2nd or 3rd generation is much lower (below 20%) which is attributed to the comparatively young age of the enterprises. Family businesses account for an important part (about 40% - 50%) of European employment. In some of the available studies family businesses' contribution to employment is even estimated to reach 70 % or more. Interestingly, no relationship exists between the share of enterprises and the share of employment across the different national data available. Some data sources indicate a very high share of family businesses in the total enterprise population and also a high employment share. Others find a high share of enterprises but a comparatively low share of employment. Almost all sources pinpoint, however, a higher share of enterprises than of employment, implicating that family businesses are on average smaller than the average national company. Few of the analyzed countries dispose of data on

family businesses' share of total turnover and their contribution to GDP. These indicate that family businesses account for about 40% of private sector turnover whereas their share in national GDP or value added ranges from about 20% to about 70% (depending on the definition used as well as the indicator applied. (Mandl, 2008)

Social security should be guaranteed to all persons engaged in business, in business employees are hired and in this respect they also have social guarantees. Family businesses, especially start-up ones, do not have enough resources to hire workers, and to formalize an employment contract with family members. The family members, whose employment relationships have not been formalized in the family enterprise, lack social guarantees. The sole proprietors have even more difficulties.

In order to ensure social security for the sole proprietor, in the EU was adopted a directive which, considering the fact that the spouses of sole proprietors who under the conditions provided in the national law are usually involved in the activities of the sole proprietor and perform the same, or auxiliary tasks, not being in employment relationship with the entrepreneur or his or her business partners and their involvement in the family business, the spouses of the sole proprietor who have access to social protection systems should also be entitled to social protection. The Directive states that Member States should be required to take the necessary measures in organization of social protection in accordance with national law and the Member States should decide on whether social security should be implemented on a mandatory or voluntary basis. Member States may provide that social protection can be proportional to the participation in the activities of the sole proprietor and/or social security contribution. According to Directive 2010/41/EU the benefit may be applied to life partners when they are recognized by national law. (Euroopa Parlamendi..., 2010)

From 01.08.2012 in Estonia a sole proprietor can enter their spouse into the registry of taxable persons as a spouse involved in the activity of the sole proprietor and pay the monthly social security for the spouse. (Sotsiaalmaksuseadus § 6¹, 2012) In Estonia, this option is not available for common law partners.

On 01.01.2013 the Vice-President of the European Commission Antonio Tajani submitted an action plan to support entrepreneurs and for fundamental change of the entrepreneurial culture in Europe. The Action Plan emphasizes making entrepreneurship desirable and accessible to the citizens of Europe and by using the European entrepreneurial potential it is possible to restore economic growth in Europe. The Commission intends to promote entrepreneurship in specific population groups, i.e., among women, the elderly, immigrants and the unemployed. (Communication..., 2013)

Women thus represent a large pool of entrepreneurial potential in Europe. Transferring a business from one generation to the next is the defining feature of a family business and the greatest challenge that it can face. A family business transfer must be considered as a transfer of ownership, where that ownership is not a liquid

asset but something which is built up and developed by the family over generations, including values, traditions and know how. The scope and scale of diverse approaches to inheritance and estate taxes across the EU demonstrate that there is still much room for improving the legal climate for family business transfers. Transferring a business from one generation to the next is the defining feature of a family business and the greatest challenge that it can face. A family business transfer must be considered as a transfer of ownership, where that ownership is not a liquid asset but something which is built up and developed by the family over generations, including values, traditions and know how. The scope and scale of diverse approaches to inheritance and estate taxes across the EU demonstrate that there is still much room for improving the legal climate for family business transfers. (Communication..., 2013)

The European Union has not yet provided a coherent definition of the family business, but the authors believe more attention will be paid to the family business and the time is not far away when the context is provided for differentiation of the family and non-family business. Also the role of women in family businesses in ensuring gender equality is being increased and importance is being given to the role of the woman as the family entrepreneur.

A woman in business in Estonia

In Estonia a woman's role in business has been marginally investigated and there are no national surveys of participation rates and the role of women in family businesses.

Estonian business history can be calculated from the activities of medieval guilds and guilds to the period of independence between the world wars. Loss of independence was followed by a rapid stifling of entrepreneurship. A more extensive legal private enterprise became possible again in 1986 under the influence of the economic reforms (perestroika) instituted in the Soviet Union by Mikhail Gorbachev. (Miettinen et al, 2006)

The enterprises created by women employ both the owners and the close people that surround them. On the one hand, the possibility of being an entrepreneur gives an opportunity to test one's capabilities; on the other hand, it is an important way to reduce unemployment. To own a company allows women to balance their work and family spheres according to their sole discretion and options. This is the opportunity to increase the well-being and the social cohesion of the family. Women's active participation in economic life will reduce the inequality between men and women, will increase women's autonomy and creates the preconditions for women's opportunity to exercise greater power in the economic and political development of their country. (Laas, 2003)

In order to learn about the role of a woman in entrepreneurship, a survey was conducted in 2004 among 393 women entrepreneurs. The survey revealed that almost 40% of female entrepreneurs surveyed were the main breadwinners of their

families. The existence of family support is important for a woman and influences the activities and entrepreneurial attitude of the woman. Female entrepreneurs are haunted by lack of time; there is less time for being with family, for dealing with their hobbies and for communication with friends and relatives. The recreation opportunities of a female entrepreneur are limited, only a quarter could have take a leave when they wished, nearly half of the respondents had not had an opportunity to rest during their entrepreneurial activity and a third had to combine the vacation with their company's activity. The big problem was finding a replacement and the seasonality of work, because the summer time is the busiest and finding time for matching the vacation with the other members of the family is hard. Other family members generally support the entrepreneurial mother, but problems arise in a family nonetheless. The main problem is the lack of time; it is particularly difficult when domestic work duties also devolve upon her shoulders. The next problem is the lack of money, many families birth of children and children going to school involve lack of money. If in Europe among self-employed persons dominate men who make up three-quarters of this group, the analysis found the opposite situation in Estonia. The proportion of women as creators of jobs for themselves has increased, especially in the service sector. (Talves, Laas, 2004)

In the European Union Member States, on the basis of gender statistics, 30% of entrepreneurs are women. Companies created by women have on average longer lifetimes than companies established by men; it arises primarily from the field of activity. Social protection schemes are one of the problems of the people for work in family businesses for free and of women entrepreneurs. In Estonia, in farm families, spouses are not covered by social security through their spouse. In Finland, women entrepreneurs have managed to make a strong explanation for work among Members of Parliament that all the female members of parliament are working to increase the social protection of women entrepreneurs; the cross-party cooperation developing the common interests of women is clearly visible. In Estonia it is not yet the case, the voice of small and micro entrepreneurs is weak on the legislative level. Women often have trouble obtaining retirement benefits because they have been workers in the family business for free. Often it can be seen that a female Sage in a working collective has a male boss, which shows the vertical gender segregation. In Estonia, family businesses are not legalized, but under the law all must be either employers (companies) or employees. People do not often cope with finding an intra-family legally correct and with the humanly best solutions. It is complicated for women to separate home and work, because for an outsider, an entrepreneur working at home kind of is not working, she is at home, meaning she is available for the family members. The common position of the continuity of family business did not become clear from the study. Unpaid family workers are persons who live with the proprietor of the company and work on a regular basis, but who do not have an employment contract and who do not get paid for their work. Small business is one of the biggest international topical problems, covering legal, social protection and economic relations for people working in family businesses. Studies show that in Estonia, women's economic, social and political position is lower than that of men's. The Estonian labor market is characterized by strong gender segregation, which means that the so-called women's and men's work and women's and men's positions

are different and are clearly distinguished in the work organization. (Talves et al, 2004)

The research conducted among sole proprietors in 2004 revealed that many of them have involved in business the whole family: the spouse, children, parents and siblings. 37% of the respondents used the assistance of family members in business (Kirsipuu, Teder, 2006). The research performed in 2006 with the same entrepreneurs revealed that 88.8% of them are actively engaged in entrepreneurship, out of those finished entrepreneurial activity 5.6% were women. 67% of active entrepreneurs were family businesses and all business activities involved a spouse. The business involved family members such as a spouse, children, parents, siblings, grandparents, son-in-law, mother-in-law and father-in-law. (Kirsipuu, 2007)

Based on the results of the Population and Housing Census of 2011, 2% live on entrepreneurial income, compared to the previous census the share of people living on labor wages and on entrepreneurship increased. Out of the whole population of Estonia, 28,000 people earned entrepreneurial income including income from farming, including 8,307 women, most of who operated in near towns, only 2963 in the countryside (REL..., 2013) The Statistical Office defines every work that is related to the production, storage of agricultural produce or production related activities as farm work. On development of local business, rural settlements have the competitive advantages before cities only in the suburban areas and nearby transport hubs and nodes. (Sepp, 2011)

The number of agricultural holdings in Estonia has decreased, mainly at the expense of small households, which cannot provide adequate income even to a single employee. Since 2009, the growth of the number of agricultural holdings has decreased, which suggests that farming as a sole proprietor is partly being replaced by the form of a limited liability entity. It does mean, however, that on the basis of the corporate farm, it is no longer possible to distinguish between the so-called classical family farms and agricultural businesses. In Estonia, agricultural production units were created only in the early 1990's and among them were family farms and large agricultural businesses A survey conducted in 2007 among 1000 farmers showed that the probability of intention to terminate agricultural production is lower in companies where the share of family labor is higher. As family labor intensity is higher in smaller production units, it can be concluded that in the cases of smaller producers, one of the factors ensuring sustainability is the participation of members of the family in the farm works. Larger production units rather use a paid labor force and as such participation of family members in the daily production process is not so important. (Viira, 2011)

The Rural Development Report reveals regional development needs, singling out the importance of the family business. From the viewpoint of rural development it is important to pay more attention to involving people of different sexes and different ages with work and family life and entrepreneurship. In a country whose population is small and declining, it is important to support business start-ups on the basis of family ties to link the different generations with more land related activities and to

ensure greater consistency. The necessity to support family entrepreneurship arises from the fact that in Estonia there are large numbers of micro enterprises, the sustainability of which can become questionable, if there are no transferees of the enterprise, or when due to market conditions they cannot be guaranteed the critical level of income in order to hire employees or to ensure a level of sustainability for their own family members. Part-time employment in rural entrepreneurship has become a problem, which is why many people have sought employment in urban areas. (Maaelu..., 2011)

In order for family business activity to grow, the need to fully support the family business, to prioritize the role of women in family businesses and to ensure social guarantees for the wife of the non-sole proprietor family entrepreneur is needed.

According to the Minister of Justice, in 2011 a woman belongs to the management of around 40 000 private limited companies and fourteen thousand women started the business as a sole proprietor. (Michal, 2011) It is in itself a good thing that we have started to keep records of business activity of women, but it would be necessary for the statistical data to be made available to the public.

The Estonian statistical report "Creative Economy Indicators" defines the term 'employed' as persons who worked during the reference period and were paid as a salaried employee, an entrepreneur or freelancer, a person who worked directly for free in a family enterprise or on their own farm or who were temporarily not working. (Kommel, 2012) Estonian Statistics has in their reporting introduced the definition "family enterprise", so the legislative side should also take it into account and to provide for the concept of the family business in Estonia.

The Creative Economy Report shows that when women's share in total employment has remained rather close to 50%, then in cultural employment it has fluctuated from 60% to 70%. The lowest share of women in cultural employment was in 2003 - slightly more than 60% - and the highest in 2007 - 69%. (Kommel, 2012) A family business has often been initiated by the broad range of the role of the owner-CEO or the father of the family which he has begun to distribute among the family members. For example, a brother has become the production manager of the same company, the spouse has become the accountant, the daughter has become the secretary, a son has become the marketing and sales manager. Such a company can work very well, if it does not cause a gap between the family members and other employees and when it is open to what is going on outside the family. (Zernand, 2005)

Studies that have been conducted in 2007-2012 among family businesses show that family entrepreneurs-spouses perform team work in the family business: they monitor implementation of the strategy, organize the money issues, manage and do household chores. The studies show that the family company is such a company, in the activities of which participates the family of the entrepreneur and it does not matter whether the marriage relationship has been formalized or not, it is cohabitation that counts. However, it is alleged that in case of a broken relationship, is not possible to successfully develop entrepreneurial activities, since tensions and

additional problems emerge. Among family entrepreneurs that raise beef cows, the wife is the one who does the lighter work, while among the horse breeders often the woman is more enterprising, the man is the one who works in the stable and does the preparation work. Many businesses are family-centered (spouses and children), they like the devotion of the family to the business and they do not use extra labor force. However, some of them considered as extra labor force the fact when they used the assistance of siblings, aunts, uncles, but also when non-family members were employed. A family company has almost always been centered on its creator (the family entrepreneur). In family businesses, relationships between family members must be very good, the spouses said the following about their mutual relationship: "we complement each other", "we think alike", "my spouse puts the strategy in place, I bring it to life". A strong family business culture will help reduce tensions, about the conflicts which have occurred, the answer was: "We sat down and talked it out", "we established fixed rules"; "We took a decision and admitted that the egg is smarter than the chicken". Studies show that on starting as a family entrepreneur, in 40% of cases the initiative came from women and in 60% of cases it came for men who then involved first the spouse (75%), children (20%) and only in 5% of cases the immediate family. 55% of the studied family businesses have been in business for more than 10 years, 45% under 10 years. (Kirsipuu *et al*, 2006, 2009a, 2009b, 2010, 2011, 2012).

A woman's role in the family business activities in Estonia should be further explored.

Conclusions

This article aims at giving an overview of the role of woman in family entrepreneurship. The objective of the paper was accomplished. This article provided an overview of women in family businesses on the basis of theoretical sources.

As an individual entrepreneur, one can develop entrepreneurial activity, but normally, upon acceleration of economic activity, work cannot be done alone; companions are needed. Family firms and family companies are defined differently by different authors, but what all definitions have in common is the family involvement in business activities. Family entrepreneurs can be both an individual whose entrepreneurial activities have involved family members and a company which was founded by the family. In family entrepreneurship, the members have trust towards each other and they communicate frequently, which will help them to achieve a common goal.

The studies reflect predominantly men as family entrepreneurs in whose business activity the family members, including wife and children participate. A woman's role as a mother has always been given a lot of importance, however, the role of women as an entrepreneur has been focused on only in recent decades. Normally it is expected that when a family is established, the husband as the head of the family will start to feed the family, while the wife is raising the children and takes care of

the home. However, modern women are increasingly not satisfied with this arrangement and want to contribute to society by skillfully combining the role of a mother and a wife along with becoming an entrepreneur, etc.

The analysis of results of different studies revealed that the woman's role as a mother has been studied, but the woman's role as a family entrepreneur has been studied to only a small extent.

Results of the studies have shown that the role of women, as the mother of the family in the family business is important; woman's participation in the family business ensures business stability. Family entrepreneurship has an impact on the aspects of life of the entrepreneur: the household chores, social life, economic life and security of the whole family.

In Estonia a woman's role in business has been marginally investigated and there are no national surveys of participation rates and the role of women in family businesses.

In order for family business activity to grow, the need to fully support the family business, to prioritize the role of women in family businesses and to ensure social guarantees for the wife of the family entrepreneur in Estonia.

The article reflects the results of the analysis conducted in Estonia and the authors feel that it is necessary to create a single database which would consolidate all the research conducted with entrepreneurs so that by analyzing them further in-depth analysis could be performed. In this article, family business is the kind of business activity in which the family of the entrepreneur participates.

The European Union has not yet provided a coherent definition of the family business, but the authors believe more attention should be paid to the family business and the time is not far off when the context is provided for differentiation of family and non-family businesses. Also the role of women in family businesses in ensuring gender equality is being increased and importance is given to the role of the woman as the family entrepreneur.

A woman's role in the family business activities in Estonia should be further explored.

References

1. **Bjursell, C.; Bäckval, L.** (2010). Family Business Women in Media Discourse: Exploring the Business Role and the Mother Role. IFERA, 2010 [WWW] <http://www.lums.lancs.ac.uk/files/familybusiness/20039.pdf> (01.03.2013)
2. **Brazzale, C.** (2007). Family firms and the making of cosmopolitanism: The effacement of gender in the global capitalism of the Italian Nordest. University of California, Los Angeles, 356 pages; AAT 3302517.

3. **Carney, M.** (2005). Corporate governance and competitive advantage in family-controlled firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(3), 249-265.
4. **Chua, J. H.; Chrisman, J. J.; Chang, E. P. C.** (2004). Are Family Firms Born or Made? An Exploratory Investigation. *Family Business Review*, vol XVII, no 1, March 2004. pp 37-54. The online version: [WWW]
<http://fbr.sagepub.com/content/17/1/37> (27.01. 2013)
5. **Chua, J. H.; Chrisman, J. J.; Steier, L. P.; Rau, S. B.** (2012). Sources of heterogeneity in Family Firms: An Introduction. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, November 2012 pp 1103-1113
6. **Cialdini, R. B.** (2005). *Mõjutamise psühholoogia*. Tallinn: Pegasus.
7. **Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan.** (2013) [WWW]
<http://www.unescochair.uns.ac.rs/sr/docs/entrepreneurship2020ActionPlan.pdf> (31.05.2013)
8. **Craig, J., Lindsay, N.** (2002). Incorporating the family dynamic into entrepreneurship process. *Journal of small Business and Enterprise development*. Vol 9, 4, 416- 430.
9. **Crouter, A. C.** (1984). Spillover from family to work: The neglected side of work family interface. *Human Relations*, 37 (6), 425-442.
10. **Dumas, C.** (1989). Understanding of father-daughter and father-son dyads in family-owned businesses. *Family Business Review*, 2 (1), 31-46
11. **Eesti Nõukogude Entsüklopeedia.** (ENE). (1988). 3. köide. Tallinn: Valgus.
12. **Euroopa kohalikele ja regionaalsetele omavalitsustele suunatud harta, millega võetakse kohustus edendada naiste ja meeste võrdõiguslikkust, kasutades selleks oma volitusi ning partnerlussuhteid.** Harta koostajaks ning edendajaks on Euroopa Kohalike ja Regionaalsete Omavalitsuste Nõukogu. Mai, 2006. [WWW] http://www.ccre.org/docs/charte_egalite_et.doc (14.02.2013)
13. **Euroopa Parlamendi ja nõukogu direktiiv 2010/41/EL** 7. juuli 2010 , füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjatena tegutsevate meeste ja naiste võrdse kohtlemise põhimõtte kohaldamise kohta, millega tunnistatakse kehtetuks nõukogu direktiiv 86/613/EMÜ Euroopa Liidu Teataja L 180 , 15/07/2010 Lk 0001 – 0006.
[WWW] <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:180:0001:01:ET:HTML> (01.01.2011)
14. **European Commission.** Brussels (2012), 09.01.2013 COM (2012) 795 final
[WWW] <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2012:0795:FIN:EN:PDF> (01.03.2013)
15. **Filosoofiakunst.** Eesti Kunstiakadeemia tudengite filosoofiliste essee kogumik. (2007). Koostas L. Luks. Tallinn: Eesti Kunstiakadeemia.
16. **Gedajlovic, E.; Carney, M.** (2010). Markets, hierarchies, and families: Toward a transaction cost theory of the family firm. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(6), 1145-1172.
17. **Heinonen, J.; Stenholm, P.** (2011). The Contribution of Women in Family Business. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 62-79.

18. **Hite, L. M.** (2007). Hispanic Women Managers and Professionals: Reflections on Life and Work. *Gender, Work & Organization*. Volume 14, Issue1, page 20-36, Jan 2007
19. **Kaldaru, H.; Tamm, K.** (2003). Sotsiaalne kapital ja jätkusuutlik majandusareng. Eesti Majanduspoliitika teel Euroopa Liitu. XI Teadus- ja koolituskonverentsi ettekande-artiklid kogumik. Kirjastus: Berlin Verlag Arno Spitz GmbH; Mattimar OÜ, 2003. lk 227-236
20. **Kakkonen, M.-L.** (2006). Intuition and entrepreneurs: A phenomenological study of managerial intuition of Finnish family entrepreneurs. *Jyväskylän Yliopisto*, 176 pages; AAT C827354
21. **Kickul, J.; Gundry, L.; Iakovleva, T.** (2007). Women-owned Family Businesses in Transitional Economies *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research: Vol. 27: Iss. 14, Article 3.* [WWW]
<http://digitalknowledge.babson.edu/fer/vol27/iss14/3/> (23.07.2012)
22. **Kirsipuu, M.; Teder, J.** (2006). Sole traders – neglected partners in the Estonian economy. Mets, Tõnis; Andrijevskaja, Janita; Venesaar, Urve; Kolbre, Ene. (Toim. *Entrepreneurship in Estonia: policies, practicec, education and research 2006*, (47-68). Tartu: Tartu University Press.
23. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2007). Füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja pereettevõtluses. Mattimar OÜ,
http://www.emselts.ee/konverentsid/EMS2007/Ettev6tlus_ja_majanduspoliitika/Kirsipuu.pdf (01.01.2013)
24. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2009a). About Family Enterprises Among Active Beef Animal Breeders, IV International Regional Conference “Baltic Business and Socio-Economic Development” in Riga at the University of Latvia, 30.09.-02.10.2008, (7-18.)Berlin: Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag
25. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2009b). Rural entrepreneurship policy in Estonia, Kirjastajad: BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2009 lk 97...116
26. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2010). Strategies for Estonian rural family enterprises. Kirjastajad: BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2010 lk 96-120.
27. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2011). Role of Family Business in Estonian Economy. Kirjastajad: BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2011, lk 50-68
28. **Kirsipuu, M.** (2012). Sustainability of Rural Family Enterprises. Kirjastajad: BMW * Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag GmbH, Mattimar OÜ, 2012, lk 83-104
29. **Koffi, V.** (2008). Integration of the successor in families SME's: Comparative case studies of the strategies of female and male predecessors. *Universite du Quebec a Trois-Rivieres (Canada)*, 507 pages; AAT NR41593.
30. **Kommel, K.** (2012). Indicators of Cultural Industries. *Statistics Estonia.* [WWW]
http://www.looveesti.ee/attachments/141_loomemajanduse%20naitajad%202012.pdf (10.04.2013)
31. **Laas, A.** (2003). Materra – rohkem kui üks projekt. Tourism and the development of female entrepreneurship Põlvamaal. *Ecos-Ouverture project.* Põlva Maavalitsus: Põlva

32. **Lyman, A. R.** (1988). Life in the family circle. *Family Business Review*, 1 (4), 383-398.
33. **Maaelu arengu aruanne.** Eesti Maaülikool Majandus- ja sotsiaalinstituut. 2011 [WWW] http://www.emu.ee/userfiles/Maaelu_arengu_aruanne_2011FINAL.pdf (01.04.2013)
34. **Maeda, H. M.** (2006). Gender and family firm: Strategy and practice in early modern Japan. University of California, Davis, 214 pages, AAT 3230659.
35. **Mandl, I.** (2008). Overview of Family Business Relevant Issues. Austrian Institute for SME Research. No. Contract. 30-CE 0164021/00-51. Final Report. Vienna 2008, [WWW] http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/files/craft/family_business/doc/family_business_study_en.pdf (30.11.2012)
36. **Markides, C. C.** (2000). Õiged valikud. Tartu: Fontese Kirjastus.
37. **Michal, K.** (2011). Naised on ettevõtluses järjest aktiivsemad. E24 majandus. Äri uudised. 11.12.2011 [WWW] <http://www.e24.ee/665176/michal-naised-on-ettevotluses-jarjest-aktiivsemad/> (02.04.2013)
38. **Miettinen, A.; Teder, J.** (2006). Ettevõtlus I. Tallinn: Külim.
39. **Opinion of the Committee of the Regions on the Communication from the Commission to the Council**, The European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions A Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010(2007/C 57/07) THE COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS, Having regard to the Communication from the Commission to the Council, The European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions A Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010, COM(2006) 92 final. Brussels, 6 December 2006. The President of the Committee of the Regions Michel Delebarre CdR 151/2005 fin; Opinion on Women and Poverty in the European Union. (01.01.2010)
40. **Owen, A. J.; Winter, M.** (1991). Research note: The impact of home-based business on family life. *Family Business Review*, 4(4), 425-432
41. **Parada, M. J.; Gimeno, A.; Melin, L.** (2010). Familiness: An Asset or a Liability? IFERA 2010. [WWW] <http://www.lums.lancs.ac.uk/files/familybusiness/20104.pdf> (01.01.2013)
42. **Quo Vadis, Suomalainen Perheyritys?** (2003). Toim. Jarna Heinonen. PK-Instituutti. Turun kauppakorkeakoulu
43. **Rautamäki, H.** (2007). Psühholoogiline omistajuus ja töönilo perheyrittäjydessä. Jyväskylän yliopisto. Yrittäjyuden tutkimus XXIII taloustutkijoiden kesäseminaarissa No. 160/2007 . 37-47.
44. **Regioonide Komitee arvamuse eelnõu.** Direktiiv, milles käsitletakse soolise tasakaalu parandamist börsil noteeritud äriühingute tegevjuhtkonda mittekuluvate juhtorgani liikmete seas ja sellega seotud meetmeid. COM(2012) 614 final – 2012/0299 (COD). (CDR242-2013_00_00_TRA_PAC – ECOS-V-039)
45. **REL 2011:** enamik Eesti inimesi leiab rakendust töötlevas tööstuses, kaubanduses ja hariduses. Eesti Statistika. Pressiteade 25.03.2013 [WWW] http://www.stat.ee/65331?parent_id=32784 (31.03.2013)

46. **Richards, J. W.** (1997). Pisibluifi käsiraamat: Väikeettevõtlus. Tallinn: Tea Kirjastus.
47. **Römer-Paakkanen, T.** (2002). Family entrepreneurship in a retail chain. Academic Dissertation, February 2002. University of Helsinki, Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry, Department of Economics and Managements.
48. **Schumann, J.** (1992). Grundzüge der mikroökonomischen Theorie. Heidelberg
49. **Sepp, J.** (2004) Institutsiooniökonomika. (2004) Tartu Ülikool
50. **Sepp, V.** (2011). Linnaliste keskuste tähtsus Eesti maapiirkondadele: töö- ja õpialasel seosed. Maaelu arengu aruanne. Eesti Maaülikool Majandus- ja sotsiaalinstituut. 2011 [WWW]
http://www.emu.ee/userfiles/Maaelu_arengu_aruanne_2011FINAL.pdf
(01.04.2013)
51. **Sharma, P.; Chrisman, J. J.; Chua, J. H.** (1997). Strategic Management of the Family Business: Past Research and Future Challenges. Family Business Review vol 10, no 1, Spring 1997. pp 1-36. [WWW]
<http://fbr.sagepub.com/content/10/1/1> (27.01.2013)
52. **Sotsiaalmaksuseadus.** Vastu võetud 13.12.2000 RT I 2000, 102, 675, jõustumine 01.01.2001, osaliselt 01.01.2002, muutus RT I, 02.07.2012, 19. [WWW] <https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/102072012019> (01.08.2012)
53. **Stanne, M. B. Johanson, D. W. Johanson, R. T.** (1999). Does competition enhance or inhibit motor performance: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 125
54. **Zernand, M.** (2005). Pereettevõtte tähtsus Eestis tõuseb. - Äripäeva lisa Juhtimine, 1.
55. **Talves, K.; Laas, A.** (2004). Maanaiste ettevõtlus. Uuringu aruanne. Fem INTERREG project. Female entrepreneurs, meeting in the Baltic Sea Region. [WWW] http://www.agri.ee/public/maanaiste_ettevotlus_toopakk_2.pdf
(01.04.2013)
56. **Tõnismäe, E. Gern, H.** (2006). Mentorlus- jagatud areng. Tallinn: Äripäeva Kirjastus.
57. **Verbeke, A.; Kano, L.** (2012). The transaction cost economics theory of the family firm: Family-based human asset specificity and the bifurcation bias. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 36(6), 1183-1205.
58. **Viira, A-H.** (2011). Eesti põllumajanduse arenguetapid viimasel 20 aastal. Maaelu arengu aruanne. Eesti Maaülikool Majandus- ja sotsiaalinstituut. 2011 [WWW] http://www.emu.ee/userfiles/Maaelu_arengu_aruanne_2011FINAL.pdf
(01.04.2013)
59. **Williamson, O.E.** (1993). Transaktionskostenökonomik. Münster, Hamburg
60. **Winter, M., Fitzgerald, M.** (1993). Continuing the family-owned home-based businesses: Evidence from a panel study. Family Business Review, 6(4), 417-426.
61. **Õigekeelsussõnaraamat** (2006). Keelevara. [WWW]
<http://www.keelevara.ee/login/?d=qs2006&q=perekond> (01.04.2013)

PUBLIC ENVIRONMENTAL EXPENDITURES IN ESTONIA DURING 1995-2011

Sirje Pädam¹, Üllas Ehrlich²
Tallinn University of Technology

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to assess the impact of earmarking on central government environment protection expenditure. Since central government spending for the environment relies on earmarked revenues, which is not the case of the local government, it is expected that central government expenditure is to a lesser degree affected by macroeconomic developments. The analysis indicates that this is the case because correlation between GDP change and the change in central government expenditure for environment protection is smaller than that of the local government. It is also found that increasing revenues from earmarked environmental charges have contributed to growing expenditure. However, the analysis also suggests that the main driver of this growth is the expansion in EU funds. Reliance on EU expenditure was further reinforced by changes in earmarking rules in 2008-2009.

Keywords: public environmental expenditure, earmarking, tax shifting

JEL Classification: H59, H23, H72, Q5, Q28, Q58

1. Introduction

In Estonia, there is a direct link between central government funding of environment protection and tax revenues from environmental charges which are earmarked for financing environmental expenditure. Kralik et al. (2012) argue that earmarking environmental tax revenue is more common in Eastern European countries than in Western countries. One reason they bring out is that in a low income setting, earmarking acts as a commitment mechanism to environmental protection expenditure. This is in line with the reasoning of e.g. Brett and Keen (2000) who suggest that earmarking environmental taxes for environment protection purposes prevents politicians from deviating from the original policy proposals.

In a recent article about Estonia Ehrlich and Pädam (2010) found that during the economic crisis, local government spending on environment protection fell, while central government environment protection expenditure increased. This unexpected finding was based on expenditure statistics for the time period 1995–2008 and

¹ Sirje Pädam, PhD, Associate Professor, sirje-ilona.padam@ttu.ee, Tallinn School of Economics and Business Administration, Tallinn University of Technology Akadeemia tee 3, EE-12618 Tallinn, Estonia.

² Üllas Ehrlich, PhD, Professor, ullas.ehrlich@ttu.ee, Tallinn School of Economics and Business Administration, Tallinn University of Technology Akadeemia tee 3, EE-12618 Tallinn, Estonia.

preliminary budget data concerning 2009. In light of the major budget cuts made by the Estonian Government in 2008 and in 2009, the growth in environmental expenditure was even more surprising. The finding indicates that earmarking has allowed a relative independence of environment protection expenditures from macroeconomic developments. The authors discuss two possible reasons to the increase in central government expenditure to the environment. The first explanation suggests that the ecological tax reform, which increased public revenues from environmental charges earmarked for environmental purposes, expanded environmental expenditure. The second reason is that by accession to the EU, additional funding became available for environment protection in the budget period 2007-2013. However, the authors point out that data were not available for quantifying the impact from these two sources. More recent reviews have shown that public expenditures on environment protection increased until 2008 and decreased after that (Kralik et al. 2012 and Environmental Indicators 2013).

The main aim of this paper is to assess the impact of earmarking on central government environment protection expenditure. Since central government expenditure for environment protection relies on earmarked tax revenues while local expenditure does not, it is expected that local government expenditure is more sensitive to macroeconomic developments than central government expenditure. It is also important to make a distinction between the impact on central government expenditure from earmarking, on the one hand, and from the impact of increasing EU funding, on the other hand.

In the next section, we present the developments of central government environmental expenditure during the time period 1995–2011. Special attention is devoted to two periods of economic crisis: 1998–1999 and 2008–2009, as well as to the correlation between the development of GDP and that of central and local government expenditure on environment protection. In order to examine the flow of income from earmarking, the third section describes the framework of national funding of environmental policy in Estonia and presents data on earmarked revenue. Depending on data gaps, the time series is only available for the time period 2005–2011. In section four, we turn to international funding and EU-funding in particular. After that, the fifth section assesses the impact from the two main sources of funding on central government expenditure on environment protection. We carry out the assessment by comparing central government expenditure to the payments of the Environmental Investment Centre (EIC). In the last section we discuss the results and present conclusions. In the appendix of the paper we describe environmental expenditure data.

The paper contributes by adding to the limited academic research devoted to public environmental expenditure. Since environment protection funding to a large degree is a public sector responsibility this field deserves more research. The gap in academic literature was pointed out by Vincent and his co-authors in 2002 (Vincent et al. 2002). Apart from a small number of recently conducted academic research (Wang 2011, Lopez et al. 2011, Ehrlich and Pädam 2010), Vincent's observation still seems to hold ten years later. Rather than academic research, public expenditure

for environment protection has found more attention in reviews carried out by the World Bank or by national authorities. The Public Environmental Expenditure Reviews or PEERs of the World Bank have had a wide variety of purposes including measuring the impacts of a financial crisis, preparing a ministry for budget cuts, tracking funds, and determining future resource requirements (Swanson and Lundethors, 2003). The thorough study produced by Kralik et al. (2012) on Estonia's environmental charges, commissioned by the Ministry of Environment Protection, is an important source in light of the purpose of this paper.

2. Central Government expenditure on environment protection

In the early time period 1995–2000, environmental expenditure was about euro 20 million per year, in constant prices. Between 2001 and 2005 expenditure increased each year. Expenditures increased until 2008. After that expenditure has decreased significantly. In 2011 the volume was back on the 2006 level. In current prices central government budget expenditure on environment protection was euro 68.3 million in 2011. This was almost 1.5 per cent of central government in that year. In comparison to 2010, spending fell significantly in 2011. In 2007–2009 environmental spending exceeded 2 per cent of central government expenditure. The data covering 2010 and 2011 are net of Estonia's sales of environmental pollution permits (Kyoto Assigned Amount Units, AAUs)³. Although the proceeds of the sales of AAUs are allocated to environmental projects including renewable energy and energy efficiency, these expenditures do not show up in data, since investments in energy are not defined as environment protection, unless the purpose is pollution abatement, see Appendix 1. In contrast to the expected increase in public environmental expenditure predicted by preliminary state budget data for 2009 reported by Ehrlich and Pädam (2010), central government expenditure on environment protection has decreased between 2008 and 2009. Figure 1 below shows the old time series and the updated time series.

In order to get a better understanding of how economic shocks, including recent economic crisis have affected Estonia's expenditure on environment protection Table 1 above shows annual percentage change of GDP, central government and local government expenditure on environment protection.

The year-to-year changes in expenditures on environment protection have fluctuated significantly during the time period under study. Significant increases in central and local government expenditure seem to occur in same years, see e.g. 1997, 2001 and 2005. Since major investments in waste handling and waste water management are covered by environment protection expenditures, cyclical development of expenditure is expected. However, correlation between expenditures and GDP could give some indication of sensitivity to macroeconomic development.

³ The original time series shows negative total expenditure on environment protection in 2010 and 2011 since non-financial non-produced assets, i.e. sales of AAUs are recorded as negative values. Sales were euro 180 million in 2010 and euro 185 million in 2011 according to EIC yearbook 2011 (EIC 2012).



Figure 1. Central government expenditure on environment protection, and old time series (constant prices) (authors' calculations, Statistics Estonia, Ministry of Finance).

Table 1. Annual percentage change of GDP, annual percentage change of expenditure on environment protection at central and local government in constant prices

	GDP	Expenditure on environment protection	
		Central Government	Local Government
1996	5.9%	28.1%	-14.1%
1997	11.7%	42.6%	14.0%
1998	6.8%	1.6%	4.6%
1999	-0.3%	-1.6%	-4.4%
2000	9.7%	-13.5%	-6.2%
2001	6.3%	62.5%	58.8%
2002	6.6%	11.7%	5.6%
2003	7.8%	12.1%	-6.4%
2004	6.3%	10.0%	1.2%
2005	8.9%	26.1%	39.6%
2006	10.1%	-12.1%	6.0%
2007	7.5%	45.1%	-7.5%
2008	-4.2%	33.9%	-1.3%
2009	-14.1%	-16.7%	-13.9%
2010	3.3%	-27.2%	-15.0%
2011	8.3%	-17.4%	44.1%

Source: authors' calculations, Statistics Estonia.

There is smaller correlation between GDP and central government expenditure on environment ($r=0.22$) than that of local governments ($r=0.36$). When excluding the last two years, correlation increases. The correlation of central government is 0.27 and that of local government 0.55. This suggests central government expenditure is to lesser degree affected by macroeconomic developments than local government expenditure on environment protection, and that the sensitivity of central government to GDP has decreased over time. According to Cohen's effect size, correlation of central government is small, and that of local government is moderate for the time period in whole and high for the period 1995-2009 (Cohen 1988). When comparing expenditure on environment protection during times of crisis it is possible to detect differences between the developments in 1998–1999 and those in 2008–2009. Central government expenditures on environment protection were affected earlier by declining GDP in 1998-1999 than during the recent financial crisis. When GDP growth has turned positive after crisis, growth of public environment protection expenditures have lagged behind. In 2011 central government expenditures still contracted, while local governments increased their spending on environment protection from euro 34 million in 2010 to euro 49 million, in current prices.

3. National Framework of Financing Environment Protection

Estonia introduced environmental charges in early 1990s. The environmental charges were earmarked from the beginning, and apart from the polluter pays principle, their purpose was to finance environmental policy rather than to earn budget income. As Zyllicz (1999) points out this practice of earmarking taxes for environment protection was adopted by most former centrally planned economies. In Estonia, there are two different types of environmental charges: the natural resource charge and the pollution charge. The pollution charge is levied on emissions of pollutants into the ambient air, water bodies, groundwater or soil, and on waste disposal. The natural resource charge in turn is divided into: mineral resources extraction charge, water abstraction charge, fishing charge and hunting charge and until 2008 the forest stand cutting charge. The forest stand cutting charge was replaced in 2009 by forest revenue consisting of a profit share of the State forest management centre (Kralik et al. 2012).

Environmental charge rates were initially set very low, considering the ability to pay of the population and for promotion of economic development (Keskkonnaülevaade 2009). With growing income levels more attention has been paid to environmental protection. Already in 1996, the pollution charges rates were annually increased by 20 per cent and the natural resource charges by 5–10 per cent. In 2005, the Government decided to introduce an ecological tax reform. The key principle of an ecological tax reform concept is to increase the use of environmental taxes and reduce the burden on employment related taxes (income or social taxes). One of the aims of the Estonian ecological tax reform is also that the overall tax burden (ratio to GDP) would not increase. As a first step personal income tax was lowered from 26 to 24 per cent in 2005. Personal income tax has been lowered further and has stayed on 21 per cent of personal income since 2009. All main environmental charges were

raised substantially in 2006. Water pollution charges, several natural resource charges and most air emission charges were doubled in 2006 and their rates continued to increase by 20 per cent per year. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) pollution charge was raised by about 40 per cent in 2006 and 50 per cent in 2007. In 2008, an excise duty on CO₂ emissions from electricity production was imposed on power plants and replaced the CO₂ pollution charge on power plants. The excise duty was set on the same level as the CO₂ charge. Waste charges were increased by 2 to 4 times in 2006, except semi-coke waste from oil shale that was raised by 20 per cent because of opposition (Kralik et al. 2012).

Between 2005 and 2006 income from environmental charges increased from about euro 51.5 million to about 70.6 million (Kralik et al. 2012). The environmental charges paid into the state budget contributed approximately 1.5 per cent of total tax revenue in 2008. The pollution charge was the most important revenue source, contributing about 1.3 per cent in 2008. In the years prior to the ecological tax reform pollution charges contributed about 1 per cent of total tax revenue. (Keskkonnaülevaade, 2009).

Environmental charges are paid into the state budget. The earmarked environmental are channelled through the Environmental Investment Centre (EIC) for further allocation to environment protection, restoration of natural resources and remedying of environmental damage. A part of the environmental charges are paid into the local government budgets where they are used according to local needs (not necessarily for environmental purposes).

Starting from April 2009 income from electricity excise duty is not earmarked any more. Another change took place in the end of 2009. Until 2009 earmarking had been 100 per cent of charge rates of those designated to the state budget. From 2010 earmarking was applied according to the level of charges in 2009 (Kralik et al. 2012). The changes in 2009 and onwards have reduced the revenues available for environmental protection expenditures. According to the estimates of Kralik et al. (2012) earmarked revenues to the state budget were about euro 55 million in 2009. One year later about 43 euro million was allocated for environment protection to the Environmental Investment Centre (EIC), see Table 2.

Without changes, earmarked revenue would have been about euro 18 million higher in 2009 due to tax income from electricity excise duty received April–December 2009, which is about 4 per cent more earmarked income than in 2008. Earmarked income according to previous rules would have continued to increase also in 2010 and in 2011. Table 3 below shows total income to the state budget from environmental charges and the excise duty on electricity and their earmarking share in 2008–2011.

Table 2. Earmarked state budget income from environmental charges, euro thousand current prices

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Pollution charges	23 559	32 115	41 437	20 080	34 799	26 718	22 904
Electricity excise				20 400	4 290		
Resource charges	6 662	10 865	13 880	15 036	15 287	16 169	16 793
Forest revenue ¹	11 225	13 688	13 705	14 519	578	0	0
Total	41 446	56 668	69 022	70 036	54 953	42 887	39 697

¹ Forest stand cutting 2005-2008, Forest revenue 2009-2011

Sources: Kralik Table 2.1.4, annual reports of the EIC 2010–2011.

Table 3. State budget income from environmental charges and electricity excise duty, euro thousand current prices, 2008–2011

	2008	2009	2010	2011
Environmental charges	70 036	54 953	48 367	56 294
Share of earmarking, %	100%	100%	87%	71%
Electricity excise duty	20 400	21 968	29 311	32 251
Share of earmarking, %	100%	20%	0%	0%

Sources: Authors calculations based on Kralik Table 2.1.4, Ministry of Environment and Statistics Estonia.

Earmarked environmental charges paid into the state budget are used according to the “Environmental Charges Act” (RT I 2005, 67, 512) through the Environmental Investment Centre (EIC). The environmental programme of the EIC is the main national measure for financing environment protection. The fields supported by the grants of the EIC programme include water management, waste management, nature conservation, forestry, fishery and environmental awareness.⁴ Environmental charges have been an important source for financing the renovation of sewage disposal plants, investments into pollution abatement equipment and environmentally adapted waste disposal sites.

As the European Union has established strict fixed-term requirements for the quality of drinking water, purification equipment and sewage systems, most of the proceeds from environmental charges have been used for bringing the water supply into conformity with the requirements. Significant contributions have been made also into fulfilling the requirements established for waste treatment and disposal (Keskkonnaülevaade 2009). In total, about euro 350 million has been paid out under

⁴ <http://www.kik.ee/?op=body&id=105>

the national environmental programme during 2000–2012, which is on average about 27 million per year.

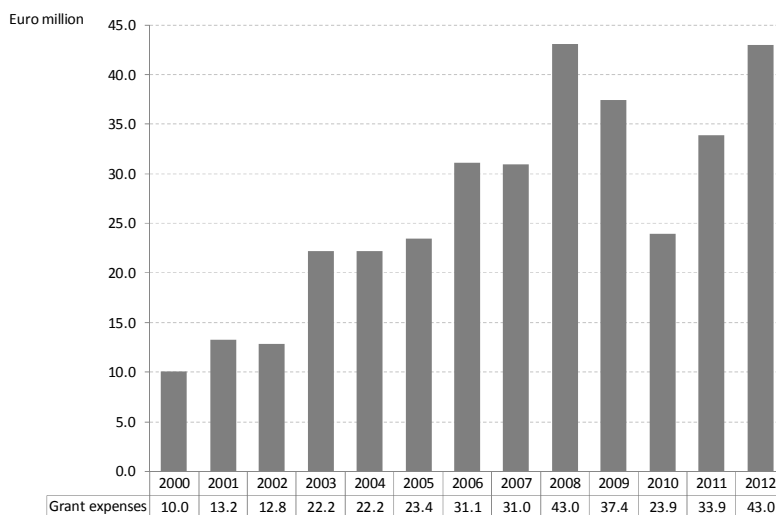


Figure 2. Expenses of grant financed projects, euro million in current prices (EIC yearbooks and annual reports).

Figure 2 shows the annual expenses of grants, i.e. the payments of the EIC of earmarked revenues, during the time period 2000–2012. The development of expenses to the environmental programme is similar to that of central government expenditures for environment protection shown in Figure 1. While central government expenditure totalled euro 68.3 million in 2011 grant payments were euro 33.9 million, which is about half of central government expenditure.⁵ The remaining part of expenditures is mainly financed by European Funds.

4. International funding

There is no comprehensive data set covering foreign aid payments to environment protection in Estonia. For the time period 2001–2003 Statistics Estonia estimated foreign funding to be about 10–30 million annually (Statistikaamet, different years). The EIC functions since 2004 as the implementing agency for the environmental projects funded by the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF) and the Cohesion Fund (CF). Water protection and management is the main field into which EU money has been channelled. During the

⁵ The share of grants in central government spending on environment protection is smaller still, since grant payments also cover expenses into drinking water infrastructure, which are not included in environment protection expenditure, see Appendix.

time period 2005–2008, three quarters were used for water management, including investments in the improvement of the quality of drinking water and organisation of sewage disposal and purification (Keskkonnaülevaade 2009). In 2009–2011 water protection and management received more than half of EU fund support paid by the EIC. Data on total EU funding for environment protection is available from 2004, which is the year Estonia joined the EU, see Figure 3.

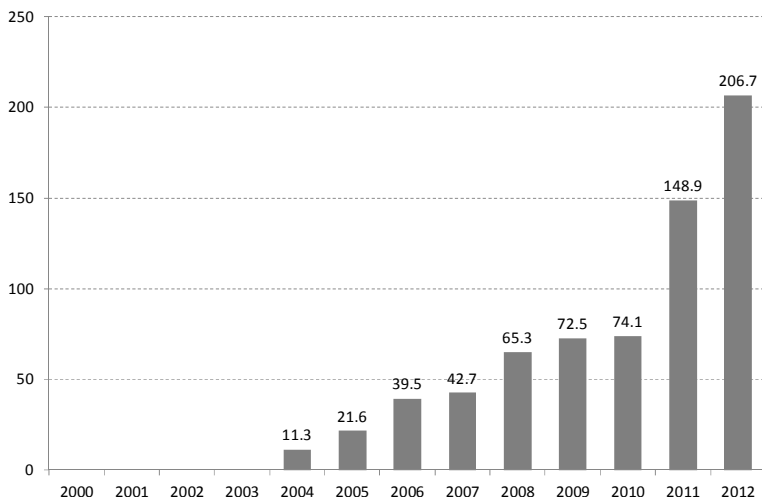


Figure 3. Intermediation of EU funds, euro million in current prices (EIC yearbooks and annual reports).

Intermediation of EU funds has increased substantially during Estonia’s membership in the European Union. On average the EIC has paid out approximately euro 75 million annually from EU funds during the time period 2004–2012. Intermediation has increased each year. The most remarkable increase of euro 75 million took place between 2009 and 2010.

5. Impact from different sources on environmental expenditure

Based on the data presented in the previous sections, it is possible to make an attempt to quantify the impact on public expenditure on environment protection from earmarking on the one hand and from EU funds on the other hand. The prerequisite is that there is a link between the funds paid out by the EIC and central government expenditure on environment protection. Such link exists between EIC grants and central government expenditure. However, there is one difference in definitions. While EIC expenditures include drinking water management, this field is not covered by government expenditure on environment protection.

In order to get an overview of expenditure data, Table 4 shows central government expenditure on environment protection plus central government expenditure on drinking water and EIC data on total grant expenditure and total expenditure of intermediation of EU funds. Unfortunately, the time series is too short to allow for meaningful regression analyses.

Table 4. Central government expenditure on environment protection and drinking water supply, expenses on EIC programmes and EU expenditure, euro million current prices.

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Central government expenditure on env. prot. & drink water	61.3	58.5	94.8	133.6	111.2	81.3	69.1	609.8
EIC expenditure	45.0	70.6	73.7	108.3	110.0	98.0	182.7	688.3
of which								
EIC programme grants	23.4	31.1	31.0	43.0	37.4	23.9	33.9	223.7
EIC intermediation of EU funds	21.6	39.5	42.7	65.3	72.5	74.1	148.9	464.6

Sources: authors calculations, Statistics Estonia (net of AAU sales), year books and annual reports of the EIC 2005–2011.

The table indicates that there is a connection between expenditures of the central government and of those of the EIC, except for the fact that intermediation of EU funds widely exceeds central government expenditure in 2011. Turning to the purpose of the paper, data can still be helpful. In the first year of the ecological tax reform, in 2006, national expenses (EIC grants) increased by about euro 8 million while intermediation of EU funds grew by about euro 18 million. However, growth in central government expenditure did not occur until the year after, in 2007. In that year, only intermediation of EU funds grew. The development between 2007 and 2008 shows an increase both in central government expenditure on environment protection and in both kinds of EIC expenditure. Expenditure from national funds grew by euro 13 million and from EU funds by euro 22 million. This indicates that the increase in EU funding was more important during the first year of the economic crisis than the impact from the ecological tax reform. Overall, the impact from EU funding seems to be a more important driver of central government expenditure on environment protection and drinking water supply than national funds. In total, during the time period 2005–2011, EIC programme grants, which originate from earmarked revenue, have contributed by about 37 per cent of central government expenditure on environment protection and drinking water supply, while EU fund contribution has made up a significantly larger share.

In 2009 the contribution from national funds decreased. As shown previously, this year earmarked charge revenue was not necessarily due to lower levels of resource extraction or pollution levels. Instead earmarked revenue from environmental charges decreased because earmarking rules were changed. It is possible that this

change was an indirect impact of the crisis. Since proceeds from income taxes decreased when unemployment started to grow in 2008, there was a loss in general purpose revenue in the state budget, which necessitated a search for alternative sources of revenue.

The spending of EIC grants decreased further in 2010. This happened in spite of the growth in EU fund payments. In 2011 both national and EU fund expenditure increased. Again the increase of EU fund payments was significantly larger than that of national funds. While EIC expenditure increased, central government expenditure on environment protection fell. There is no readily available explanation for this deviation. One possibility though, is that periodicity in accounts differs between these two expenditures.

6. Conclusions

In the time period 1995–2000, central government environmental expenditure was relatively stable. In constant prices, spending was about euro 20 million per year. Starting in 2001 and until 2005 expenditure increased each year. With the exception of 2006, growth continued until 2008. After 2008 central government expenditure on environment protection has decreased significantly. In 2011 the volume was back on the 2006 level. The period of fast growth of environmental expenditure coincides with the ecological tax reform, which substantially increased revenues from environmental charges earmarked for environment protection. The growth also coincides with availability of increasing EU funding.

The main aim of this paper has been to assess the impact of earmarking on expenditure for environment protection purposes. The analysis of data for the time period 2005–2011 shows that earmarked charges have covered about 37 per cent of central government expenditure on environment protection and drinking water supply. At the same time, the analysis of data suggests that increased access to EU funds has been the main driver of the growth in environment protection expenditure of the central government.

One hypothesis was that earmarking reduces the sensitivity of environmental expenditure to macroeconomic developments. Since central government expenditure on environment protection is partly based on earmarking while local government expenditure is not, correlations between the development of GDP and environmental expenditures were calculated in order to test this hypothesis. The results suggest that for the time period 1996–2011 central government expenditure has been less sensitive to macroeconomic developments than that of local government expenditure on environment protection. The lower sensitivity to macroeconomic developments could imply that earmarking has potential to provide a stable base for financing environment protection expenditure. However, the case of Estonia further suggests that earmarking is not a sufficient condition. There are two reasons for this conclusion. One is that the increase in environmental expenditure during the time period 2006–2008 was to a greater degree influenced by increasing EU funding than

due to higher environmental charges. The second reason is that earmarking rules were changed in 2008-2009, most probably as a result of the economic crisis.

Although increasing revenues from earmarked environmental charges have contributed to growing expenditure, it is the greater availability of EU funds that has been the main driver of the expansion of central government expenditure on environment protection. In some sense earmarking has been substituted by EU funding as a source of spending for environment protection.

References

1. **Brett, C. and Keen, M.** (2000). Political uncertainty and the earmarking of environmental taxes. *Journal of Public Economics*. 2000:75, 315–340. Elsevier.
2. **Cohen, J.** (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum
3. **Ehrlich, Ü. and Pädam, S** (2010). Public environmental expenditures in times of crisis in Estonia, In: Discussion on Estonian Economic Policy 18: Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused 18: Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik 18, Mäelmses, S. and Reiljan, J. (Editors) Berlin: Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag, Mattimar, pp. 38-51.
4. Keskkonnaülevaade (2009). Keskkonnaministeeriumi Info- ja Tehnokeskus. Toimetaja Karmen Kaukver, ISSN (e-trükis) 1736-3519.
5. **Ehrlich, S., Kaarna, R and Rell, M.** (2012). Keskkonnakaitse kulutuste analüüs. SA Poliitikauringute Keskus Praxis. Tallinn 2012.
6. **Lopez, R., Galinato, G.I. and Islam, A.** (2011) Fiscal Spending and the Environment: Theory and Empirics *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 62, 2, pp. 180–198.
7. Ministry of Finance, 2010, Slideshow about state budget of 2010, in Estonian; 2010. aasta riigieelarve tutvustamine, <http://www.fin.ee/index.php?id=366>, accessed on February 20th, 2010.
8. Statistical office of Estonia (2004). *Environment Protection Expenditures 2002*, Yearbook, Tallinn 2004.
9. Statistical office of Estonia (2005). *Environment Protection Expenditures 2003*, Yearbook, Tallinn 2005.
10. **Swanson, Phil and Leiv Lundethors**, (2003). *Public Environmental Expenditure Reviews (PEERS)*. Environment Strategy Papers No 7, World Bank May 2003.
11. **Vincent, Jeffrey**, et al. (2002). Public Environmental Expenditures in Indonesia, *Bulletin of Indonesian Economic Studies* 38(1), 61-74.
12. **Wang, X.** (2011) Exploring Trends, Sources and Causes of Environmental Funding: A Study of Florida Counties. *Journal of Environmental Management*, Vol. 92, pp. 2930–2938.
13. **Zylicz, T.** (1999). Environmental policy in economies in transition, *Scandinavian Journal of Work Environmental Health* 25(3), 72-80.

Appendix. Data on Public Environmental Expenditure

Statistics Estonia produces data on general government revenues and expenditures. The data set is available for the time period 1995–2011 (www.stat.ee) and is classified according to the United Nations Classification of the Functions of Government (COFOG)⁶. One of these government functions is environmental protection and covers activities that reduce negative externalities. The definition of environmental protection set by OECD and Eurostat includes “activities aimed directly at the prevention, reduction and elimination of pollution or any other degradation of the environment resulting from the production processes or from the use of goods and services expenditure on waste management, waste water treatment, pollution control, protection of biodiversity and landscapes, and other environmental protection activities” (Swanson and Lundethors, 2003). Environmental protection is broken down into six sub-categories:

- Waste management
- Wastewater management
- Pollution abatement
- Protection of biodiversity and landscape
- Research and Development (R&D)
- Other environmental protection expenditures

These data make it possible to follow the Central Government and Local Government expenditure on environmental protection and distribution by domain during 17 years.

⁶ <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/cr/registry/regcst.asp?Cl=4>

ROLE OF ENVIRONMENT IN STRENGTHENING COMPETITIVENESS OF CITIES BY EXAMPLE OF EUROPEAN GREEN CAPITALS AND TALLINN

Jüri Ratas¹, Sulev Mäeltsemees²
Tallinn University of Technology

Abstract

Guaranteeing a high-level living environment is one of the most important preconditions to the balanced and sustainable economic and social development of the European Union. Serious environmental problems can be seen in European cities, which are the places where most of the population live and which create the highest number of jobs, economic growth and added value. The level of urbanisation in Europe was 72.7% in 2010 and the UN forecast that it will increase to 82.2% by 2050. The European Green Capital Award was created in 2006 in order to recognise cities that have contributed to the improvement of their quality of life. The cities that have won the award have started using the most innovative and efficient measures for increasing the city's competitiveness, and are an example of how to achieve sustainable development for all cities, not just capitals. The environmental indicators of cities that have won the European Green Capital Award are high. In this article the problem is analysed using the example of Tallinn, the capital of Estonia, which strives for a place among cities with the highest quality of life in Europe. The objective of this article is to analyse the areas of the city's environmental activities and environmental organisation in the context of increasing competitiveness. The original database used by the author in this article consists of the responses given by the governments of the cities who have already been awarded the title of European Green Capital when asked to describe the impact that applying for and achieving the title had on their cities.

Keywords: city environment, competitiveness, sustainable development, European Green Capital (EGC), Tallinn

JEL Classification: R11, R12, R58, F64, H70

Introduction

Guaranteeing a high-level living environment is a precondition to the balanced and sustainable economic and social development of the European Union, in which cities have an important role to play. Urbanisation is one of the most fundamental characteristics of today's Europe, which has considerably changed the living environment (Antrop; 2004). This is why the development of cities is the main focus

¹ Jüri Ratat, MA, Vice-President of the Estonian Parliament, Riigikogu, Lossi plats 1a Tallinn 15165, jyri.ratas@riigikogu.ee

² Sulev Mäeltsemees, PdH, professor, Tallinn University of Technology, Dean of Faculty of Social Sciences, Ehitajate tee 5, Tallinn 12618 sulev.maeltsamees@ttu.ee

of spatial policies. More than 70% of European citizens live in cities today. Cities are not only places of residence for their population, but also the engines of economic activity that provide a large proportion (up to 85%) of the gross national product (United Nations; 2009). Jobs, economic growth and added value are mostly created in cities. A city is a human community with mental, physical and associated infrastructure. Cities are characterised by close social, economic and environmental connections and functional networks that are only characteristic of this habitat. European citizens are increasingly interested in the state of the environment and more aware of the impact the environment has on our quality of life and that of future generations.

The city's initiatives that have a significant impact on the improvement of the living environment need greater recognition and acknowledgement, and there should be more motivation for such efforts. This is why Tallinn, on the initiative of the author of this article, made the proposal to establish the European Green Capital (EGC) Award in 2006, to value the environmental protection activities of cities and recognise efforts made in the creation of a harmonious urban environment (Measuring urban...; 2010). This was based on the generally recognised opinion that the determined improvement of the environmental condition of cities and towns provides an important foundation for their competitiveness, which is increasingly important in today's world, which keeps integrating and becoming more open.

The author finds that the use of such living environment indicators as cleanliness of water and air, size of green areas, noise level etc. in the assessment of the competitiveness of the cities has so far been modest. At the same time, the number of people who consider these when deciding where to live is increasing. This means that a very good living environment gives cities an advantage in the recruitment of qualified labour. The purpose of this article is to analyse the environmental activities and environmental organisation of cities in the context of improving competitiveness and to develop proposals for the enhancement of the relevant competitiveness of Tallinn.

The data of the EGC cities originates from several studies published by the European Commission and the website (European Green Capital: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/index_en.htm). The detailed study compiled by the Sustainable Estonia Institute (SEI) in 2013, which describes and compares the environmental indicators of five cities that have won the award in 12 areas of activity, is also used (Overview...; 2013). The answers given by the governments of EGCs to the author's questions about the impact of the Green Capital on their cities have also been used. Several manuscripts that discuss the development plans and numeric indicators of Tallinn have also been used. These data have been analysed and compared with the data of existing EGCs, and the environmental status of Tallinn – which is striving to become a European Green Capital – is assessed on the basis of these.

Urban environment and supporting provisions

The urban development of Europe is increasingly influenced by the continuation of globalisation, the transfer to an economy that is knowledge-based and driven by technological development, the increase in the mobility of production factors, demographic changes, European integration and concentration of environmental problems (Hallika; 2007). In this day and age, sustainable development is only guaranteed in the conditions of an open economy and cultural life. However, this also means that cities must operate in an increasingly more competitive environment at both the national and international levels.

A city is a constantly developing system whose behaviour can be predicted and whose development can essentially be guided (Levald, Sander; 2005). The development of cities proceeds from development and other plans. Urban planning requires an awareness of the different aspects of a city's growth, and implementation of economic, social and economically sustainable development (Jauhiainen; 2005). The Charter prepared at the Torremolinos Conference in 1983 emphasised the importance of spatial planning that is democratic, coordinates and integrates the development plans of various walks of life and represents functional and long-term planning of spatial development (European regional...; 1983).

The general goals of urban development must guarantee a living environment that meets everyone's basic needs, i.e. that it is fit for life, sustainable, healthy and safe. It is important to satisfy the social, cultural and economic needs of citizens with the lowest possible energy and material consumption, rational use of land and the smallest possible damage to the environment. One of the conceptual bases of a plan is sustainable use and development of the valuable elements of the city structure for the achievement of social balance and diversity in the city as a whole as well as in single regions/districts of it, which often guarantee the fast and efficient development of the city as a whole (Mäeltsemees, Lõhmus; 2006). It is therefore important to creatively combine the natural environment with the man-made one to support the development of a region (Magnaghi; 1998).

Many concepts that were developed and adopted in the 1990s and in the early 21st century have strongly supported the improvement of the urban environment. Representatives of European local authorities assembled in Aalborg in 1994 to continue developing the positions of the World Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 and to sign the Aalborg Charter. This became the basis for the preparation of the sustainable development plans of many European cities and towns (Aalborg Charter; 1994). In 1995 Estonia adopted its Sustainable Development Act, which at the time was the second in the world after Costa Rica. It emphasised development where the needs of future generations are taken as a priority in considering the long-term nature conservation requirements of the country. Such an approach is the practical output of the global nature conservation strategy and proceeds from the postulate that economic growth must consider the limits set by nature.

The Sixth Environment Action Programme of the European Union set goals in four priority areas: climate change; nature and biodiversity; environment, health and quality of life; and natural resources and waste (6th EU Environment...; 2001). This programme also highlighted several aspects in whose resolution cities and towns play a decisive role. Guaranteeing air quality, developing sustainable city transport, reducing the volume of traffic and preventing traffic jams, reducing general background noise, guaranteeing a quality living environment in built-up areas, guaranteeing order and maintenance, reducing greenhouse gases, reducing the negative manifestations of urban sprawl, reducing the generation of waste and treating and cleaning waste water are just some of the issues that cities and towns need to resolve.

In 2006 the European Parliament adopted a resolution about a thematic strategy concerning the urban environment (P6_TA(2006)0367) which is aimed at making a contribution to general environmental protection in European cities and towns by reducing bureaucracy and increasing the efficiency of environmental policy implementation and encouraging long-term environmental planning (European Parliament Resolution...; 2006). More green areas must be designed in urban planning and the expansion of cities, and enough natural areas should be left untouched when new city districts are built to preserve people's immediate relationship with nature.

In 2004/2005 the Union of Baltic Cities carried out a survey to clarify the situation and trends in the sustainable development of cities (Baltic Cities...; 2005). The indicators were selected from the main topics of the union's Agenda 21 Action Programme, which tie in with the thematic strategy on the urban development of the European Commission as part of the Sixth Environment Action Plan of the European Union: capable management; good living environment and nature conservation; social integration and health; sustainable use of energy and resources; and economy and transport that guarantee all of this. The introduction and implementation of environmental management systems in cities and towns must become more efficient. One of the main ways of improving the situation highlighted in the strategy on urban development is the preparation of an integrated environmental management system that covers the entire city.

The sustainable development of cities is also approached in the Leipzig Charter, which was adopted in 2007 and which provides new impetus to design sustainable cities using the integrated urban development policy, where economic development, social balance and cohesion and consideration of environmental aspects must find equal places in urban development. Cooperation between political and administrative units of different levels and the private sector is very important (Leipzig Charter; 2007)

The development of cities must also proceed from the EU Strategy 2020, which is planned as a follow-up to the Lisbon Strategy, whose objective was to make the EU the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economic area by 2020 whilst increasing social cohesion and guaranteeing development that does not harm the

environment. The Europe 2020 strategy is the new European competitiveness strategy, which should allow the EU to recover from the crisis and move towards a knowledge-based and environmentally sustainable economy, resolve many environmental and social inequality problems, achieve economic growth and create new jobs. The role of information and communication technology is becoming increasingly important in this process (The Global...; 2010). Estonia is also striving to become a state with a cohesive and user-friendly spatial structure and diverse living environment that is well connected to the rest of the world by the 2030s (National Spatial Plan...; 2012).

The economic indicators of cities are primarily used to assess the competitiveness of cities (Mayerhofer; 2005); the satisfaction of residents with their living environment is also important. The development level of infrastructure is also important, as city residents spend more and more time in urban space. The economy can only be competitive if the level of welfare of city residents is high and their standard of living is increasing constantly. In addition to the economic and social areas, the importance of the green sphere is also increasing constantly and has become an inseparable part of sustainable competitiveness.

Status and laureates of European Green Capital Award

The main goal of the European Green Capital status is to invite all European cities, towns and people to strive for a better and more sustainable environment every day. Using the urban environment also means protecting it, consistently improving its condition, where environmental protection becomes an inseparable part of the use of the environment (The Expert Panel's Evaluation Work...; 2009). This was the basis of the development of the proposal on the European Green Capital Award in Tallinn.

The proposal (memorandum) on the Green Capital Award, which had been signed by the mayors of European towns and cities, was presented to the European Commission in spring 2006 (Memorandum...; 2006), where it was approved. The European Green Capital Award was established in Brussels in 2008. The declaration outlines the main idea: to encourage towns and cities to raise their level of environmental protection and improve their environmental condition (Declaration...; 2008). Three goals were added to this: to reward towns and cities that manage to consistently achieve high environmental goals; to motivate towns and cities to set ambitious goals for additional improvement of their environmental condition and for sustainable development; and to set an example that promotes the spread of best practice to other European towns and cities (Expert Panel; 2010).

All towns and cities in the European Union, the European Economic Area and European Union candidates that have a population of at least 200,000 are eligible for the award (Eligibility Check; 2012). The application submitted by the city must contain information about several environmental indicators. The submitted data are assessed by internationally recognised experts.

Two cities that could be named the first European Green Capitals were selected in 2008. The cities were evaluated on the basis of 10 environmental indicators (The Expert Panel's...; 2009). The requirements for each environmental indicator considered in the selection of the EGC were relatively high. The number of evaluated areas of activity has since increased to 12. They are: role of the region in global climate change; local transport; green areas open to the general public, incl. sustainable use of land; natural diversity and biodiversity; local air quality and noise levels; generation and management of waste; water consumption; waste water treatment; eco-innovation and sustainable employment; and the environmental management and energy efficiency of the local authority (European Green Capital).

The European Green Capital Award is given to a town or city that has started using the most innovative and efficient measures and that will continue to implement such measures in future, and is an example to other towns and cities in the achievement of sustainable urban development (Expert Panel; 2010). A city that is worthy of the award increases its competitiveness among other cities and becomes more attractive to investors, tourists, urban designers and representatives of other walks of life. This also means new impetus to promote economic development in the city, not to mention the environment becoming more human-friendly.

The first EGC Award was given simultaneously to two cities: Stockholm for 2010 and Hamburg for 2011. The city that has made it to the final round more times than any other is Bristol, which is in the running for the EGC Award 2015 – the third time it has reached the finals (Table 1).

Table 1. Finalists and winners of European Green Capital Award 2010-2014

Selected for Award in:	Held Award in:	Winning city	All finalists
2009	2010	Stockholm (Sweden) 209 km ² ; population 881,200	Amsterdam, Bristol, Freiburg, Hamburg,
	2011	Hamburg (Germany) 755 km ² , population 1.8 million	Copenhagen, Munster, Oslo, Stockholm
2010	2012	Vitoria-Gasteiz (Spain) 277 km ² ; population 240,000	Barcelona, Malmö, Nantes, Nuremberg,
	2013	Nantes (France) 65 km ² ; population 600,000	Reykjavik, Vitoria-Gasteiz
2012	2014	Copenhagen (Denmark) 74 km ² ; population 541,989	Bristol, Frankfurt, Copenhagen
2013	2015	*Bristol (UK) 110 km ² ; 428,100 population	Bristol, Brussels, Glasgow, Ljubljana

* not considered in this article

The cities that have won the EGC Award differ from each other in area, population size and density and location, and their economic and environmental problems are also different. The environmental indicators of the cities also vary on a large scale

(Table 2). One of the most common indicators used is urban landscaping, which differs greatly in cities in terms of area, structure and use. For example, gardens actively used by the general public cover 32.67% (1091 ha) of Vitoria-Gasteiz. The best indicator for comparing cities is the size of green areas per person, which in EGC cities ranged from 28-86 m². Living distance from a green area also varied (Table 2). The purpose of green areas is to guarantee the usability of socially and ecologically sufficient, aesthetic, accessible and recreational locations in the city (Levald; 2001). Traditions in the field of environmental protection and research are also important. For example, the monograph *Stockholms Natur* by Sernander (Uppsala 1926) was published in Stockholm almost 90 years ago and was the first to indicate ambient air pollution zones in the city. Although all areas carried equal weight in evaluation, the most remarkable achievements of each candidate were also highlighted.

The extensive programme for improving quality of life in the city was considered remarkable in the case of **Stockholm (2010)**. The most important activity was the traffic or congestion charge introduced in 2006, which reduced the volume of traffic and emissions in the city centre by 10-15% (Stockholm...; 2010). The goal established by the city is also worth mentioning: all public transport will be using non-fossil fuels by 2050 (Measuring urban sustainability; 2010).

In the case of **Hamburg (2011)** it was the quality of air that attracted attention – its improvement in 2006 compared to 1990 indicates that CO₂ emissions decreased by 25% per person. The goal Hamburg has set itself is to reduce CO₂ emissions by 40% by 2020 and by 80% by 2050 (Measuring urban sustainability; 2010). The establishing of an energy-efficient rate of return for public buildings should also be mentioned here: for example the 200,000 energy saving lamps that were installed in 400 public buildings are helping to save 4.3 million euros per year (Hamburg...; 2011). Also attractive was the travelling exhibition ‘Trains of Ideas’, which was organised by Hamburg and visited 18 cities in 13 countries, being seen by 71,000 people. The exhibition showcased visions and projects designed to make European cities more environmentally friendly.

The large proportion of green areas was seen as a significant advantage of **Vitoria-Gasteiz (2012)**. It is also important that its green areas connect the mountains to the city, thereby increasing the city’s biodiversity and making it more attractive to tourists. The city has gone to great effort to reduce its water consumption (Vitoria-Gasteiz...; 2012).

Nantes (2013), where the entire population lives within 300 metres of a green area, has established a sustainable transport policy. The city was the first in France to restore tram transport that had previously been abandoned (Nantes...; 2012). Its progressive transport policy has helped reduce air pollution. The city hopes to cut CO₂ emissions by a quarter by 2020.

Copenhagen (2014) stands out for its promotion of bicycle transport. 36% of the city’s population use bicycles as a means of transport and the city aims to raise this

to 50% by 2015. Its goal of becoming a carbon-neutral city by 2015 is also important (European Green Capital. Winning Cities).

Table 2. Environmental indicators of three EGC Award winners and Tallinn*

EGC	Reduction in CO ₂ emissions per person, % 1990-2005	Length of cycle paths		% of population who live <300 m from public transport stop	% of population affected by noise level during day Lden>55	Waste generation: kg/person/year	Water consumption l/person/day	Population density people/km ²	Public green areas	
		km	km/km ²						m ² /person	% of population who live <300 m from open green area
Stockholm	-26	760	3,64	90	35	409	200	4 141	86	90
Hamburg	-25	1700	2,25	99	18	479	110	2 331	39	89
Copenhagen	-26	349	3,95	98	36	469	117	5 708	28	79
Tallinn**		210	1,32		67	276	94	2675		

* (Measuring urban sustainability; 2010 and indicators of Tallinn); ** data are being specified

This means that the winning cities have managed to achieve high environmental goals. They have set themselves ambitious objectives and developed innovative solutions to improve their environmental indicators and quality of life even further. These cities proceed from the admission that the only way to be sustainable is to achieve a balance between environmental protection, social quality of life and economy.

EGC laureates themselves appreciate the title highly, as it contributes to the city's development, particularly in improving the environment and raising environmental awareness among the people. It also increased the attention the cities gained on the international scene. The role of the European Commission in promoting the title is considered important in the achievement of international recognition. Among the cities that have been EGCs to date, the author has received feedback from Hamburg (2012) and Copenhagen, which will bear the title in 2014 and which considers the development of a green and sustainable city with high standards of living very important. The informative feedback from Hamburg, which has been considered a city with a good quality of life and high environmental standards for a long time, stated that being the EGC in 2012 was the factor that gave Hamburg the reputation of an internationally recognised green city with innovative environmental technology. As a growing port and industrial town, Hamburg has managed to demonstrate that an environmentally friendly way of living and economic development can go hand in hand by launching several innovative solutions. One of them is the so-called energy hill: a former toxic waste repository where solar, wind and bioenergy are now produced. Many international delegations visited Hamburg,

which gave the city the image of an attractive tourist destination, made it more attractive to business investors and increased the inflow of highly qualified labour.

The environment of Tallinn and chances to win the EGC Award

Every city has its strengths in environmental protection, but it is important to have a complex vision of the city's situation, which helps create a better and more economical living environment and thereby improve the city's competitiveness. The opinion that has prevailed in Estonia for decades is that guaranteeing the quality of the environment in the living and economic space of a unifying Europe is largely the result of long-term urban development, which also determines both economic and social development.

Tallinn (area 159.1 km², population 425,249 as at 1 April 2013)) is situated by the Baltic Sea in a coastal area with highly diverse nature (the city's coastline being 64 km long). The importance of Tallinn, its capital, in the life of the country is significant, as *ca.* 30% of the total population live here. Tallinn has been known as a port city and important economic centre for a long time. It is important for every city government to guarantee that its citizens receive all essential services (water supply, sewerage and public transport) irrespective of whether they are provided by the city itself or outsourced (Mäeltsees et al.; 2012).

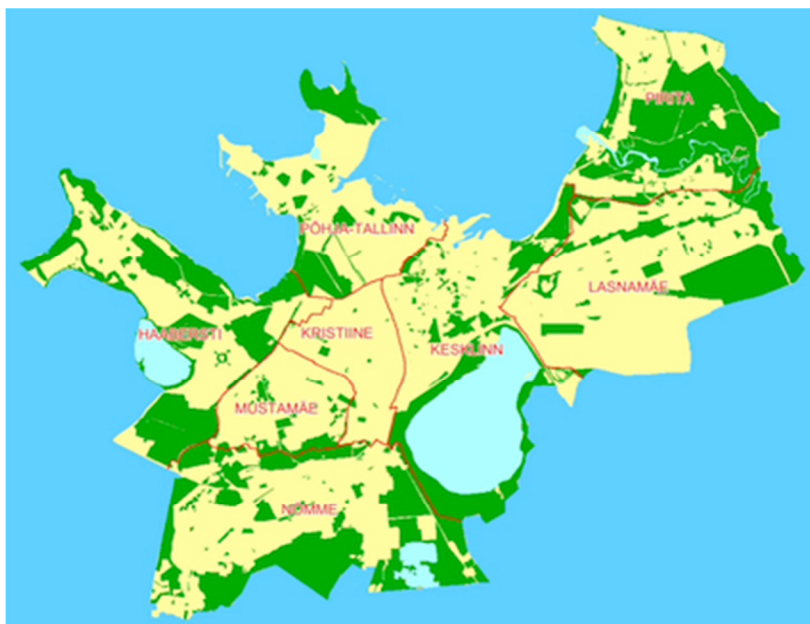


Figure 1. Urban space of Tallinn and location of green areas (Tallinn Environment Department).

Tallinn, as a city that contributes strongly to the environment, has nominated itself for the European Green Capital Award by 2018, which means that its application must be submitted in 2015. Winning the title is set as a goal in the Tallinn Environmental Strategy up to 2030 as well as in the Tallinn Environmental Protection Development Plan 2013-2018, which is currently being prepared in the Tallinn Environment Department. In it the city has presented the action plan of work and research to be carried out in eleven different areas and the financial plan for achieving the title of European Green Capital (Tallinn Environmental Protection...; 2013). The study entitled 'Overview of Environmental Indicators of European Green Capital Award Winners 2010-2014' (2013), which was prepared by the Sustainable Estonia Institute (SEI) and compares the indicators of the winning cities with those of Tallinn, is proving to be of great help in applying for the award.

Land is the main resource of urban space. This means that sustainable land use is the primary area of activity. Land use in Tallinn has changed considerably in the last few decades. New residential areas have been built in the city and new residential buildings have been added to older districts. Spatial planning is one of the main and most comprehensive tools of environmental management, which hereby means organising the expedient and sustainable use of housing in the best possible manner. The preconditions for this include public awareness, political wisdom and will, sufficient data and science-based environmental monitoring. Planning itself is a process based on social agreement that is designed to guarantee development and competitiveness, environmental protection and improvement of the quality of life proceeding from local conditions and traditions. The main problem in the current urban design of Tallinn is that too little space is left for public use.

Transport management, urban landscaping, access to green areas and cohesion are all dependent on the city's spatial planning. Green areas comprise 10-40% of EGCs. Green areas in Tallinn cover 43.3 km². 27.2% of the city's area is covered with greenery (Strategy Tallinn 2030; 2010). In Tallinn it is *ca.* 100 m² per person (Tallinn in Numbers...; 2012). Green areas in the city are investments in the future. They are necessary not only for aesthetic considerations or the preservation of biodiversity, but also because they act as air filters and reduce noise pollution. Problems in Tallinn's greenery are not so much caused by a lack of green areas, but their uneven distribution (Figure 1).

An important role is played by the city's green network, whose task is to mitigate the impact created by people and to ensure that existing ecosystems continue to function, and it also maintains the environmental processes that are essential for people and provides them with recreation opportunities close to home (Thematic Plan Green Areas in Tallinn...; 2007). In order to make Tallinn more attractive to its citizens and visitors/tourists, it is necessary to guarantee the preservation of coastal areas and environmentally and culturally valuable districts, and keep green areas in good order. Tourism has already become one of the most important economic sectors of Tallinn and produces a remarkable share of the city's and state's export and employment in the service sector (Strategy Tallinn 2030).

Highly diverse nature is one of the strengths of Tallinn. There are three landscape protection areas, two nature conservation areas, 50 parks, 117 single natural objects and five beaches in the city. There are also Natura 2000 sites (Tallinn in Numbers 2012; 2012). All of this creates relatively good opportunities for the performance of the main functions of modern nature conservation in the urban environment, which are also supported by research into urban biota (Uustal et al.; 2010; Kuldna; 2011 and others). Unfortunately there is no citywide database of urban biotopes, plant and animal species with a map application which would give provide source material for further urban planning.

Urban transport affects the city as a whole, incl. the mobility of people, goods and services and the state of the environment. The modes of travel used by people (light traffic, cars and public transport) are relatively different (Jüssi et al.; 2010). Increasing the proportion of light traffic and public transport is an important aspect of improving the environment. Measures that support public transport have been taken in Tallinn: all residents of the city have been able to use buses, trams and trolleybuses free since 1 January 2013 and there are special lanes and a priority system for public transport. The first months of free public transport have considerably reduced the use of cars.

The development of street infrastructure has unfortunately been based on the needs of motor vehicle drivers whilst pedestrians, cyclists and their safety have been regarded as of secondary importance (Strategy Tallinn 2030; 2010). The city must start paying more attention to the existence and condition of pavements.

The quality of city air depends mainly on road transport. The main problem with city air is the increased content of fine particle pollution at larger intersections. Increased noise levels have become a factor that affect people's health on the streets in many city districts, especially in the vicinity of the railway and main roads (Strategy Tallinn 2030; 2010). The number of cars in Tallinn is large. At present there are 350 cars per 1000 residents (Facts about Tallinn 2012; 2013). As the city is located by the sea, there are no instances where air quality limits have been considerably exceeded. The air in Tallinn has been assessed as clean, but the concentration of pollutants generated by cars is still too high at major junctions. The level of noise is also directly dependent on traffic. The general noise background in Tallinn can be reduced by offering suitable alternatives to car users. Quiet and noisy areas are mapped in EGCs.

The energy sector has a significant impact on the quality of city air. Tallinn has joined the Covenant of Mayors 2007, which means that it is obliged to guarantee higher energy efficiency and reduce greenhouse gas (CO₂) emissions. The action plan of the sustainable energy economy helps perform this obligation. The majority of energy savings and reductions in CO₂ emissions depend on the activities of companies and households located in and close to the city, which is something that the city needs to deal with in greater depth.

A lot of attention is paid to the quality of the water consumed in cities and reducing the quantity of water used. Water infrastructure is constantly being improved and pipes that are old and at risk of leaking have been changed. Tallinn has managed to reduce water losses due to leaks to 19%. The consumption achieved by EGCs today is a little over 100 l/person/day. Water consumption in Tallinn has decreased considerably in recent years (from 101 l/person/day in 2007 to 94 l/person/day in 2012). The catchment area-based organisation of water economy and creation of sanitary protection zones for surface water intakes in Estonia create a good basis for considering landscape-based preconditions and needs in further plans, designs and organisation of work. 99.8% of the city's residents have joined the public sewerage network (Yearbook...; 2012). The capacity of the waste water treatment plant of Tallinn is high, which has considerably improved the environmental condition of Tallinn Bay. As a result of the innovative activities of the water company AS Tallinna Vesi, which is co-owned by the city, Tallinn was deleted from the least of the main sources of pollution of the Baltic Sea in 2006. A biological treatment plant that is entirely unique in the Baltic States and Eastern Europe in terms of its complexity and the amount of investments required was built in 2011. The plant allows for the considerable reduction of the quantities of nitrogen disposed of in the Gulf of Finland (the pollution load decreasing by 37% in 2012). Storm water creates problems in all cities. A storm water tax has been established in Stockholm. Tallinn has not yet built a complete storm water drainage system.

Waste and treatment of waste comprise another important field in cities. Waste generation in Tallinn has decreased since 1997 and the quantity of waste is less than 300 kg per resident. The closest goal is to recycle at least 50% of household waste. The waste generated in Tallinn is processed and the remaining waste is deposited at Tallinn Recycling Centre, which was opened in Jõelähtme municipality in 2003 and meets all environmental requirements. A waste incineration plant will open in Iru in 2013 and most pre-sorted household waste will be sent there.

Work in the areas of eco-innovation and sustainable employment must become considerably more efficient. Tallinn has a few examples of eco-innovation: using your mobile phone to pay for parking, using an audio guide, free Wi-Fi etc. Cities cannot achieve success if they try to find solutions on their own – they must cooperate with various groups. For example, 1500 companies advise Hamburg on its eco-partnership programme.

Public participation is an extremely important lever in the promotion of environmental protection and development processes. Citizens as well as social and private organisations are given the opportunity to express their opinions about the city's policy goals or decisions that concern planned activities, discuss their opinions with others and be involved in decision-making. Active public participation in the various development processes of cities has many benefits for the public sector, developers, city leaders and the city as a whole. It facilitates finding solutions, promotes financing, saves time, reduces conflicts, educates, informs in consideration of public interests and generates civil liability.

The environmental management of a city as a complex entity must be competent and stable, and it should be strategically aimed into the more distant future in consideration of present needs and opportunities. This is a postulate that arises from the logic of urban development, which is also confirmed by the history of Tallinn, which dates back a thousand years. Well-functioning environmental management shapes interactive relationships between various sectors in and outside the city, creates readiness for investments, provides development impetus and guarantees the sustainability of development. It requires competent organisation and management of urban space as well as broad-based, horizontal and vertical cooperation. As the districts of Tallinn differ from one another in terms of population, identity and socioeconomic conditions, the best way to perform certain tasks is via city districts (Lõhmus; 2008). Progressive management calls for the monitoring of environmental results and regular environmental auditing.

Well-functioning environmental management must be independent of political trends. Only then is it possible to design a constantly economical, diverse and healthy urban environment. Tallinn has learnt several lessons in environmental management. The Environment Department of Tallinn City Government was liquidated more than ten years ago. The department was re-established in 2005 and it is now the main link in the city's environmental management. The Municipal Engineering Services Department deals with several sectors of environmental management (water supply, waste water treatment, streets and roads etc.). The department also has an environmental certificate.

Tallinn does not have a single environmental management concept. This is why various areas of activity have been moved from one structural unit to another without reason. The relevant concept must be developed as soon as possible. It is also necessary to involve various specialists and researchers in resolving the city's problems on a broader scale.

The principle of sustainable development has been emphasised with increasing frequency since the last quarter of the 20th century – economic, social and environmental issues can only be resolved in combination, considering their confluence. The understanding is that environmental protection is an inseparable part of environmental use and finding solutions to environmental problems also promotes economic and social development. In the spatial scope it mainly applies to cities.

Modern environmental policy is aimed at recognising and using market forces, incl. economic restructuring, transformation of social expenses caused by the use of resources and pollution to internal expenses and inclusion of all external expenses in the prices of services (Klarer et al.; 1999). Price and profit considerations are necessary and often determining factors. They cannot and must not be turned into fetishes, because there are other important criteria that concern environmental protection and social issues which cannot be placed in an economic dimension or where doing so is very difficult (Hanley et al.; 2001).

In order to improve its international competitiveness Tallinn needs to expand its planning and functional cooperation with neighbouring local authorities to guarantee that the region's advantages, incl. the international cooperation networks operating in the area, are used to the maximum. Urban space and its hinterland are the main location of enterprise. Economic and environmental indicators and their changeability are closely related and directly dependent on one another. Environmental conditions (air, water, raw materials, environmental condition, logistics etc.) are one of the main forms of input in economic activities. A set of modern policy measures in the form of economic levers approaches both economic and environmental goals. Economic levers are the factors that make it possible to transform environmental expenses into internal ones.

Summary

Guaranteeing a high-level living environment is a precondition to the balanced and sustainable economic and social development of the European Union, where cities have an increasingly important role to play. The cities that have won the EGC Award differ from each other in area; population size and density; and location, which means that their economic and environmental problems are somewhat different. These cities also have a different status in the lives of their countries. In the case of Tallinn, it should be borne in mind that a third of the country's population live here and that the city also produces more than half the country's GDP. In order to enhance their international competitiveness, however, cities have to cooperate with neighbouring areas to guarantee that the region is better used.

The development of cities with a good quality of life depends on well-thought-out planning of living space, which contains settlement systems, housing economy and nature conservation. Improving the urban environment calls for the existence of abundant green areas in cities, preferential development of green public transport, improving the quality of air and water and reducing waste and noise. There are many areas of activity that affect the environment, and the quality of the environment in the city can be improved when they are developed together. Environmental management is also important. All of this improves the competitiveness of cities. In order to improve the quality of urban space it is necessary for cities to communicate with one another and to exchange information, as this will also lead to the development of new initiatives and assumption of new obligations for the protection of the environment and the promotion of the city's development as a whole.

When a city wins the European Green Capital Award, this is an important signal – a form of recognition and advertisement on the international scene which suggests that the city is pleasant, free of pollution and hospitable. Such recognition certainly improves the city's competitiveness, because the general assumption is that the more attractive the living space, the greater its economic success.

References

1. **Aalborg Charter.** Charter of European Cities & Towns Towards Sustainability. 1994. Approved by the participants at the European Conference and Sustainable Cities & Towns. in Aalborg, Denmark on 27 May 1994). ec.europa.eu/environment/urban/pdf/aalborg_charter.pdf (02.06.2013)
2. Aastaraamat 2012 /Yearbook 2012/. Tallinn Environment Department 2012.
3. **Antrop, M.** 2004. Landscape change and the urbanisation process in Europe. *Landscape and urban planning*, 40:21-34
4. Baltic Cities sustainable development 2004/2005. 2005. Union of the Baltic Cities, Commission Environment Secretariat. www.ubc.net/commissions/environment.html (12.04.2013)
5. Covenant of Mayors. Committed to Local Sustainable Energy. 2007. http://www.eumayors.eu/IMG/pdf/covenantofmayors_text_en.pdf (01.06.2013)
6. Declaration establishing the European Green Capital Award. 2008. <http://www.caib.es/sacmicrofront/archivopub.do?ctrl=NTCS016144Z13269&id=32697>
7. Eligibility Check. 2012. <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/applying-for-the-award/eligibility-check/index.html> (06.04. 2013)
8. European Communities 6th EU Environment Action Programme 2001-2010. 2001
9. European Green Capital. Winning Cities. <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/winning-cities/index.html> (14.04.2012).
10. European Parliament resolution on the thematic strategy on the urban environment. 2006. Texts adopted on 26 September 2006 – Strasbourg. <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2006-0367+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN> (05.06.2013)
11. European regional/spatial planning Charter - Torremolinos Charter. 1983. Council of Europe Conference of Ministers Responsible for Spatial/Regional Planning (CEMAT). http://www.siestaproject.eu/Et2050_Library/index.php?view=article&catid=109%3Apolices&id=625%3Aeuropean-regional-spatial-planning-charter-torremolinos-charter&format=phocapdf&option=com_content&Itemid=156 (04.06.2013)
12. Expert Panel, 2010. The Expert Panel's Evaluation Work & final Recommendations for European Green Capital Award of 2012 and 2013. <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/Evaluation-Panel-Report-Award-Cycle-2012-2013.pdf> (6.04.2012)
13. Fakke Tallinnast 2012 /Facts about Tallinn 2012/. 2013. Tallinn City Enterprise Board
14. **Hallika, U.** 2007. Linnapoliitika ülesanded ja võimalused innovatsiooni edendamisel Euroopa Liidus: praktilised soovitusused Eesti linna poliitikale. Eesti majanduspoliitilised välitused XV (Artiklid CD ROM ja kokkuvõtted). Berlin-Tallinn. <http://www.mattimar.ee/publikatsioonid/majanduspoliitika/2007/03.pdf>

- (26.05.2013) /Tasks and Opportunities of Urban Policy in Promoting Innovation in the European Union: Practical Recommendation for Estonian Urban Policy. Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy XV (Articles CD ROM and summaries)/
15. Hamburg. European Green Capital 2011. 2011. European Union
 16. **Hanley, N., Shogren, J.F., White, B.** 2001. *Environmental Economics*. Oxford University Press.
http://eesti2030.files.wordpress.com/2012/09/eesti-2030-tekst_120725.pdf
 (26.05.2013)
 17. **Jauhiainen J.S.** 2005. Linnageograafia. Linnad ja linnauurimus modernismist postmodernismini. /Urban Geography. Cities and City Research from Modernism to Postmodernism/ Estonian Academy of Arts.
 18. **Jüssi, M., Poltimäe, H., Sarv, K., Orru, H.** 2010. Säästva transpordi raport 2010 /Report on Sustainable Transport 2010/. Sustainable Development Commission. Tallinn.
 19. **Klarer, J., Francis, P., McNicholas, J., Gornaja, L.** 1999. Tulusam ja puhtam keskkond /A More Profitable and Cleaner Environment/. The Regional Environmental Centre for Central and Eastern Europe.
 20. **Kuldna, P.** 2011. Linna bioloogilise mitmekesisuse indeksi rakendamine Tallinna näitel. Uustal, M. (Toim.). Inimõju Tallinna keskkonnale VI (24 - 30). Tallinn: Tallinna Botaanikaäed
 21. Leipzig Charter on Sustainable European Cities. 2007. It was adopted by the informal meeting of the Council of Ministers in Leipzig on 24 May 2007.
<http://lp.ncdownload.com/eb3/?q=leipzig%20charta%20adr%20pt%20pdf>
 (10.06. 2013)
 22. **Levald, A.** 2001. Planning of urban green areas. In: (H.Tamm ed.) Linnade haljastud ja nende kaitse /Green Areas in Cities and Their Protection/. Estonian Academy Publishers. Tartu-Tallinn, 24-32. (In Estonian)
 23. **Levald, A. Sander, H.** 2005. Loodus linnas, linn looduses /Nature in the City, the City in Nature/. Estonian Nature Magazine. 5, 3-15.
 24. **Lõhmus, M.** 2008. Decentralization of Public Administration in Estonia. Doctoral thesis Tallinn University of Technology , Faculty of Social Sciences.
 25. **Magnaghi, A.** 1998. Territorial heritage: a genetic code for sustainable development. INURA (toim.) Possible Urban Worlds. Urban Strategies at the end of 20 Century. Basel: Birkhäuser Verlag, 114-121.
 26. **Mayerhofer, P.** 2005. Competitiveness of European Cities: Some Empirical Results for European Cities. WIFO Working Papers, No. 260.
 27. Measuring urban sustainability. Analysis of the European Green Capital Award 2010&2011 application round. European Commission, 2010
 28. Memorandum on the European Green Capital title. 2006.
<http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/wp-content/uploads/2011/06/Tallin-Memorandum.pdf> (07.04. 2013)
 29. **Mäeltsemees, S., Lõhmus, M.** 2006. Tallinna juhtimise decentraliseerimine /Decentralisation of the Management of Tallinn/. Riigikogu Publications, 13, 133-141.
 30. **Mäeltsemees, S.; Kull, M.; Lõhmus, M.; Ratas, J.** 2012. Wirtschaftliche und soziale Ziele der kommunalen Gebietsreform. S. Mäeltsemees, J. Reiljan, M.

- Raudjärv (Toim.). Eesti majanduspoliitilised väitlused: Aktuaalsed Euroopa Liidu riikide probleemid / Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik: Aktuelle Probleme der EU-Mitgliedstaaten / Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy: Current problems in the EU Member States. Berlin, Tallinn: Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag, Mattimar, 108 - 125
31. Nantes. European Green Capital 2013. 2012. European Union
 32. Stockholm. European Green Capital 2010. 2010. European Union
 33. Strateegia „Tallinn 2030“ kinnitamine /Approval of the Strategy Tallinn 2030/. 2010. Tallinna Õigusaktide andmebaas /Tallinn Legislation Database/
<https://oigusaktid.tallinn.ee/?id=3002&aktid=118878> (20.05.2013)
 34. Strateegia Tallinn 2030 kinnitamine /Approval of the Tallinn 2030 Strategy/.
<https://oigusaktid.tallinn.ee/?id=3001&aktid=118878> (12.04. 2013)
 35. Tallinn arvudes 2012 /Tallinn in Figures 2012/. 2012. Tallinn City Government. Tallinn.
 36. Tallinna Keskonnakaitse Arengukava 2013-2018 /Tallinn Environmental Protection Development Plan/. Version 08.03.2013. 2013. Tallinn.
<http://www.tallinn.ee/est/g4128s66928>
 37. Teemaplaneeringu „Tallinna rohealad“ keskkonnamõju strateegiline hindamine. Lõpparuanne. /Strategic Assessment of the Environmental Impact of the ‘Green Areas in Tallinn’ Thematic Plan. Final Report/ 2007. OÜ-E-Konsult. Tallinn.
<http://www.tallinn.ee/est/g3566s38220> (27.05.2013)
 38. The Expert Panel’s Evaluation Work & Final Recommendations for the European Green Capital Award of 2010 and 2011, January 2009.
www.stockholm.se/PageFiles/154134/eval-report_2010_2011.pdf (05.04.2013).
 39. The Global Information Technology Report 2009 – 2010. 2010. World Economic Forum.
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GITR_Report_2010.pdf (06.06 2013)
 40. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs - Population Division (2009). World population prospects: The 2008 revision (pp. 1–107). Working paper number ESA/P/WP.210.
 41. **Uustal, M.; Kuldna, P.; Peterson, K.** 2010. Tallinna linnaelustiku strateegiline analüüs ja soovitusel elustiku säilitamiseks /Strategic Analysis of the Urban Biota of Tallinn and Recommendations for Preservation of Biota/. Publication of SEI Tallinn, 14, 44
 42. Vitoria - Gasteiz. European Green Capital 2012. 2012. European Union
 43. Üleriigiline Planeering Eesti 2030+ /National Spatial Plan 2030+/. 2012.
 44. Ülevaade Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna tiitli laureaate 2010-2014 keskkonnanäitajatest /Overview of the 2010-2014 Environmental Indicators of European Green Capital Laureates/. Tallinn, 2013.
<http://www.tallinn.ee/est/g4128s66919> (14.04. 2013)

ON CERTAIN ASPECTS OF THE NEED AND POSSIBILITY FOR THE ADMINISTRATIVE-TERRITORIAL REFORM IN ESTONIA

Matti Raudjärv¹
University of Tartu

Abstract

The paper treats important problems of regional and local government policy, such as the possibility of and need for the administrative-territorial reform, including merging of municipalities and definition of mutual relationships between the state and local governments and their functions. The need for sustainable and strong municipalities has been emphasised also on the level of the European Union already several years ago. Possible mergers of Estonian county centres with their surrounding rural municipalities, also the possibility for having several centres of attraction in a county are discussed. Statistics on demographic changes in the Estonian population, concentration of the population above all to larger cities, and decrease in rural population are presented. Also statistics, for instance, on changes in the number of pupils in counties are presented. A few suggestions are made for the further development of the regional and local government policy, including based on the considerably more radical activities in Finland in this field.

Keywords: administrative-territorial reform, regional policy, mergers of municipalities, strong cities as centres of attraction, relocations of the population to larger centres, reorganisation of the administrative structure in Estonia, functions of the state and of local governments

JEL Classification: H7, J18, R3, R4, R5

Introduction

The issues of regional and local government policy (i.e. local policy) have been on the agenda in Estonia for a long time on the level of discussions but the practical activities in this area have certainly been inadequate. The need for the administrative-territorial reform and the need and possibility for mergers of municipalities in the course of that reform have been discussed and talked about for many years but the results are modest to say the least.²

¹ PhD Matti RAUDJÄRV, University of Tartu (regional Pärnu College), c/o Kose tee 79, 12013 Tallinn, Estland-Estonia; founder of the first Chair of Economic Policy in Estonia after its regaining of independence (in the Faculty of Economics of the Tallinn University of Technology in 1992), its first Head of Chair and Professor. E-mail: mattir@hot.ee; matti.raudjarv@ut.ee; www.mattimar.ee

² At the end of the 1990s and beginning of 2000s the the mergers of municipalities were such a topical issue that in some periods the Estonian media presented new proposals made and another new administrative-territorial map of municipalities every week (sometimes even every other day)!

This paper is an addition, continuation and further development of the earlier papers and presentations of the author on the same topic. (Raudjärv ...2007)^{3, 4} It should be noted that this paper also partly repeats the statements published and mentioned in the earlier papers and presentations.

The objective of this paper is to discuss certain topical issues which need to be solved in the Estonian regional and local policy. The following aspects will be examined and evaluated:

- the main problems of the regional and local policy
- the need to develop the regional and local policy
- possible mergers of the Estonian county centres and surrounding rural municipalities
- certain proposals for the future in the area of regional and local policy

The current inactivity in the area of the administrative-territorial reform should be replaced as soon as possible with considerably more active measures in the interests of the development of Estonia and its regions. In the course of approximately 18 years, i.e. in 1996–2013 only 22 mergers of 51 rural municipalities with cities or towns have taken place, as a result of which the number of municipalities has decreased by 29 by now but this cannot be regarded as a serious reform. Thus, while the number of municipalities in Estonia before the mergers was 255, there were 226 municipalities (cities, towns and rural municipalities) at the beginning of 2013. The last and the only merger took place in 2009 and until now all mergers according to the legislation have been performed after local elections.

In the last months of 2012 and the first months of 2013 another active discussion of mergers has started. The next local elections will take place on 20 October 2013 and according to the legislation the municipalities wishing to merge should perform the required procedures for the merger, prepare the documentation and submit the respective application for merger to their county governor by 19 April at the latest, i.e. half a year before the elections. Due to the conservative attitude of our local government actors, the author of this paper does not believe, however, that many mergers will take place in 2013.⁵

³ Raudjärv, M. Über die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten der Regional- und Kommunalpolitik (unter Berücksichtigung der Zusammenlegung von Verwaltungseinheiten)/ Regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika arenguvõimalustest Eestis (sh haldusüksuste kontsentratsiooni aspekt). Majanduspoliitilised väitlused/ Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik/ Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy – 2007 (The paper in German on the CD enclosed, the Estonian summary on paper media, pp. 67–71).

⁴ Presentation of the author on the subject „Concentration of regional and local development in Estonia“ at the conference „Days of Estonian Cities, Towns and Rural Municipalities – 2008“ in Tallinn at the Viru-Sokos Hotel on 28 February 2008.

⁵ These lines of this paper have been written at the end of March 2013, i.e. ca three weeks before 19 April. At the end of the paper (written at the end of April – beginning of May) the situation has already become clear!

1. Certain more important problems in the regional and local policy

The Estonian national economy was developing relatively fast before the economic crisis. At the same time, the practical issues of regional and local development have unfortunately remained in the background and regional imbalances have even increased, and also differences between the development of the counties and the capital city have increased. Activities in different areas of the administrative-territorial reform have been going on for many years but no satisfactory solutions have been reached.

Considering the need and opportunities for administrative-territorial changes we can state that probably the interests of different political parties and specific self-interested politicians are the main obstacles to making them. For instance, local interests and interests of political parties do not often favour balanced regional development, including merging of municipalities, and this is an obstacle to the systematic and complex development of the Estonian national economy.

Only one local council and its chairman and one rural municipality mayor (or city mayor) will remain after a merger of two or more municipalities. *It is an issue of power* and current officials are not always ready to give up their positions which involve power in the local government and find other jobs (which may sometimes require retraining or further training). So why should they support merging of municipalities if they may lose their jobs!

Also, certain political parties may not always support merging of municipalities in their policy as the number of their supporters among representatives of local authorities would decrease after a merger. It may lead to a decrease in the number of supporters of some political parties above all in rural municipalities but also in small towns. This would, however, have a negative effect on the political parties which have more supporters in rural areas in the fight among Estonian political parties for electors and power. *This too is an issue of power!* On the other hand – the smaller (i.e. more fragmented) are the municipalities, the more possibilities political parties have for asserting their power in different regions!

While Estonia has been a EU Member State since 2004 and a lot of EU priorities have been talked about for many years (such as the importance of balanced regional development), very little has been done in that respect. It is the opinion of several economists and representatives of local governments in other countries that Europe needs strong cities with the involvement of their hinterlands for the further development of the regional and local policy areas (Collomb... 2005: 77–88). On the other hand they regard also the development of rural municipalities important for the development of Europe, i.e. the existence of rural municipalities is an inevitable precondition for development (Häupl ... 2005: 89–102). In other words, cities and rural municipalities should constitute a harmoniously co-existing system.

According to Gerard Collomb, the mayor of Lyon (France), the future local and regional policy can only be successful if there is a systematic dialogue between

cities, and between the hinterlands of cities on the one hand and regions on the other hand. (Collomb ... 2005: 80). Several conflicts can be pointed out in local policy, the most important of these are the following:

- a) between cities, towns and rural municipalities (on the one hand, cities should be strong, but this is an obstacle to (or at least does not favour) the development of rural municipalities and rural areas);
- b) the conflict between economic activities and ecology is increasing (Floting, Hollbach-Grömig 2005: 25);
- c) conflicts between private and municipal ownership are often amplified (in the actual economic situation, there are many shortcomings and mistakes in the competition between private service providers in municipal services, which often cause additional problems to the population). (Häupl... 2005: 96)

For instance, according to Michael Häupl, the mayor of Vienna in Austria, most services should be provided by municipal enterprises, as private ownership causes a lot of problems, which do not help to provide public services to the population according to the required standards. Liberalisation and privatisation of public services is not very topical among the population of Vienna as municipal enterprises are performing their role well. (Häupl... 2005: 96) The same should be done more boldly also in Estonia as private companies are rather profit-oriented in the provision of municipal services (and not only there), competition has not functioned enough and there is often extensive pressure on the population to increase prices. The price level required by private companies is often not affordable to the population due to low income levels.

The predominant opinion in Estonia has been that private ownership is the best form of ownership. But the economic situation has unfortunately demonstrated from time to time that this is far from being always true. The profit maximisation interests of private companies are often not in conformity with the best and flexible satisfaction of the needs and wishes of the population. We can perhaps talk about economic efficiency for a private company but not about a high level of welfare for the population. The latter objective should be more important, however, and therefore the municipal ownership form can often allow to achieve more efficient solutions.

Strengthening of cities is accompanied by the concentration of the population to cities. For instance, according to some statistics, already at the beginning of this century, 80% of the population lived in European cities (Huttenloher 2004: Figure 5; Jakoby, Schmolinsky 2005: 40). We have to note here that in other European countries the concentration of the population to cities is much higher than in Estonia. According to the last census, 67.9% of the population lives in urban areas in Estonia. (RAL: Eesti ... 2013)

If the objective for the European Union is to achieve strong cities, what are the problems and the solutions for Estonia? The Estonian population is small, the territory is not big, the population density is one of the lowest in Europe (only 30 inhabitants per km²). The population of the Republic of Estonia is small, only ca 1.3 million people (1.294 million according to the census of 2011). The population

growth rate is relatively modest – in 2011 the total birth rate was 11.0 in Estonia (9.3 in 2001; 10.7 in 2005; 12.0, the highest during the decade, in 2008) ^{6,7}, in 2011 the total death rate was 11.4 (13.6 in 2001 and 12.9 in 2005) ⁸. While the number of births in 2001 was 12,632, it was 14,054 in 2012 according to preliminary statistics. The maximum level in this century was 16,028 births in 2008. (Raudvere, Nutov ... 2013: 2–3) The birth rate is, however, clearly declining.

There are also few towns and cities in Estonia and the towns are generally small in comparison with European towns and therefore also weak (only the two largest cities in Estonia, Tallinn and to some extent also Tartu may be exceptions here). The relocation of the population above all to major cities and to rural municipalities surrounding the cities, i.e. to the hinterland of cities, is continuing in Estonia. A part of the population moves to cities for a while, however, before going to live in the hinterland of the city.

This is what leads to the idea that it would be necessary to strengthen cities and towns systematically also in the situation of Estonia. How to do that? Cities, towns and rural areas (hinterland of cities and towns) should probably be partly integrated. This has been the reality for a lot of people for a long time already. However, integration would need also support in the form of institutional, economic policy, administrative and administrative-territorial measures. Thus the population would be integrated also with respect to the national and municipal level, have cooperation and be more united in a specific space or location.

In autumn 2012 the Estonian Minister for Regional Affairs presented a proposal for the reform of the local government structure, consisting of *six alternatives*:

1. Estonia of rural mini-municipalities: the system of local governments will not be changed, there will be voluntary merging of municipalities on their own initiative.

(*Matti Raudjärv = M.R.*): This means that nothing particular will change (the almost twenty years on practice of voluntary mergers has shown that) and that the current situation, i.e. standstill, in essence, and often essentially deterioration of the situation will continue. This is not good for the development of Estonia, the survival of the nation and improvement of welfare.

2. Estonia of associations of municipalities: municipalities will continue in the current form but some of their duties will be delegated to the public entity – association of municipalities of the county – and the membership would be mandatory.

M.R.: The assessment is analogous with the first alternative: county governments will just largely be replaced by associations of municipalities. It is not a good solution as it would make no difference for municipalities.

3. Estonia with two levels: municipalities will continue in their current form but an additional elected local government level will be created within the current counties.

⁶ Sündimuse ... 2013

⁷ The crude birth rate in the European Union (27 Member States) was 10.4 in 2011; in 2001 – 10.4; in 2005 – 10.4 and it was the highest in 2008 – 10.9 (Sündimuse ... 2013)

⁸ Suremuse ... 2013

M. R.: The success will partly depend on the functions assigned to the new level. On the other hand – retaining municipalities in their current form essentially implies the continuation of the current situation and postponing solutions to a more distant future. It cannot be regarded as a good solution as there will be no significant changes in the activities of municipalities.

4. Estonia of counties: the state sets the due date by which time municipalities with the minimum population of 25,000 will be formed. The choice of partners will be voluntary and those who cannot do it by the due date will be merged with the decision of the government.

M.R.: The principle of subsidiarity will be lost which should not be underestimated in Estonia as a country with relatively small communities. This is probably not a good alternative either as the identity of communities will become considerably weaker considering the sparse settlement structure of Estonia.

5. Estonia of parishes: the state will set a due date for mergers for municipalities to create municipalities with the minimum population of 3,000. Partners for mergers will be found voluntarily. Those who do not manage to do that will be merged with the decision of the government.

M.R. Somewhat better than the three first alternatives (larger and more capable municipalities) but movements of the population are still not sufficiently taken into account.

6. Estonia of centres of attraction: the state will designate centres of attraction to select from for mergers by a definite term. Partners for mergers will be found voluntarily. Those who do not manage to do that will be merged with the decision of the government.

M. R.: Considering the mobility of people this alternative could be regarded as the best of the six alternatives suggested and this has direct parallels with the idea of strong cities presented in the European Union already approximately ten years ago.

A brief assessment: In the opinion of the author of this paper, another alternative of the administrative-territorial reform could be considered in which several models would be combined, namely:

- combining the Estonia of centres of attraction, i.e. the sixth model (not only county centres should be centres of attraction but also other cities and towns in the county) and the Estonia of parishes, i.e. the fifth model should be considered above all, i.e. a part of the existing municipalities will merge;
- in which county governments would be replaced by associations of municipalities (certainly with clear definition of their functions), i.e. certain ideas of the third model above would be included, and in which
- associations of municipalities would be the second level of local government and have a coordinating role in the county, i.e. some ideas from the fourth model would be included.

By combining the four alternatives (models) in such a manner, also decisions of the government and even mandatory measures should be used in parallel with voluntary actions (mergers of municipalities and other reorganisations) as the current voluntary process has generally not been justified (the planned reform has even

become a farce at places) and there will surely be situations in which municipalities concerned are not able and sometimes even competent to decide. It would probably also be necessary to *adjust the borders of the current rural municipalities, cities, towns and counties* to take into account the residential areas and actual movements of the population.

2. The Estonian population is actually moving to major cities and/or areas around them⁹

According to Statistics Estonia the permanent population of Estonia was 1,294,455 based on the final results of the Population and Housing Census (REL 2011)¹⁰. Compared to the previous census of 2000, the Estonian population has decreased by 75,597 persons, i.e. 5.5%. Among counties, only the populations of Harjumaa (significantly) and Tartumaa (more modestly and with relatively little changes, being mostly stable) have increased.

According to the results of the Census, concentration of the population to the surroundings of larger cities is continuing. Among municipalities, the increase in population has been most important in the municipalities surrounding Tallinn, where the population of certain municipalities has doubled in comparison with the results of the previous Census. For instance, the population of the Viimsi Rural Municipality has increased to 18,533 (7,978 inhabitants in 2000), in the Rae Rural Municipality to 15,721 inhabitants (7,979 inhabitants in 2000) and in the Harku Rural Municipality to 14,181 inhabitants (6,617 inhabitants in 2000). The population of certain rural municipalities near Tartu (in Ülenurme Rural Municipality from 4,780 to 7,751 and in Tartu Rural Municipality from 5,121 to 6,991) and near Pärnu (in Sauga Rural Municipality from 2,535 to 4,474) have also increased.

The smaller Estonian towns tend to decrease in most cases and the population is decreasing (see Tables 1 and 2 in Annex): the population of only three Estonian cities and towns (except the towns without municipal status) has increased in the period between the censuses: in Saue (11.2%), Maardu (4.7%) and Keila (4%). The population of the remaining cities and towns has decreased. We have to note here that the Census data do not always agree with those of the Ministry of the Interior. Namely, according to the statistics of the Ministry of the Interior, the population of Tallinn has considerably increased (see the data in Table 4 of the annexes).

In comparison with 2000 the population has decreased most in smaller towns (see Table 2 in Annex). In the Estonian context, such towns (marked with the asterisk (*) in Annex) as Maardu, Narva, Sillamäe and Kohtla-Järve cannot be regarded as small towns. These towns have still been presented to provide a full overview.

⁹ The source of the statistics in this part of the paper: REL: Eesti ... 2013

¹⁰ The 11th Census was carried out in Estonia from 31 December 2011 – 31 March 2012. The earlier censuses had taken place in 1881, 1897, 1922, 1934, 1941, 1959, 1970, 1979, 1989 and 2000. The next Census will be performed in Estonia in 2020/2021.

The urban/rural distribution of the population has not significantly changed in the period between the censuses. 67.9% of the population lived in urban areas (incl. cities, towns without municipal status and small towns) according to the statistics of 2011. In 2000, 69.2% of the Estonian population lived in urban areas.

From the 4,438 Estonian villages, 12 have more than 1,000 inhabitants and 645 have 100–999 inhabitants. The population of most villages (3,781) is less than 100 and in 327 villages the permanent population was less than three inhabitants. In 102 villages there were no permanent inhabitants according to the census.

Large villages have appeared in areas near cities. The villages with the largest population are Peetri – 4,435 (Harjumaa), Muraste – 1,698 (Harjumaa), Randvere – 1,690 (Harjumaa), Vahi – 1,620 (Tartumaa), Alliku – 1,575 (Harjumaa), Tammiste – 1,562 (Pärnumaa), Pärnamäe – 1,556 (Harjumaa), Lohkva – 1,288 (Tartumaa), Püünsi – 1,256 (Harjumaa) and Papsaare – 1,028 (Pärnumaa) inhabitants.

The average age of the Estonian population has increased in comparison with the previous census. Its main reason is the increase in the life expectancy by ca 5.5 years during the period between the censuses. While it was 38.7 years in 2000, it is now 40.8 years. The average age of men is 37.7 years (35.9 in 2000) and of women 43.4 years (41.1 in 2000). The populations of Harjumaa and Tartumaa are younger than average – the average age, respectively, 36.3 and 38.1 years. The average age of the population is the highest in the Piiressaare (63.1) and Alajõe (53.9) rural municipalities.

The number of students is decreasing in municipal schools, except in Harjumaa and Tallinn (see Table 3 in annexes). If the inhabitants move from rural municipalities and small towns to centres of attraction, the number of students clearly decreases in many schools of rural municipalities and gradually the issue of closing the school arises as there are not enough students. Then also the remaining children may move from that area of the rural municipality with their families and this is how many hinterlands and rural areas become empty. If there is also a problem with local jobs, the situation will amplify even more. There are also other kinds of problems: rural municipalities, towns and cities are having difficulties with paying the intended salaries to teachers. „The lacking administrative reform is beginning to be felt: if the number of teachers employed by the rural municipality is higher than established with the national model of salary funds, the municipality has to raise salaries from its own budget.“ (Nutov ... 2013: 8) Therefore the changes in the school system, planned by the Estonian Ministry of Research and Education, do not conform to the actual situation and possibilities of municipalities.

3. About the development of the regional and local policy

The administrative-territorial reform and the related activities should be carried out as soon as possible in Estonia (until now it has only been talked about for about 20 years and the arguments are that it is still not quite prepared, more matters should be analysed, specified, etc.). The current voluntary mergers of administrative units

(rural municipalities, cities, towns) have, unfortunately, had modest results and have proceeded slowly. Government agencies will probably have to make a strong contribution to the reform on their own part and with mandatory measures

The current administrative-territorial reform process in Estonia should be considerably speeded up:

- to considerably reduce the number of towns and cities with municipal status and above all weak rural municipalities with low administrative capacity as a result of mergers;
- by considering the option of changing the status of most if not all Estonian towns (administrative units, towns and cities with municipal status) into towns without municipal status.¹¹ In that case also the adjustment of the borders of many rural municipalities and even cities and towns will be required. As a result of the above-mentioned changes, a county centre would be above all the centre of a rural municipality, which is the administrative unit, and on the other hand a town or city without municipal status, or, in other words – after the suggested changes the current county centre would be the centre of the rural municipality and a town or city without municipal status – the former town or city as an administrative unit would be combined with the surrounding rural municipality (or rural municipalities). Similar mergers should be performed also with other Estonian cities and towns (and have already been performed in some cases).¹²

The only *exceptions* due to their specific nature and complicated structure and location of urban areas could be the following counties:

- Harjumaa (the capital of the Republic of Estonia, Tallinn, and the ice-free port Paldiski together with the two islands near-by, and also several other towns are located in this county);
- Hiiumaa (if this second largest island of Estonia retains its status as a county also in the future, the future of the administrative units would require special evaluation); and

¹¹ some towns and cities could be afforded a dual status (considering that it is also an issue of power), i.e. a city or town would be both an administrative unit with a city status and the centre (rural municipality centre) for the surrounding rural municipality or municipalities

¹² This is not a new approach in the Estonian context as an analogous approach was proposed in the Viljandi County at the beginning of 1990s (when the merging of administrative units, particularly rural municipalities, was very topical) in the form of merging the Viljandi Town as the county centre with the four surrounding rural municipalities (Paistu, Pärsti, Saarepeedi and Viiratsi). In subsequent years and in 2005 after the most recent elections of local municipalities several cities and towns have merged with the circular rural municipalities surrounding them. With county centres such mergers have taken place twice – merging of the Rapla Town as the county centre with the surrounding rural municipality in Raplamaa (after the local government elections in 2002) and merging of the Jõhvi Town as the county centre with the surrounding rural municipality in Ida-Virumaa (after the local government elections in 2005). Both towns are towns without municipal status after the mergers and administrative centres of the new rural municipality.

- Ida-Virumaa (complicated situation due to the scattered industry and mining operations and therefore a relatively large number of small towns; would probably also require special evaluation).

The mergers mentioned above would make it possible to alleviate the situation of many administrative units (cities and towns with municipal status and rural municipalities):

- merger would make it possible to improve the financial situation and make more important and larger investments;
- since many people working in urban areas often live in the rural municipalities surrounding the cities or towns, people would have their places of residence and jobs within the same administrative units, which could facilitate the provision and availability of several services to the inhabitants (ensuring the availability of services currently often depends on the bureaucracy related to the borders of the administrative units);
- cities and towns but also the rural municipalities around them would become stronger (including have better potential for the selection of specialists and their specialisation), their services would become flexible and more active for the population; they would have also more operative cooperation with other municipalities;
- this in its turn would make the merged cities, towns and rural municipalities more attractive to investors;
- the above-mentioned measures in their turn may make the population more settled (as the region becomes more attractive), which may improve the employment situation.

Or, in other words, the Estonian cities and towns with their hinterlands (in the form of the current rural municipality or municipalities surrounding them) would become stronger and more sustainable. Also the rural municipalities and cities and towns without municipal status which remain further away from the hinterlands of cities and towns would become stronger as certain adjustments would be required at any rate considering the future developments in Estonia in terms of administrative changes and changes in the borders of administrative units.

Such mergers would create preconditions for more balanced regional development as the outflow of the population to the capital city Tallinn and other major Estonian cities and towns could decrease. Also the life in rural municipalities, small settlements and villages may become more attractive and provide more satisfactory living conditions.

NB! With the completion of the administrative-territorial reform also other measures have to be taken, such as increasing the motivation of people, raising the efficiency of the educational system, including taking more into account the local conditions, and improvement of further training and retraining, motivation of investors, improvement of the roads and movement opportunities, contribution to the solution of social issues, improved functioning of the health care and communication

systems, etc. Here we should talk about the integrated development of the whole infrastructure.

NB! The administrative-territorial reform should be accompanied also by a review and evaluation of the functions of the national and local governments and empowerment of local governments. This means also more trust and delegation of more functions to local governments.

NB! Probably the existence of more compact (concentrated) administrative units in Estonia would help to gain more control over real estate developers. Real estate agencies should take orders from municipalities and not exert pressure on municipalities with their own visions (that we constantly see and as a consequence of which we have had real estate developments in Estonia which are not satisfactory to almost anyone and are only objectionable, considering the future).

4. Possible mergers of the Estonian county centres and surrounding rural municipalities

When examining the locations of cities and towns which are the centres of Estonian counties, with respect to the rural municipalities surrounding them, the strengthening of cities and towns with perspective changes can be divided into four groups:

- (1) changes that have taken place;
- (2) easier solutions (merger of a city or town with the surrounding circular rural municipality);
- (3) more complicated solutions (merging of a city or town with several surrounding rural municipalities, or merger of several rural municipalities);
- (4) even more complicated (or should we say – very complicated) solutions, which create a number of additional issues and problems compared to other cases (there are more merging municipalities or the location is complicated, including the situations in Harjumaa, Ida-Virumaa and Hiiumaa).

Proceeding from the above-mentioned factors, the following groups can be pointed out from the analysis and comparison of the possible further developments of the 15 Estonian counties:

- (1) **changes already made** (at places with partial changes in the Ida-Viru County) by merging the county centre with the surrounding circular municipality (or municipalities): **this applies to two counties**, above all the **Rapla County** but also the **Ida-Viru County** (in the interests of the further development of the Ida-Viru County special research should be made, however, as the location and settlement structure is relatively complicated; the changes made have probably been only partial);
- (2) **easier merging solutions**, i.e. the county centre is surrounded by only one circular rural municipality: **this applies to five counties – the Jõgeva, Lääne, Põlva, Saare and Võru counties**;
- (3) **more complicated merging solutions**, i.e. the county centre is surrounded by territories of from two to four (in terms of direct impacts even five or six)

municipalities: **this applies to six counties** – the **Järva, Lääne-Viru, Pärnu, Tartu, Valga, Viljandi** counties;

- (4) **even more complicated situations** at some places compared to other counties (or solutions which require different kinds of decisions than in the above-mentioned cases), requiring additional research and then also the respective decisions: **this applied to three counties** – the **Harju, Hiiu ja Ida-Viru** counties. In the latter case the Jõhvi Town which is the county centre has already merged with the surrounding circular Jõhvi Rural Municipality (but there are several other towns in the county which are closely related to their hinterlands). The situation is probably complicated above all in the Harju and Ida-Viru (here probably not concerning the county centre) counties. In the case of the Hiiu county the solution would be relatively easier if the county were preserved and the Hiiumaa County (incl. the Hiiumaa Island) were not merged with the Lääne County.

NB! If the intention is to use the hinterlands of county centres for the development of both cities and towns and rural municipalities, also the borders of rural municipalities (why not cities and towns, if necessary) should be adjusted. The existing borders of rural municipalities largely originate from the Soviet period and should be changed if it proves necessary (and the necessity is very probable indeed in many cases!). Development of cities and towns, situation of their hinterlands, competition between administrative units or sustainability were not important enough during the Soviet period. It was command economy after all.

NB! Certainly, in addition to strengthening county centres also strengthening of other cities and towns should be considered, i.e. other cities and towns could exist not as administrative units but as just cities or towns without municipal status, being at the same time also centres of attraction for rural municipalities. It is not excluded that also a few small towns will remain centres of attraction for rural municipalities. Certain cities and towns and small towns there will surely be exceptions, often because of their location (e.g. the Võhma Town, etc.).

5. There is be a lot to do but there seems to be even more indecisiveness

Although a number of mergers of cities and towns with rural municipalities have taken place in Estonia since 1996 (also numerous mergers of rural municipalities with each other), the impact and consequences of these mergers have not been studied very thoroughly according to the information available and not sufficient generalisations have been made.¹³ That would be necessary, however. If some research has been made, no important or necessary experience has been concluded from it until now!

¹³ The author does not think that no research has been conducted at all. But the surveys have probably been somewhat fragmented and episodic and have not allowed to reach generalised and thoroughly argued positions or conclusions or to make convincing proposals.

Surveys should be prepared and conducted in several Estonian counties (mergers of cities and towns with rural municipalities have taken place there and cities and towns without municipal status have come into existence):

- Clear positions and conclusions should be brought out about the consequences of mergers of a **city or town as a county centre** with the surrounding rural municipalities, respectively:
 - **in the Rapla County:** merger of Rapla with the Rapla Rural Municipality (after the elections of local councils in 2002; the current Rapla Rural Municipality) and
 - **in the Ida-Viru County:** merger of Jõhvi with the Jõhvi Rural Municipality (after the elections of local councils in 2005; the current Jõhvi Rural Municipality).
- It would also be rational to draw clear conclusions from the results of mergers of **other cities and towns** and rural municipalities, e.g.:
 - **in the Valga County:** merger of the Otepää Town with the Pühajärve Rural Municipality (after the elections of local councils in 1999; the current Otepää Rural Municipality);
 - **in the Lääne-Viru County** (both mergers listed below took place after the elections of local councils in 2005):
 - merger of the Tapa Town, Lehtse Rural Municipality (was in the Harju County before the merger) and Saksi Rural Municipality (the current Tapa Rural Municipality), and
 - merger of the Tamsalu Town and Tamsalu Rural Municipality (the current Tamsalu Rural Municipality).
 - **in the Põlva County:** merger of the Räpina Town with the Räpina Rural Municipality (after the elections of local councils in 2002; the current Räpina Rural Municipality);
 - **in the Pärnu County:** merger of the Kilingi-Nõmme Town and the Saarde Rural Municipality and the Tali Rural Municipality (after the elections of local councils in 2005; the current Saarde Rural Municipality).
- Besides, conclusions drawn from also other mergers (of above all **rural municipalities**) could be gathered, above all in order to make generalisations and solve the problems that have appeared (incl. also for making the required amendments to legislation).

It would be rational and necessary to identify:

- any positive and also negative experience gained from mergers;
- any problems that have appeared; and
- the expected prospects of municipalities involved in mergers (incl. the possible focusing on mandatory mergers instead of the current voluntary ones). How long can we wait?

On the basis of answers to these problems it would be possible to forecast other mergers by generalisation and prevent (or alleviate) controversial situations.

The problems related to Estonian municipalities demonstrate that despite the long period of discussions of this subject, no significant experience has been documented. Probably many local government actors do not wish that and neither do government agencies or political parties. Isn't it (to put it mildly) restraining of the development of Estonia and contributing to the deterioration of the living standards of the population with the indifference, carelessness and unstatesmanship?

Situations similar to the one which developed in Läänemaa from the beginning of December 2012 until the beginning of February 2013 have often been typical of the experience in Estonia. Namely, the Oru Rural Municipality made a proposal for the merger of municipalities (Mikovitš ... 2013) and the discussions reached the stage where eight rural municipalities could have been merged with the Haapsalu Town as the county centre. At the beginning of February 2013 the circular Ridala Rural Municipality surrounding Haapsalu found that there was time enough and that the merger could be put off for the future (the next local elections will take place again in 2017!); besides, so many things are still uncertain and unclear. (Karnau ... 2013) Finally, by April only three rural municipalities decided to merge (a „wonderful“ and disgraceful result!)

Almost every Estonian county has municipalities which have kept putting off the adoption of the decision from one election period to the next in a similar manner. And the Republic of Estonia has regained independence already more than 20 years ago and many things could be quite clear already!? ¹⁴ Such insecure actors who are afraid of making decisions clearly should not participate in local or national politics as they are often (at least) slowing down the development of their region (incl. rural municipality, city and town) and Estonia as a whole.

And the position of the author of this paper presented at the beginning came true (see the last paragraph of the introduction to this paper on page 2 and footnote 4): now, after 19 April, it is clear that there will be really very few mergers of municipalities in 2013 – 18 municipalities submitted their applications for mergers by the due date and seven new municipalities will be formed of these, which will reduce the number of municipalities in Estonia to 215 after the elections of local councils in autumn. (Raudvere ... 2013) While the mergers of municipalities will take place voluntarily in 2013, the completion of the administrative-territorial reform is planned for 2017 according to the Minister for Regional Affairs. We cannot be sure of that, however.

¹⁴ The author of this paper has supervised a number of bachelor's theses at the University of Tartu on the subject of possible mergers of municipalities, and such demagogic and unstatemanly positions have been presented in many rural municipalities and cities and towns. One typical contradiction and a reason for cancelling mergers is often the inability to agree on the name of the new, merged municipality.

For conclusion

For comparison we could examine the plan for mergers of rural municipalities, cities and towns in Finland which has been planned for a short period, with strong measures and taking into account the development needs. We unfortunately cannot state the same about Estonia.

Henna Virkkunen, the Minister for Regional Affairs of Finland, pointed out in her interview several interesting positions which have been planned and are under discussion in the legislation of the Government of Finland on the extensive merger of rural municipalities (Ideon ... 2013):

- the objective is to raise the efficiency of the activities of municipalities and to reduce their number from several hundreds to hopefully fewer than a hundred new municipalities (generally from three to five municipalities should be merged). Many current municipalities are so small that they are unable to fulfil all their duties. Larger municipalities would be required that would employ a sufficient number of professionals and specialists;
- municipalities have to perform a merger survey with their neighbours within one year; the due date for the completion of the surveys will be 1 July 2014. Municipalities will get government support for the mergers and other kinds of assistance for carrying through the changes. There are generally three criteria – a merger survey has to be conducted a) in municipalities with fewer than 20,000 inhabitants; b) if a large part of the population of the municipality works elsewhere; c) the municipality has a poor economic situation;
- the minimum population of the municipalities will be 20,000; however, regional exceptions can be applied for if distances are very long in the area (northern and eastern regions). The current median population of municipalities is 6000;
- the mergers should take place from the beginning of 2015 until the beginning of 2017 at the latest (after which time the next local elections will take place in Finland). The situation is more complicated with cities or towns which have adjoining prosperous rural municipalities. It is also planned to expand the borders of Helsinki;
- additional functions will be delegated to municipalities so the county level will probably not be needed in the future. The functions of the county will be transferred to the state and to the municipalities. The objective is to have strong municipalities and the strong state.

According to the above-mentioned description, Estonia and Finland have a relatively similar administrative structure and the related problems. It is just that in Estonia people are not able to adopt decisions and organise things as much as necessary. Therefore a lot of time is lost and the inequality within Estonia is increasing. This eventually slows down the development of whole Estonia.

Literature

1. **Collomb, G.** Ein erweitertes Europa braucht starke Städte. In: Deutsche Zeitschrift für Kommunalwissenschaften, 2005/ II, S. 77-88.
2. Elanike arv kohalikes omavalitsustes. Siseministeerium. [<https://www.siseministeerium.ee/elanike-arv>] 29.03.2013.
3. **Floting, H.; Hollbach-Grömig, B.** Neuorientierung der kommunalen Wirtschaftspolitik. In: Deutsche Zeitschrift für Kommunalwissenschaften, 2005/ I, S. 10-39.
4. **Huttenloher, C.** Europäisierung der Stadtpolitik? Die EU und die Städte. In: Stadt-Colloquiums "Europäisierung der Stadtpolitik? Berlin: Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, 2004
5. **Häupl, M.** Europa funktioniert nur mit den Gemeinden. In : Deutsche Zeitschrift für Kommunalwissenschaften, 2005/ II, S. 89-102.
6. **Ideon, A.** Soome kärbib valdade arvu kiirelt ja põhjalikult. Postimees, 25.aprill, 2013, lk.4.
7. **Jakoby, H; Schmolinsky, C.** Wirtschaftsförderungen in den deutschen Städten vor dem Hintergrund einer veränderten EU-Regionalpolitik nach 2006. In: Deutsche Zeitschrift für Kommunalwissenschaften, 2005/ I, S. 40-59.
8. **Karnau, A.** IRL kukutas suurvala loomise läbi. Maaleht, 9. veebruar, 2013, lk. 8.
9. **Mikovitš, B.** Väikevalla ettepanek lükkas pool maakonda liikuma. Maaleht, 17. jaanuar, 2013, lk. 5.
10. **Nutov, M.; Lõhmus, A.** Vallad maksu pedagoogide palgatõus kas või ise kinni. Maaleht. 17. jaanuar 2013, lk.8-9.
11. **Raudjärv, M.** Über die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten der Regional- und Kommunalpolitik (unter Berücksichtigung der Zusammenlegung von Verwaltungseinheiten). Majanduspoliitilised väitlused/ Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik/ Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy – 2007 (kaasasoleval CD-l saksa keelne artikkel, paberkandjal eesti keelne kokkuvõte, lk.67-71)
12. **Raudvere, R.; Nutov, M.** Ehk oli laste sünniks lihtsalt halb aasta ... Maaleht. 17. jaanuar 2013, lk.2-3.
13. **Raudvere, R.** Ühineb 18 omavalitsust. Maaleht. 25.aprill 2013, lk.5.
14. REL 2011: Eesti elanikkond koondub suuremate linnade ümber. Statistikaamet. [<http://www.stat.ee/67161>] 8.02.2013.
15. Suremuse üldkordaja. Statistikaamet. [[http://www.stat.ee/px-web/2001/Database/Rahvastik ...](http://www.stat.ee/px-web/2001/Database/Rahvastik...)] 13.02.2013.
16. Sündimuse üldkordaja. Statistikaamet. [<http://www.stat.ee/29947>] 13.02.2013.

Annexes:

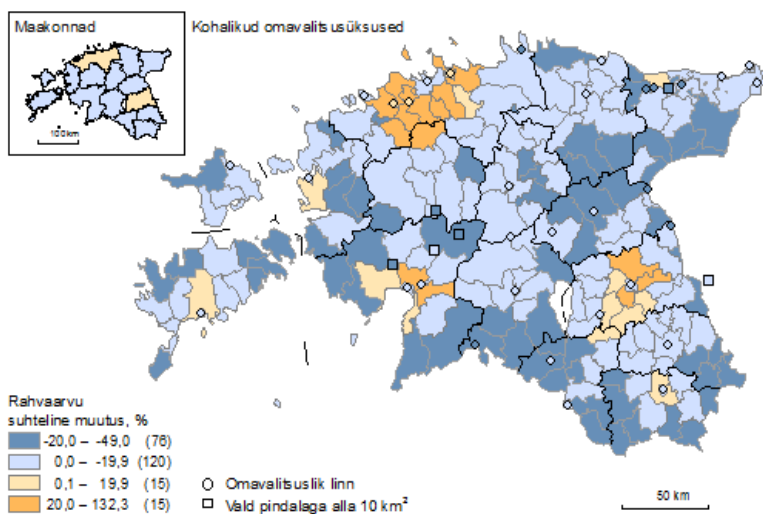


Figure 1. Relative changes in the population of municipalities in 2000–2011 (REL 2011: Eesti ... 2013).

Table 1. Decrease in the population of county centres in the comparison between two censuses (2000 and 2011) (number of inhabitants, in the order of increasing relative decreases)

No.	County centre (county)	2000	2011	Change in 2011-2000	Change in %
1	Tallinn (Harju)	400 378	393 222	-7156	-1,8
2	Tartu (Tartu)	101 169	97 600	-3569	-3,5
3	Rakvere (Lääne-Viru)	17 097	15 264	-1833	-10,7
4	Põlva (Põlva)	6467	5767	-700	-10,8
5	Kuressaare (Saare)	14 925	13 166	-1759	-11,8
6	Pärnu (Pärnu)	45 500	39 728	-5772	-12,7
7	Jõgeva (Jõgeva)	6420	5501	-919	-14,3
8	Valga (Valga)	14 323	12 261	-2062	-14,4
9	Paide (Järva)	9642	8228	-1414	-14,7
10	Võru (Võru)	14 879	12 756	-2212	-14,9
11	Haapsalu (Lääne)	12 054	10 251	-1803	-15,0
12	Viljandi (Viljandi)	20 756	17 473	-3283	-15,8
13	Kärdla (Hiiu)	3773	3050	-723	-19,2
14	Jõhvi (Ida-Viru)*	-	-	-	-
15	Rapla (Rapla)*	-	-	-	-

* Note: Jõhvi and Rapla as county centres are essentially and legally cities and towns without municipal status (in the Jõhvi Rural Municipality and Rapla Rural Municipality, respectively) and there was no information about them as the populations of the town and the surrounding earlier (circular) rural municipality could not be discerned.

Source: REL 2011: Eesti ... 2013

Table 2. Decrease in the population of towns in the comparison between two censuses (2000 and 2011) (number of inhabitants, in the order of decreasing (+) and increasing (-) relative changes)

Towns	2000	2011	Change in 2011–2000	Change in %
Saue	4958	5514	+556	+11,2
Maardu*	16 738	17 524	+786	+4,7
Keila	9388	9763	+375	+4,0
Sindi	4179	4076	–103	–2,5
Paldiski	4248	4085	–163	–3,8
Elva	6020	5607	–413	–6,9
Narva-Jõesuu	2983	2632	–351	–11,8
Kunda	3899	3422	–477	–12,2
Põltsamaa	4849	4188	–661	–13,6
Narva*	68 680	58 663	–10 017	–14,6
Tõrva	3201	2729	–472	–14,7
Sillamäe*	17 199	14 252	–2947	–17,1
Võhma	1596	1314	–282	–17,7
Loksa	3494	2759	–735	–21,0
Kohtla-Järve*	47 679	37 201	–10478	–22,0
Mustvee	1753	1358	–395	–22,5
Kiviõli	7405	5634	–1771	–23,9
Mõisaküla	1165	825	–340	–29,2
Kallaste	1211	852	–359	–29,6
Püssi	1872	1083	–789	–42,1

*Note: Maardu, Narva, Sillamäe and Kohtla-Järve are not small towns in Estonia but have been presented in this table to provide a better overview.

Source: REL 2011: Eesti ... 2013

Table 3. Changes in the number of students in municipal schools in Tallinn and in the counties (in the order of increasing relative changes)

No.	Tallinn and the counties	No. of students on 10.11.2011	No. of students on 10.11.2012	Change	Change in %
	Tallinn	39 517	39 588	+71	+0,2
1	Harjumaa	14 965	15 354	+389	+2,6
2	Tartumaa	16 893	16 729	-164	-1,0
3	Ida-Virumaa	13 977	13 739	-238	-1,7
4	Järvamaa	3 565	3 469	-96	-2,7
5	Lääne-Virumaa	6 644	6 399	-245	-3,7
6	Valgamaa	3 407	3 276	-131	-3,8
7	Pärnumaa	9 440	9 086	-354	-3,8
8	Raplamaa	3 972	3 810	-162	-4,1
9	Läänemaa	2 737	2 618	-119	-4,3
10	Saaremaa	3 513	3 362	-151	-4,3
11	Põlvamaa	2 884	2 751	-133	-4,6
12	Hiiumaa	976	929	-47	-4,8
13	Jõgevamaa	3663	3464	-199	-5,4
14	Viljandimaa	4 891	4 598	-293	-6,0
15	Võrumaa	4 044	3 769	-275	-6,8
	Estonia in total	135 563	132 941	-2622	-1,9

Sources: Ministry of Education and Research, *Maaleht*; calculations of the author.

Table 4. Number of inhabitants in 2009–2013 According to the statistics of the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Estonia

No.	Counties, county centres (a)	02.02.2009	02.02.2010	01.01.2011	01.01.2012	01.01.2013
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Harjumaa	...	556 283	563 103	569 036	573 199
1a	Tallinn	404 142	407 112	411 903	416 059	419 707
2	Hiiumaa	...	10 285	10 176	10 123	10 030
2a	Kärdla	3 758	3 743	3 684	3 758	3 615
3	Ida-Virumaa	...	166 350	164 093	161 997	159 222
3a	Jõhvi Rural Municipality*	13 145*	13 006*	12 932*	12 746*	12 573*
4	Jõgevamaa	...	35 220	34 776	34 325	33 610
4a	Jõgeva	5 862	5 816	5 760	5 862	5 661
5	Järvamaa	...	34 826	34 315	33 817	33 223
5a	Paide	9 114	9 108	8 981	8 866	8 710
6	Läänemaa	...	27 518	27 270	26 879	26 576
6a	Haapsalu	11 602	11 463	11 293	11 167	11 078
7	Lääne-Viru	...	66 234	65 465	64 608	63 571
7a	Rakvere	16 897	16 941	16 884	16 801	16 639
8	Põlvamaa	...	31 010	30 839	30 445	30 036
8a	Põlva	6 314	6 283	6 260	6 200	6 111
9	Pärnumaa	...	90 409	89 701	88 827	87 745
9a	Pärnu	43 465	43 545	42 937	42 433	42 034
10	Raplamaa	...	37 145	36 785	36 485	36 011
10a	Rapla Rural Municipality*	9 636*	9 678*	9 641*	9 628*	9 579*
11	Saaremaa	...	35 851	35 719	35 581	35 229
11a	Kuressaare	15 074	14 901	14 706	14 588	14 394
12	Tartumaa	...	148 886	149 252	149 426	149 494
12a	Tartu	98 475	98 407	98 548	98 522	98 480
13	Valgamaa	...	33 960	33 683	33 299	32 753
13a	Valga	14 155	14 084	13 994	13 852	13 691
14	Viljandimaa	...	53 496	52 898	52 098	51 227
14a	Viljandi	19 528	19 297	19 145	19 106	18 872
15	Võrumaa	...	37 752	37 388	37 055	36 403
15a	Võru	14 081	13 973	13 918	13 790	13 483
	Total counties	...	1 365 225	1 365 463	1 364 001	1 358 329
A		662 467	664 673	668 013	671 004	672 475
B		685 348	687 357	690 586	693 378	694 627

* **Note:** Jõhvi and Rapla as county centres are essentially and legally towns without municipal status (in the Jõhvi Rural Municipality and Rapla Rural Municipality,

respectively) and there was no information about them as the populations of the town and the surrounding earlier (circular) rural municipality could not be discerned. **NB!** This, however, also means that upon the merger of rural municipalities with cities and towns it will be complicated, if not impossible, to obtain the respective statistics about the city or town and the surrounding rural municipality (or municipalities).

Line A: Total county centres without the Jõhvi and Rapla rural municipalities.

Line B: Total county centres with the Jõhvi and Rapla rural municipalities.

Sources for Table 4: Elanike arv ... 2013; calculations of the author.

ANMERKUNGEN ZUR AKTUELLEN GELDPOLITIK DES EUROSISTEMS

Armin Rohde
Ernst-Moritz-Arndt-Universität Greifswald

Abstract

In the present article a recently observable very expansive monetary policy not only in the Eurosystem but also in nearly all leading industrialized countries is analysed as a result of a fundamental change in monetary policy strategy. The goal of research is to show that this fundamental change in monetary policy from concentrating on developments of the quantity of money to focusing strictly on developments of interest rates and interest rate levels is the most important reason for recent most expansive monetary policy, which is described best by a strategy of lowest interest rate policy and which deals with interest rate levels of zero or near zero percent. It is argued in the present article too, that a lasting period of very low interest rates is connected with severe dangers or disadvantages not only for special institutions of the companies sector and for private household savings, but also for investments in real capital and for solving debt crises, because it gives wrong economic incentives. In addition such an expansive monetary policy forced investors to look at investments with higher risks, to get a better expected return on investment, which could be the reason for new financial instabilities. At least the outright monetary transactions programme of the ECB is discussed. This OMT-Programme could be seen as a proper monetary policy instrument of the recent interest rate policy strategy, especially to transmit central banks key interest rate changes to all segments of the financial markets in all member countries of the Euro area. But there are very different or even conflicting interpretations of the sense of that programme between ECB and Deutsche Bundesbank. This strong conflict can be discussed as fundamental difference of how monetary policy should act in recent days.

Keywords: Euro-Currency Area, European Debt Crisis, European Central Bank, Eurosystem, interest rate policy, monetary policy, Outright Monetary Transactions

JEL Classification: E49, E52, E58, E59, F33

1. Einleitung

Die Geldpolitik des Eurosystems wird momentan als äußerst expansiv eingestuft. Neben den historisch niedrigen Leitzinsen, die, gemessen am Satz der Hauptrefinanzierungsgeschäfte, seit Mai 2013 einen Wert von nur noch 0,5 Prozent aufweisen, wird dazu u. a. auch auf die faktisch unbegrenzte Bereitstellung von Zentralbankgeld durch die Vollzuteilung bei den Hauptrefinanzierungsgeschäften seit Oktober 2008 sowie auf die starke Erhöhung des Angebots an längerfristigen Refinanzierungsgeschäften, u. a. sogar mit Laufzeiten von bis zu drei Jahren, verwiesen. Schließlich wurden die Mindestreservesätze, die seit Beginn der Europäischen Währungsunion im Jahre 1999 unverändert geblieben waren, Anfang

2012 um 50 Prozent gesenkt. Oft wird dabei ein Zusammenhang zur fälschlicherweise so bezeichneten Euro-Rettungspolitik hergestellt. Falsch ist diese Assoziation deshalb, weil der Euro, sowohl was den Binnenwert, als auch was den Außenwert anbelangt, eine sehr stabile Währung ist, die keiner Rettung bedarf. Stattdessen ist die wirtschaftliche Lage in der Eurozone treffender durch eine Verschuldungskrise und eine Finanzkrise sowie, damit zusammenhängend, durch eine Wirtschafts- oder Konjunkturkrise zu beschreiben. Tatsächlich ist diese Art von extrem expansiver Geldpolitik aber auch keine Besonderheit für den Euro-Währungsraum. Vielmehr wird heute in fast allen entwickelten Industrieländern eine derartige extrem expansive Geldpolitik betrieben. Diese Art von Geldpolitik ist das Ergebnis eines geldpolitischen Paradigmawechsels von erheblicher Tragweite. Dieser Paradigmawechsel hat zu einem völligen Umdenken im Hinblick auf die Rolle der Geldpolitik geführt.

2. Niedrigstzinspolitik als Folge eines Paradigmawechsels in der Geldpolitik von der Geldmengenzielorientierung zur Zinsorientierung

In den 1980er und 1990er Jahren war die Geldpolitik der Industrieländer sehr stark vom sogenannten Monetarismus geprägt und auf die Steuerung oder die Kontrolle der Geldmenge ausgerichtet (vgl. Rohde 1985, S. 15ff.). Gestützt auf die Ideen der sogenannten Quantitätstheorie des Geldes, die von einem sehr engen Zusammenhang zwischen der Geldmengenentwicklung und der Preisniveauentwicklung ausging, hatte die Geldpolitik über eine Steuerung der Geldmenge vorrangig dafür Sorge zu tragen, dass Preisniveaustabilität gewährleistet ist. Praktisch orientierte sich die Geldpolitik an öffentlich vorgegeben Geldmengenzielen. Ausdrücklich gehörte es nicht zu den Aufgaben einer solchen Geldpolitik, eine aktive oder direkte Konjunkturpolitik zu betreiben. Die Zinspolitik wurde ausschließlich in den Dienst der Geldmengensteuerung gestellt. Hohe Zinsen waren die Folge, bzw. waren der Preis für die Verknappung der Geldmengenentwicklung und dienten der Erreichung der Geldmengenziele. Hohe Zinsen waren deshalb eine Vorraussetzung und ein Garant für Preisniveaustabilität.

Im Laufe der 1990er Jahre kamen allerdings wachsende Zweifel an der hinreichenden Stabilität des Zusammenhangs zwischen Geldmengenentwicklung und Preisniveauentwicklung auf. In der Folge rückten bis zur Jahrtausendwende immer mehr Zentralbanken von einer Politik der Geldmengenzielorientierung ab (vgl. BIZ 2001, S. 83f.). Die Europäische Zentralbank (EZB) hat sich praktisch als letzte bedeutende Zentralbank 2003 von einer solchen Geldmengenzielorientierung verabschiedet. Ausdruck dafür war der sogenannte Säulentausch im Rahmen der geldpolitischen „Zwei-Säulen-Strategie“ der EZB (vgl. EZB 2003, S. 96 ff.). Durch diesen Säulentausch wurde der bis dahin in der ersten Säule ihrer geldpolitischen Strategie hervorgehoben positionierte und in der Geldpolitik primär beachtete quantitative Referenzwert für das M3-Wachstum nur noch in den Kontext einer allgemeinen monetären Analyse im Rahmen der in der öffentlichen Meinung als weniger wichtig erachteten zweiten Säule verbannt (vgl. Rohde und Kurth 2009, S. 185 ff. oder Rohde 2012, S.,235 ff.).

An die Stelle einer Geldmengenzielorientierung ist fast durchgängig eine Zinsorientierung der Geldpolitik getreten. Hierbei strebt die Geldpolitik über eine direkte Steuerung der Zinssätze öffentlich vorgegebene Inflationsziele an. Man spricht dann auch von der Strategie eines direkten Inflationsziels bzw. vom Inflation Targeting (vgl. Gischer; Herz, Menkhoff (2012, S. 330 f. oder Görgens; Ruckriegel; Seitz (2008), S. 161 ff.). Eine solche Zinsorientierung der Geldpolitik zielt vorrangig auf eine unmittelbare Konjunktursteuerung ab. So soll damit über eine Beeinflussung der gesamtwirtschaftlichen Nachfrage auf die Preisniveauentwicklung Einfluss genommen werden. Deshalb ist es mittlerweile völlig normal oder selbstverständlich geworden, dass die Geldpolitik bei Konjunkturrückgängen und insbesondere bei Wirtschaftskrisen mit starken Zinssenkungen reagiert. Vor dem Hintergrund der heutigen Erfahrungen mit den Reaktionen der Geldpolitiken auf die internationale Finanz- und Wirtschaftskrise in den entwickelten Industriestaaten, die ihren Ausgang im Jahre 2007 in der sogenannten Subprime-Krise in den USA hatte, kann man deshalb durchaus auch von einer „Niedrigstzinspolitik“ sprechen. So gehören heutzutage Leitzinsen in Höhe von Null Prozent oder zumindest nahe Null, ergänzt durch sogenannte unkonventionelle Maßnahmen, wie z.B. den sogenannten Quantitativen Erleichterungen (Quantitative Easing), in Form von massiven Liquiditätsbereitstellungen seitens der Zentralbanken durch den Kauf von Anleihen, durchweg zum Normalprogramm der zinsorientierten Geldpolitik.

Selbst negative Leitzinsen stellen heute keinen Tabubruch mehr für die Geldpolitik dar. So hat der Präsident der EZB, Mario Draghi, einen negativen Zinssatz für die Einlagenfazilität, der zusammen mit dem Zinssatz für die Spitzenrefinanzierungsfazilität und dem Satz für die Hauptrefinanzierungsgeschäfte zu den drei Leitzinsen der Geldpolitik des Eurosystems zählt, im Anschluss an die Zinsbeschlüsse des EZB-Rates vom 2. Mai 2013 durchaus in Aussicht gestellt, als er auf eine diesbezügliche Frage eines Journalisten antwortete: „On the deposit facility rate, we said it in the past, we are technically ready. There are several unintended consequences that may stem from this measure. We will address and cope with these consequences if we decide to act. We will look with an open mind and we stand ready to act if needed.“ (EZB 2013 a, S.4). Bereits im Juli 2012 hat die Dänische Zentralbank einen ihrer Leitzinsen, den Einlagenzins (CD-rate), auf einen negativen Wert gesenkt und damit, eigentlich nicht beabsichtigt, vereinzelt sogar Marktzinserhöhungen bewirkt (vgl. Nordea 2013). Der Hintergrund dafür war, dass die Geschäftsbanken die mit negativen Leitzinsen für sie verbundenen Kostensteigerungen an die Bankkunden weitergeben haben.

Schließlich gehören heute langfristige Zusagen über die Beibehaltung niedrigster Leitzinsen zu den Maßnahmen einer zinsorientierten Geldpolitik, um die Marktteilnehmer von der Dauerhaftigkeit der eingeschlagenen Zinspolitik zu überzeugen (vgl. Deutsche Bundesbank 2013 b, S. 31 ff.). Diese sogenannte Forward Guidance, die von der amerikanischen Notenbank schon länger und aktuell auch von der Bank of England angewendet wird, hat die EZB beispielsweise auf der EZB-Ratssitzung am 4.Juli 2013 mit den folgenden Worten von Präsident Draghi offiziell eingeführt: „Der EZB-Rat geht davon aus, dass die EZB-Leitzinsen für

längere Zeit auf dem aktuellen oder einem niedrigeren Niveau bleiben werden.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2013 a, S. 5). Auf die Frage, wie lang der damit angesprochene Zeitraum sein würde, antwortete Draghi: „Well I said an extended period of time is an extended period of time: it is not six months, it is not twelve months – it is an extended period of time“ (EZB 2013 b, S. 3). Diese Antwort konnte allerdings die Frage nicht befriedigend beantworten. Um auftretende Unsicherheiten über die zeitliche Dauer einer solchen Zusage zu reduzieren, haben z. B. die Federal Reserve der USA und die Bank of England sogenannte Schwellenwerte für die Arbeitslosigkeit angegeben, bis zu deren Erreichen die zinspolitische Zusage garantiert werden soll. Eine derartige Konditionierung würde sich jedoch nicht mit der gesetzlich vorgegeben Zielsetzung der EZB, vorrangig Preisniveaustabilität zu gewährleisten, vereinbaren lassen.

Trotz bislang ausbleibender Erfolge der zinsorientierten Geldpolitik, so sind bislang anhaltende Zuwächse bei der gesamtwirtschaftlichen Nachfrage nicht erzielt worden, halten die Zentralbanken an der extremen Niedrigstzinspolitik unbeirrt fest. Die Problematik bzw. die mangelnde Wirksamkeit dieser Geldpolitik wird nicht zuletzt an dem ständigen Erweitern, Ergänzen oder Nachbessern der konventionellen Zinssenkungspolitik deutlich. So wurden, nachdem die erwarteten positiven Reaktionen auf die üblichen Zinssenkungsschritte der Zentralbanken ausgeblieben sind, zunächst die Leitzinsen auf Niveaus von nahe Null oder auf Null gesenkt, danach wurden sogar negative Leitzinsen in Betracht gezogen und es wurde auf die sogenannte Forward Guidance zurückgegriffen. Schließlich wurden noch unkonventionelle Maßnahmen, wie z.B. die Quantitativen Erleichterungen, beigemengt. Es soll hier gar nicht bestritten werden, dass die Geldpolitik im Einzelfall und dann allerdings zeitlich eng befristet auf solche drastischen Maßnahmen zurückgreifen können muss. Die aktuelle Geldpolitik ist allerdings seit nunmehr 2008, und damit eigentlich schon dauerhaft, durch diese extrem expansive Ausrichtung gekennzeichnet. Deshalb überrascht es auch nicht, dass die Nachteile oder die Gefahren einer solchen dauerhaften Niedrigstzinspolitik immer deutlicher zutage treten.

3. Gefahren einer dauerhaften Niedrigstzinspolitik

Dauerhaft niedrige Zinsen gefährden z.B. Institutionen, deren Geschäftsmodelle darauf ausgerichtet sind, den jeweiligen Vertragspartner auf lange Fristen günstige Konditionen zu gewährleisten. So wird es momentan beispielsweise für Lebensversicherungen immer schwieriger, die ihren Kunden langfristig vertraglich versprochene Garantieverzinsung aus sicheren Kapitalmarktanlagen zu erwirtschaften. So betrug die durchschnittliche Umlaufrendite festverzinslicher Wertpapiere im Jahr 2012 in Deutschland nur 1,4 Prozent und in den Monaten April und Mai 2013 sogar nur noch 1,1 Prozent (Deutsche Bundesbank 2013 b, S. 53*). Für Neuverträge sind deshalb die Garantieverzinsungen von ursprünglich 4 Prozent (bis zum Jahr 2000) auf mittlerweile 1,75 Prozent (2013) gesenkt worden. Da die Garantieverzinsungen bis zum Ende der Laufzeit der Versicherungspolice gelten, dies können durchaus Zeiträume von bis zu 40 Jahren sein, fällt es den Versicherungsunternehmen zunehmend schwerer, diese Erträge aus lang anhaltend

niedrigen Kapitalmarktzinsen zu erwirtschaften. Die notwendigen Anpassungen der Garantieverzinsungen nach unten machen zudem das Neukundengeschäft schwieriger und die Anreize, diese wichtige Säule der privaten Altersvorsorge zu nutzen, schwinden (vgl. iwd 2013 a und 2013 b).

Ähnlich verhält es sich bei Bausparkassen und bei Pensionsfonds, die bei dauerhaft niedrigsten Zinsen ebenfalls Probleme haben, die zugesagten Renditen für die Mittelanlage ihrer Kunden zu erwirtschaften. Bei Bausparkassen kommt noch hinzu, dass die im Rahmen von Bausparverträgen im Normalfall gewährten „zinsgünstigen“ Baukredite dieses Prädikat vor dem Hintergrund der extrem niedrigen Zinsen für die frei zugänglichen Wohnungsbaukredite verloren haben, so dass auch hier das Neugeschäft schwieriger geworden ist.

Gravierende Nachteile bringt eine dauerhafte Niedrigstzinspolitik auch dem Sparer, dessen Vermögen zum einen real entwertet wird, wenn die niedrigen Verzinsungen seiner Anlagen unter der sogar noch mit Preisniveaustabilität kompatiblen Inflationsrate liegen. So ist Preisniveaustabilität nach Definition der EZB dann gewährleistet, wenn der Anstieg des sogenannten Harmonisierten Verbraucherpreisindex unter aber nahe zwei Prozent liegt (vgl. EZB 2003, S. 89), wenn also eine Inflationsrate in Höhe von nicht mehr als zwei Prozent gegeben ist. Wenn jedoch der reale Wert des Vermögens nicht einmal mehr bei Einhaltung des wirtschaftspolitischen Zieles der Preisniveaustabilität gewährleistet ist, dann muss damit gerechnet werden, dass die Akzeptanz dieses wichtigen wirtschaftspolitischen Zieles in der Bevölkerung abnimmt. Zum anderen schwinden bei niedrigen Zinsen, zumal wenn diese unter der Inflationsrate liegen, die volkswirtschaftlich wichtigen Anreize zu sparen. Zumindest aber wird die Bereitschaft, Mittel längerfristig anzulegen zurückgehen. So lassen sich im Euro-Währungsgebiet seit 2012 starke Rückgänge in praktisch allen längerfristigen Anlageformen bei den Geschäftsbanken feststellen, wohingegen die täglich fälligen Einlagen stark expandieren (vgl. EZB 2013 c, S. S13).

Die in Niedrigstzinsphasen zu beobachtende Tendenz, Mittel verstärkt nur ganz kurzfristig in täglich fälligen Einlagen bei Banken anzulegen erschwert dem finanziellen Sektor die im gesamtwirtschaftlichen Finanzierungsprozess sehr wichtige Aufgabe der sogenannten Fristentransformation (vgl. Duwendag, Ketterer, Kösters, Pohl, Simmert 1999, S.107/108). Dabei formt der finanzielle Sektor die von den Überschusseinheiten (Private Haushalte) bei ihm kurzfristig und liquide eingelegten Mittel in langfristige Kredite für die Defiziteinheiten (Unternehmen) um. Je kurzfristiger dabei die Mittelanlage ist, desto riskanter wird die Fristentransformation für die Banken, wenn es gilt, die notwendige laufende Refinanzierung der langfristigen Kreditvergaben zu sichern. Tendenzen zur kurzfristigen Mittelanlage können somit die Stabilität des Bankensektors gefährden.

Eine Niedrigstzinspolitik der Zentralbanken birgt jedoch noch weitere Risiken. So schaffen niedrige Zinsen verstärkt Anreize, langfristig unrentable Investitionen zu realisieren. Dies sind Investitionen, die nur sehr geringe interne Renditen aufweisen und die schon bei geringfügigen Zinssteigerungen unrentabel werden. Dadurch

erhöht sich nicht nur das Insolvenzrisiko von Unternehmen, sondern es werden auch die längerfristigen Wachstumsperspektiven von Volkswirtschaften geschmälert. In diesem Zusammenhang kann man beispielsweise auf die Spanische Immobilienkrise in den 2000er Jahren verweisen. Ausgelöst durch niedrige Zinsen wurde ohne Rücksicht auf die langfristige Rentabilität und den Bedarf an Immobilien ein kreditfinanzierter Bauinvestitionsboom entfacht, an dessen Ende, nach Platzen der Immobilienpreisblase, eine Fülle an ungenutzten Bauruinen, an Unternehmensinsolvenzen, an Kreditausfällen und schließlich eine gravierende Finanz- und Bankenkrise standen.

Darüber hinaus bieten extrem niedrige Zinsen, und damit eine Politik des billigen Geldes, starke Anreize, die Verschuldung von privaten Haushalten und von öffentlichen Haushalten zu erhöhen. Damit wirken sie einer Lösung der Verschuldungskrise im Euro-Währungsraum sogar entgegen. Denn um die Verschuldungskrise im Euro-Währungsraum zu lösen sind in den betroffenen Ländern harte Anpassungsprozesse und Strukturreformen erforderlich. Für den dafür nötigen Reformdruck setzen niedrige Zinsen jedoch ein falsches Signal. So sind Niedrigzinsen selbst nach Auffassung des Präsidenten der Deutschen Bundesbank und Mitglied des EZB-Rates „...nicht ohne Nebenwirkungen, (...) Sie verführen zum Beispiel dazu, Reformen und den notwendigen Strukturwandel (zur Verringerung der Staatsverschuldung, Anm. d. Verf.), aufzuschieben. Finanzstabilitätsrisiken können sich aufbauen. Diese Nebenwirkungen nehmen mit der Dauer der Niedrigzinsphase zu.“ (Weidmann 2013).

Schließlich besteht bei einer anhaltenden Niedrigstzinspolitik der Zentralbanken das Risiko, dass sich die Kapitalanleger verstärkt renditeträchtigeren und damit im Normalfall riskanteren Anlageformen zuwenden: „Auf der Suche nach einem Renditeplus treiben Investoren nach und nach die Kurse in anderen Anlageformen immer weiter nach oben, so dass auch dort die Ertragschancen abnehmen. Damit steigt bei einer längeren Niedrigzinsphase auch die Gefahr von Vermögenspreisblasen...“ (Bargel 2013, S. 6). Ein Platzen dieser spekulativ getriebenen und nicht durch Fundamentalfaktoren begründeten Vermögenspreisblasen kann dann der Auslöser von erneuten Finanz- und Wirtschaftskrisen sein, in deren Folge es über staatliche Hilfsprogramme letztlich auch zu einem Anstieg der Staatsverschuldung kommen kann. Bezüglich der aktuellen Krisen im Euro-Währungsraum könnte es deshalb angebrachter sein, in die folgende Richtung zu denken: „Die Politik des billigen Geldes hat maßgeblich zur Entstehung der Krise beigetragen. Umgekehrt heißt das: Wir können die Krise nur überwinden, wenn wir Geld wieder einen ordentlichen Preis geben.“ (Krämer 2013, S.48).

Die größten Gefahren einer dauerhaften Niedrigstzinspolitik gehen jedoch von dem Gewöhnungseffekt an niedrige Zinsen aus. Niedrige Zinsen werden praktisch als Normalzustand angesehen und nicht als außergewöhnliche, zeitlich eng befristete Besonderheit zur Abwehr von extremen Krisensituationen. Je mehr sich die Wirtschaftsteilnehmer mit ihren Anlage- und Investitionsentscheidungen an diesen vermeintlichen „Normalzustand“ orientieren und anpassen, umso mehr werden dann

Zinssteigerungen als generell schädlich für die Wirtschaftsentwicklung beurteilt und auch wahrgenommen. In so einem Umfeld wächst natürlich der öffentliche Druck auf die Geldpolitik, möglichst lange Zinserhöhungen und die damit befürchteten negativen wirtschaftlichen Nebenwirkungen zu vermeiden. Deshalb ist nicht auszuschließen, dass hinter der aktuell von der Geldpolitik ins Feld geführten und oben beschriebenen Maßnahme der „Forward Guidance“ auch ein eher unbeabsichtigtes Signal der Zentralbanken gesehen werden kann, sich einem solchen Druck tatsächlich zu beugen. So konnte man bereits im Rahmen der Entstehung und Ausweitung der europäischen Schuldenkrise beobachten, wie schon geringe Zinssteigerungen in einzelnen Ländern unmittelbar den Druck zur Implementierung von umfangreichen Hilfsmaßnahmen und das Aufspannen von immer größer werdenden Rettungsschirmen ausgelöst haben, weil man vorschnell glaubte, dass die betroffenen Länder selbst leichte Zinserhöhungen nicht verkraften könnten. (vgl. Rohde 2012, S. 242 ff). Schließlich lassen sich selbst die strittigen Anleihekaufprogramme der Zentralbanken durchaus auch in diesen Kontext einordnen, nämlich niedrige Zinsen flächendeckend zu gewährleisten, bzw. sich gegen punktuelle oder in einzelnen Kapitalmarktsegmenten einzelner Länder auftretende Zinserhöhungen zu stemmen. In diesem Zusammenhang sind im Rahmen der aktuellen Geldpolitik des Eurosystems die äußerst konträren Standpunkte oder Sichtweisen von Europäischer Zentralbank und Deutscher Bundesbank hinsichtlich der Notwendigkeit von Anleihekäufen von Interesse.

4. Anleihekäufe des Eurosystems im Spiegel der Sichtweisen von Europäischer Zentralbank und Deutscher Bundesbank

Die konträren Auffassungen von Europäischer Zentralbank und Deutscher Bundesbank zu den Anleihekäufen offenbarten im Vorfeld und während der öffentlichen Anhörungen vor dem deutschen Bundesverfassungsgericht Mitte Juni 2013 anlässlich der Verfassungsbeschwerden, die sich u. a. gegen das EZB-Programm zum Ankauf von Staatsanleihen (Outright Monetary Transactions – OMT) vom September 2012 richteten, ein tiefes Zerwürfnis zwischen EZB und Deutscher Bundesbank. Vorläufer der geldpolitischen Outright Geschäfte (OMT) war das vom EZB-Rat bereits im Mai 2010 beschlossene und umgesetzte Programm für die Wertpapiermärkte (Securities Market Programme – SMP), in dessen Rahmen von der EZB für ungefähr 210 Mrd. Euro Staatsanleihen gekauft wurden. Im Umfeld dieses Ankaufsprogramms für Staatsanleihen (SMP) traten sowohl der Präsident der Deutschen Bundesbank, Weber, als auch das deutsche Mitglied im Direktorium der EZB, Stark, zum 30.04.2011 bzw. zum 31.12.2011 vorzeitig von ihren Ämtern zurück. Mit den Beschlüssen zu dem OMT-Programm im September 2012 wurde das Programm für die Wertpapiermärkte offiziell beendet

Mit dem OMT-Programm hat sich die EZB bereit erklärt, Staatsanleihen von Mitgliedstaaten des Euro-Währungsgebietes mit Restlaufzeiten von 1 bis 3 Jahren ggf. unbegrenzt aufzukaufen, wobei die durch die Ankäufe geschaffene Liquidität, wie schon im Rahmen des vorangehenden Programms für die Wertpapiermärkte, vollständig neutralisiert bzw. sterilisiert werden soll. (vgl. EZB 2012 a, S. 7 ff. und Schorkopf 2013, S. 18 f.). Solche Ankäufe von Staatsanleihen sind allerdings an drei

Bedingungen geknüpft. Erstens müssen sich die betroffenen Länder zu strukturellen, haushalts- und fiskalpolitischen Reformen im Rahmen eines makroökonomischen Anpassungsprogramms, das über den Europäischen Stabilitätsmechanismus (ESM) abgewickelt wird, verpflichten. Dabei spricht man auch von Konditionalität. Sofern ein Land gegen die Auflagen dieser Anpassungsprogramme, also gegen die strikte Einhaltung der Konditionalität, verstößt, hat sich die EZB vorbehalten, die Käufe von Anleihen sofort einzustellen. Zweitens müssen die in Frage kommenden Länder noch Zugang zum Anleihemarkt haben oder sie müssen zumindest dabei sein, wieder Zugang zur Marktfinanzierung zu erlangen. Drittens muss für die Durchführung der Anleihekäufe eine Störung des geldpolitischen Transmissionsmechanismus vorliegen

Eine solche Störung der geldpolitischen Transmission ihrer monetären Impulse sieht die EZB dann als gegeben an, wenn sich ihre über Leitzinsänderungen auf den Weg gebrachten Zinsimpulse nicht gleichgerichtet auf allen Finanzmärkten in allen Ländern der Eurozone niederschlagen. Kommt es nämlich in einzelnen Euro-Ländern zu abweichenden Zinsentwicklungen, dann sieht die EZB darin eine Gefährdung der „...Einheitlichkeit der Geldpolitik der Europäischen Zentralbank im Euro-Währungsgebiet.“ (Schorkopf 2013, S. 20). Die EZB spricht dann auch von einer Fragmentierung der Finanzmärkte, durch die die Wirksamkeit der Geldpolitik beeinträchtigt wird (vgl. EZB 2013 d, S. 92 ff.). Dies ist nach Auffassung der EZB z. B. dann der Fall, wenn sich aus der Furcht der Teilnehmer auf den Staatsanleihemärkten vor einem Auseinanderbrechen des Euro-Währungsraumes erhebliche Risikoaufschläge (Reversibilitätsprämien) bei den Zinsen bestimmter Staatsanleihen einstellen (vgl. Schorkopf 2013, S. 20). Das zentrale Element des OMT-Ankaufsprogramms für Staatsanleihen besteht nach Auffassung der EZB darin, die Übertragung ihrer Leitzinsimpulse, auch unter derartigen spekulativen Bedingungen, auf die Zinsentwicklungen in allen Ländern des Euro-Währungsraumes sicherzustellen (vgl. Schorkopf 2013, S. 23).

Eine völlig andere Einschätzung vertritt die Deutsche Bundesbank in ihrer schriftlichen Stellungnahme bei der Anhörung vor dem Bundesverfassungsgericht, obwohl auch sie bestätigt, dass Anleihekäufe durch die Zentralbanken am Sekundärmarkt „...unbestreitbar einen temporären Rückgang von Risikoaufschlägen ermöglichen.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S.10). Zum einen stellt sie aber in Frage, ob die abweichenden Renditen von Staatsanleihen tatsächlich als eine Störung der geldpolitischen Transmission angesehen werden können (vgl. Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S. 6). Die Deutsche Bundesbank begründet dies, indem sie feststellt, dass man von einer Störung der geldpolitischen Transmission zwar dann sprechen kann, „... wenn etwaige geldpolitische Impulse nicht ihre hinsichtlich Vorzeichen, Zeitprofil oder Stärke ‚normale‘ oder ‚üblicherweise zu erwartende‘ Wirkung hervorrufen. (...) Allerdings ist nicht feststellbar, ob eine derzeit beobachtbare Abweichung eine temporäre Störung oder eine fundamental begründbare langfristige Änderung der geldpolitischen Transmission darstellt, weil sich die ökonomischen Rahmenbedingungen geändert haben, so dass die unterstellte Konstanz in den Wirkungszusammenhängen nicht mehr gegeben ist. Letzteres

würde nicht rechtfertigen, von einer Störung zu sprechen.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S. 6).

Zum anderen hat die Bundesbank vor dem Bundesverfassungsgericht die Frage aufgeworfen, ob selbst beim Vorliegen einer derartigen von der EZB beschriebenen Störung des geldpolitischen Transmissionsmechanismus eine solche Störung überhaupt behoben werden muss und ob und warum dies unbedingt eine Aufgabe der Geldpolitik sein sollte (vgl. Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S. 9). Wörtlich führt die Bundesbank dazu aus: „Letztlich sind, solange Wirtschafts- und Finanzpolitiken in der nationalen Eigenverantwortung verbleiben, wirtschaftliche Entwicklungen in den verschiedenen Ländern mit potenziell unterschiedlichen Risiken verbunden. Diese Unterschiede rechtfertigen auch unterschiedliche Risikoprämien bei privaten Kreditbeziehungen. Der auf den Euro-Raum als Ganzes gerichtete geldpolitische (Zins)Impuls kann insofern durch länderspezifische Entwicklungen überlagert werden, ohne dass dies eine Irrationalität darstellen und geldpolitischen Handlungsbedarf begründen muss. Die Einheitlichkeit der Geldpolitik innerhalb des Eurosystems steht deshalb solchen Maßnahmen und Entscheidungen entgegen, die lediglich auf die Behebung nationaler Störungen ausgerichtet sind.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S.9).

Auch hinsichtlich der Auswirkungen der erforderlichen Konditionalität, also der Verpflichtung der Länder, strukturelle, haushalts- und fiskalpolitische Reformen umzusetzen, um die Voraussetzung für die Anwendung des OMT-Programms zu erfüllen, bestehen tiefgreifende Auffassungsunterschiede zwischen der EZB und der Deutschen Bundesbank. So geht die EZB davon aus, dass durch die überprüfte Umsetzung der Reformen, die betroffenen Mitgliedstaaten die Insolvenzbefürchtungen der Marktteilnehmer, die sich in den Risikoaufschlägen auf die Renditen der Staatsschuldtitel niederschlagen, auf Dauer zerstreuen würden, und dass allein dadurch die geldpolitische Transmission verbessert würde (vgl. Schorkopf 2013, S. 24). Dem hält die Deutsche Bundesbank entgegen, dass zentral für diese Vorstellung der EZB die Annahme ist, „...dass die im Rahmen eines umfangreichen politischen Kompromisses und eines bestimmten Informationsstandes erzielten Programmvereinbarungen in der Sache realistisch sind und daher rationale Anleger überzeugen müssen. Der Fall Griechenland führt vor Augen, dass eine Programmvereinbarung eine Zahlungsunfähigkeit nicht auszuschließen vermag. (...) Auf jeden Fall ist es überaus ambitioniert, vor dem Hintergrund der bisherigen Erfahrungen zu argumentieren, die Geldpolitik könne die Erhaltung der Konditionalität in jedem Fall voraussetzen und auf dieser Grundlage gewährleisten, dass das jeweilige Land solvent bleibt und die Risikoaufschläge fundamental gerechtfertigt zurückgehen (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S. 10).

Mit detaillierten Verweisen auf die umfangreiche Liquiditätsbereitstellung an Griechenland, vor dem Hintergrund einer drohenden Zahlungsunfähigkeit im August 2012, stellt die Deutsche Bundesbank zudem die Ankündigung der EZB in Frage, bei Nichteinhaltung der Konditionalität den Ankauf von Staatsanleihen sofort zu stoppen (vgl. Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S. 15 f.). Die Erfahrungen mit Griechenland hätten gezeigt, dass die Geldpolitik „... die Finanzierung eines Staates

durch die Bereitstellung von Liquidität ermöglicht (hat), obwohl die Konditionalitäten eines fiskalischen Hilfsprogramms nicht eingehalten wurden und die Finanzpolitik die Auszahlung weiterer Hilfen gestoppt hatte. Diese Erfahrungen begründen auch Befürchtungen, dass der Umgang mit Konditionalität im Rahmen des OTM-Programms selbst in zweifelhaften Fällen nicht vor erheblichen Käufen (...) schützen kann.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S.16.).

Unabhängig von der eigentlich sehr wichtigen Frage, warum die Deutsche Bundesbank, als integraler Bestandteil des Eurosystems, diese unterschiedlichen Auffassungen bzw. dieses tiefe Zerwürfnis derart in die Öffentlichkeit getragen hat und unabhängig davon, welche Absicht sie letztlich damit konkret verfolgt, zeigt die scharfe Kontroverse zwischen EZB und Deutscher Bundesbank jedoch eines sehr deutlich, dass nämlich die aktuelle Geldpolitik des Eurosystems nicht mehr nur von außen, sondern auch von innen zunehmend kritischer betrachtet wird. Im Kern geht es dabei jedoch nicht nur um die Durchführung der aktuellen Geldpolitik des Eurosystems, sondern auch um die strategische Grundausrichtung der Geldpolitik im Allgemeinen. Das heißt, es geht um die Frage, welche Rolle sollen die Zinsen in der Geldpolitik spielen. Sollen, wie im Rahmen der aktuell dominierenden Zinsorientierung der Geldpolitik, die Zentralbanken das gesamte Zinsspektrum über alle Finanzmärkte unter ihre direkte Kontrolle bringen, was letztlich auch den Ankauf von Staatsanleihen als geldpolitische Maßnahme zur Zinssteuerung beinhaltet. Oder soll die Geldpolitik davon ausgehen, dass zumindest die längerfristigen Zinsen an den Finanzmärkten sich einer direkten Kontrolle oder Steuerung durch die Zentralbanken entziehen können. Das würde bedeuten, dass die Geldpolitik eben nicht bei jeglicher Zinssteigerung in einem Marktsegment sofort gefordert ist, Gegenmaßnahmen zu ergreifen. Letzteres deckt sich mit der Auffassung der Deutschen Bundesbank, die der Meinung ist, dass zumindest die langfristigen Zinsen allenfalls nur indirekt durch die Geldpolitik beeinflusst werden können. Dies hat sie wie folgt vor dem Bundesverfassungsgericht zum Ausdruck gebracht: „Die Zinssätze für längere Laufzeiten (beispielsweise Renditen von Staatsanleihen oder langfristige Kreditzinsen) werden durch die Änderungen der Geldmarktsätze nur mittelbar beeinflusst, denn für die längerfristigen Marktzinssätze spielen die Erwartungen der Marktteilnehmer eine entscheidende Rolle. So werden die langfristigen Marktzinssätze zu einem bedeutenden Anteil von den Erwartungen der Marktteilnehmer zur langfristigen Wachstums- und Inflationsentwicklung und somit von den langfristigen Perspektiven einer Volkswirtschaft (oder eines Währungsraums) bestimmt. Entsprechend spiegeln sich in den längerfristigen Marktzinssätzen die Erwartungen hinsichtlich zukünftiger Leitzinsen und damit dem erwarteten geldpolitischen Kurs wider. Im Ergebnis schlagen Änderungen der Leitzinsen erst dann auf längerfristige Marktzinssätze durch, wenn sie zu einer Veränderung der Markterwartungen hinsichtlich der langfristigen Preis- und Wirtschaftsentwicklung führen.“ (Deutsche Bundesbank 2012, S.4).

Auf der anderen Seite nimmt die EZB für die Richtigkeit ihrer Vorgehensweise für sich in Anspruch, dass allein mit der Verkündung des OTM-Programms Ruhe an die Märkte innerhalb der Europäischen Währungsunion zurückgekehrt ist, was nicht zuletzt an den deutlichen Rückbildungen der Risikoprämien in den Renditen von

Staatsanleihen zu erkennen ist, und zwar ohne, dass bislang (September 2013) auch nur eine Staatsanleihe gekauft werden musste. So führt die EZB in ihrem Jahresbericht 2012 aus: „Die Ankündigungen im Zusammenhang mit den OTM-Geschäften trugen zu einer Entspannung an den Finanzmärkten bei und minderten im zweiten Halbjahr 2012 die Tail-Risks wie auch die herrschende Unsicherheit, was zu einer allgemeinen Verbesserung der Finanzierungsbedingungen führte. Dies manifestierte sich unter anderem in rückläufigen Staatsanleiherenditen finanziell angeschlagener Länder (..) und der Emission neuer Anleihen durch Banken, Unternehmen und Staaten, die seit einiger Zeit keinen Zugang zu den Märkten gehabt hatten.“ (EZB 2013, S. 16). Allerdings bleibt abzuwarten, wie lange der Ankündigungseffekt Wirkung zeigt und ob das Programm auch dann die von der EZB erhoffte Marktberuhigung gewährleisten kann, wenn die mit dem Programm bekundete Absicht zu notfalls unbegrenzten Käufen von Staatsanleihen von den Märkten einem Test unterzogen wird. Anlass dazu könnten die im Jahre 2014 bereits zur Verlängerung anstehenden oder auslaufenden oder möglicherweise neuen Rettungsprogramme für Griechenland, Irland, Portugal und Slowenien sein, eine erneute Verschärfung der Bankenkrise in Spanien oder aber die mangelnden Reformanstrengungen in Italien und in Frankreich (vgl. Mussler 2013, S. 11).

5. Bewertende Schlussfolgerungen

Welche Schlussfolgerungen sind nun aus der aktuellen Geldpolitik des Eurosystems zu ziehen? Zunächst ist festzuhalten, dass die sehr expansive Geldpolitik des Eurosystems keine Besonderheit für den Euro-Währungsraum darstellt, vielmehr sind momentan die Geldpolitiken in allen führenden Industrieländern vergleichbar expansiv oder sogar noch expansiver ausgerichtet. Die Vorstellung, dass die Geldpolitik in wirtschaftlichen Krisensituationen derart expansiv zu sein hat, ergibt sich aus der heute dominierenden Zinsorientierung der Geldpolitik, die vorrangig auf eine unmittelbare Konjunktursteuerung abzielt. Im Falle von Konjunkturabschwüngen oder Wirtschaftskrisen gehören schnelle und drastische Zinssenkungen zum Normalprogramm einer zinsorientierten Geldpolitik. Dabei sieht man allerdings die Möglichkeiten der Zinspolitik bei Realzinsen von Null Prozent bei weitem noch nicht ausgeschöpft. Leitzinsen von nahe Null, von Null oder sogar negative Leitzinsen stellen dann die weiteren Schritte einer expansiven Zinspolitik dar.

Und sollten auch derart drastische Zinssenkungen noch nicht zu einer Anregung der gesamtwirtschaftlichen Investitionsnachfrage führen, dann besteht unter den Anhängern dieser Politik zumindest die Erwartung und Hoffnung, dass über eine dadurch induzierte Währungsabwertung und eine damit verbundene Förderung des Exportsektors sowie der importkonkurrierenden Bereiche einer Volkswirtschaft expansive Nachfrageimpulse ausgelöst werden können. „Die Notenbank (die EZB, Anm. d. Verf.) sollte eine Nullzinspolitik wie die Briten und Amerikaner machen. Dadurch sinkt der Euro-Wechselkurs, was die Wettbewerbsfähigkeit (...) verbessert.“ (Fuest 2012, S. 30). Eine zentrale Lehre aus der großen Weltwirtschaftskrise 1929 bis 1931, dass nämlich gezielt herbeigeführte Währungsabwertungen als eine Form der Beggarmy-neighbor-Politik ein

untaugliches und vor allem gefährliches Instrument der Wirtschaftspolitik darstellen, um die Wettbewerbsfähigkeit einer Volkswirtschaft zu steigern, scheint heute in Vergessenheit geraten zu sein. Köhler hat die Gefährlichkeit, über Abwertungen die Wettbewerbsfähigkeit einer Volkswirtschaft zu steigern wie folgt beschrieben: „Zu einer solchen beggar my neighbor policy gehört eine bewusst zugelassene oder herbeigeführte Abwertung der eigenen Währung, mit der die Ausfuhr des eigenen Landes angeregt werden soll, um Arbeitslosigkeit zu beseitigen. Die höheren Einfuhren in den Partnerländern tragen dort dazu bei, die Beschäftigung zu verringern. Arbeitslosigkeit wird exportiert. In den dreißiger Jahren geschah dies. Die Länder übertrafen sich gegenseitig in Abwertungen. Der Abwertungswetlauf führte schließlich zum Zusammenbruch des internationalen Währungssystems.“ (Köhler 1983, S. 226). Diese Erkenntnisse sind heute offensichtlich aus dem Erfahrungs- und Wissensschatz vieler Ökonomen und Wirtschaftspolitiker weitgehend ausgeblendet. Ganz abgesehen davon, würde eine geldpolitisch herbeigeführte Abwertung z.B. des Euro „...nur die wahren Ursachen der Wettbewerbsschwäche vieler Länder der Eurozone verdecken. Spätestens bei einer Aufwertung der heimischen Währung treten die strukturellen Probleme dann wieder zu Tage.“ (Bargel 2013, S. 6).

Um die Erwartungen der Marktteilnehmer zu zerstreuen, dass eine derart expansive Zinspolitik vielleicht nur kurzfristig Bestand haben könnte, und weil man glaubt, die Investitionsnachfrage wird nur dann angeregt, wenn Zinssenkungen von Dauer sind, wird heute zusätzlich zur Maßnahme der sogenannten Forward Guidance gegriffen. Darüber soll den Märkten die Gewissheit vermittelt werden, dass die Geldpolitik über einen längeren Zeitraum unverändert expansiv bleibt. Aus Sorge, dass auch das von den Märkten nicht richtig eingeordnet werden kann, empfiehlt z.B. der mit „führenden Volkswirten“ besetzte sogenannte Handelsblatt-Schattenrat, der im Vorfeld von EZB-Ratssitzungen, Vorschläge für das geldpolitisch erforderliche Handeln der EZB erörtert, dass die EZB den Märkten etwa auf drei Jahre hinaus signalisieren sollte, dass sie momentan nur ein geringes Wachstum und eine niedrige Inflation erwartet. „Daraus könnten Investoren ableiten, dass eine Zinserhöhung in den nächsten zwei bis drei Jahren sehr unwahrscheinlich ist.“ (Benders 2013, S. 30). Deutlicher kann man den augenblicklich herrschenden, scheinbar allumfassenden Machbarkeitsglauben, der der zinsorientierten Geldpolitik zugeschrieben wird, wohl nicht zum Ausdruck bringen..

Eine weitere Erkenntnis aus der aktuellen Geldpolitik ist, dass die Bedeutung von monetären Mengenaggregaten im Rahmen der Zinsfokussierung in den Hintergrund rückt (vgl. Rohde und Kurth 2009). Insofern werden ein mengenmäßig praktisch unbegrenzter und fast kostenloser Zugang der Geschäftsbanken zum Zentralbankgeld (Mengentenderverfahren mit Vollzuteilung und mit Laufzeiten von bis zu drei Jahren), eine Verringerung bzw. Halbierung der Mindestreservepflicht, gegebenenfalls ergänzt, wie z.B. in den USA, in Japan oder in England, mit erheblichen „Quantitativen Erleichterungen“ als notwendige und sinnvolle Ergänzung der Niedrigstzinspolitik angesehen. Aufkommende Befürchtungen, dass auf diese Weise ein enormes Inflationspotenzial entstehen könnte, versucht man u. a. mit Hinweisen auf das in absehbarer Zeit noch schwache Wirtschaftswachstum zu

zerstreuen, ohne zu erkennen, dass man damit eigentlich die Wirksamkeit der verfolgten expansiven Politik in Frage stellt.

Schließlich wird eine Rückkehr zu einer normalen Geldpolitik mit wieder höheren Zinssätzen umso schwieriger, je länger die Niedrigstzinspolitik anhält. Das liegt z.B. an den Fehlanreizen, die durch niedrigste Zinsen gegeben werden. Wenn diese nämlich, wie oben im Rahmen der Gefahren einer dauerhaften Niedrigstzinspolitik beschrieben, zu unrentablen Investitionen, zur zunehmenden Verschuldung privater und öffentlicher Haushalte, zu einem verminderten Reformdruck, um Schulden abzubauen und um die Wettbewerbsfähigkeit zu steigern sowie, auf der Suche nach renditeträchtigeren, aber auch risikoträchtigeren Anlageformen, zu Vermögenspreisblasen führen, dann ergeben sich bei Zinssteigerungen unmittelbar immer größer werdende wirtschaftliche Schwierigkeiten. Unternehmen mit unrentablen Investitionen drohen Verluste, höher verschuldeten Haushalten droht Zahlungsunfähigkeit, nicht wettbewerbsfähige Unternehmen werden vom Markt verdrängt, ein Platzen von Preisblasen kann schließlich eine unvorhersehbare Kette von Problemen auslösen. Vor dem Hintergrund solcher unmittelbar drohender wirtschaftlicher Schwierigkeiten wird der Druck auf die Geldpolitik steigen, an der expansiven Ausrichtung festzuhalten. Dies gilt umso mehr, wenn sich die Geldpolitik ausdrücklich der Konjunktursteuerung verschreiben hat.

Ein aktuelles Beispiel dafür ist die augenblickliche Situation in den großen Schwellenländern, wie z.B. in Brasilien, Russland, Indien und Südafrika, die, neben China, zu den sogenannten BRICS-Staaten gehören. Als Folge der anhaltenden Niedrigstzinspolitiken und der massiven Liquiditätsbereitstellungen der großen Zentralbanken floss, auf der Suche nach renditeträchtigeren Anlagen, zunehmend Kapital in die großen Schwellenländer. Die Folge davon waren starke Währungsaufwertungen in diesen Ländern und ebenfalls starke Anstiege der Vermögensindizes. Durch den reichlichen Kapitalzufluss ließen sich die infolge der Aufwertungen noch weiter steigenden Leistungsbilanzdefizite dieser Länder problemlos finanzieren. Dadurch konnten diese Länder ihre Wachstumspolitik weiter forcieren, was weiteres Kapital anlockte. Dann aber reichte bereits die bloße und vage Ankündigung der amerikanischen Zentralbank, dass sie im Laufe des Jahres das Volumen ihrer monatlichen Ankäufe von Wertpapieren verringern könnte. Die Folge waren leichte Steigerungen der längerfristigen Zinsen in den USA, aber auch in Europa. Das führte unmittelbar zu starken Kapitalabzügen aus den Schwellenländern, wodurch es dort zu starken Einbrüchen an den Aktienmärkten und an den Devisenmärkten gekommen ist, deren Ende noch nicht abzusehen ist. Dies veranlasste die OECD, eine Warnung vor der Abkehr von der lockeren Geldpolitik auszusprechen (Vgl. Handelsblatt, 4.9.2013, S. 9). Zudem konnte man von Ängsten lesen, die US-Notenbank könnte die Weltwirtschaft in eine neue Krise führen (vgl. Handelsblatt, 4.9.2013, S. 48).

Insgesamt legt das den Schluss nahe, dass sich die Geldpolitik mit ihrer konsequenten Zinsorientierung auf einem Irrweg befindet. Diese Art der Geldpolitik überschätzt ihre Fähigkeiten und mutet sich deshalb zu viel zu. Die Erfahrungen mit der Niedrigstzinspolitik in Japan seit Mitte der 1990er Jahre, mit der man die

wirtschaftlichen Folgen des Platzens einer Immobilienpreisblase bis heute nicht richtig in den Griff bekommen hat. Die Erfahrungen in den USA und in Europa wo man Anfang der 2000er Jahre die Folgen des Platzens der sogenannten Dotcom-Blase ebenfalls mit einer lang anhaltenden Niedrigstzins-Geldpolitik zu bekämpfen suchte, was dann aber den Keim für das Entstehen der sogenannten Subprimekrise im Jahr 2007 in den USA legte, durch die dann die internationale Finanz- und Wirtschaftskrise ausgelöst wurde, deren Folgen man bis heute noch mit einer extremen Niedrigstzinspolitik bekämpft. Schließlich führten Anfang 2010 in Europa nicht zuletzt die Folgen der Bekämpfung der internationalen Finanz- und Wirtschaftskrise zum Ausbruch der europäischen Schuldenkrise, für deren Ausweitung, wie an anderer Stelle gezeigt, der Paradigmawechsel in der Geldpolitik zur Zinsorientierung durchaus auch seinen Anteil hat (Vgl. Rohde 2012). Insofern sollte man die Möglichkeiten der Geldpolitik nicht überschätzen. Es gibt Grenzen der Geldpolitik, die man akzeptieren muss. Während man im Rahmen der geldmengenzielorientierten Geldpolitik die Möglichkeiten der Geldpolitik wesentlich zu gering eingeschätzt hat, weil man glaubte, dass die Geldpolitik keine konjunkturpolitische Verantwortung übernehmen könnte, sondern ausschließlich über die Kontrolle der Geldmenge für Preisniveaustabilität zu sorgen hätte, schätzt man heute, im Rahmen der Zinsorientierung die Möglichkeiten der Geldpolitik zu hoch ein.

Literaturverzeichnis

1. Bank für Internationalen Zahlungsausgleich (BIZ 2001), 71. Jahresbericht, Basel, Juni 2001.
2. **Bargel, Marco** (2013), Thema des Monats: Kann sich die EZB wirklich von der US-Geldpolitik abkoppeln?, in Postbank Research Spezial, August 2013, www.postbank.de/research
3. **Benders, Rolf** (2013), Berechenbar wie Bernanke, in Handelsblatt, 3.9.2013, Nr. 169, S.30.
4. Deutsche Bundesbank (2012), Stellungnahme gegenüber dem Bundesverfassungsgericht zu den Verfahren mit den Az. 2 BvR 1390/12, 2 BvR 1421/12, 2 BvR 1439/12, 2 BvR 1824/12, 2 BvE 6/12, vom 21. Dezember 2012.
5. Deutsche Bundesbank (2013 a), Einleitende Bemerkungen vom Mario Draghi, Präsident der Europäischen Zentralbank, anlässlich der Pressekonferenz der EZB in Frankfurt am Main, am 4. Juli 2013, in: Auszüge aus Presseartikeln, Nr. 29, Frankfurt am Main, vom 10. Juli 2013, S.5.
6. Deutsche Bundesbank (2013 b), „Forward Guidance“ – Orientierung über die zukünftige Ausrichtung der Geldpolitik, in: Monatsbericht August 2013, 65. Jg., Nr. 8, S. 31 – 33.
7. **Duwendag, Dieter; Ketterer, Karl-Heinz; Kösters, Wim; Pohl, Rüdiger; Simmert, Diethard** (1999), Geldtheorie und Geldpolitik in Europa, 5., neubearbeitete Auflage, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York 1999.
8. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2003), Ergebnis der von der EZB durchgeführten Überprüfung ihrer geldpolitischen Strategie, in: Monatsbericht Juni 2003, S. 87-102.

9. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2012), Vom EZB-Rat am 6. September 2012 beschlossenen geldpolitische Maßnahmen, in: Monatbericht September 2012, S. 7-12.
10. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2013), Wirtschaftsentwicklung und Geldpolitik, I. Geldpolitische Beschlüsse, in: Jahresbericht 2012, Frankfurt am Main 2013, S. 13 – 16.
11. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2013 a), Introductory statement to the press conference (with Q&A), Bratislava, 2. May 2013.
www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pressconf/2013/html/is130502.en.html
12. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2013 b), Introductory statement to the press conference (with Q&A), Frankfurt am Main, 4. July 2013.
www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pressconf/2013/html/is130704.en.html
13. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2013 c), Monatbericht August 2013, Statistischer Teil, S. S13.
14. Europäische Zentralbank (EZB 2013 d), Beurteilung der Zinsweitergabe im Kundengeschäft der Banken im Euro-Währungsgebiet in Zeiten fragmentierter Finanzmärkte, in Monatsbericht August 2013, S. 83 – 101.
15. **Fuest, Clemens** (2012), „Wir brauchen eine Nullzinspolitik“, in: Süddeutsche Zeitung, 30.08.2012, Nr. 200, S. 30.
16. **Gischer, Horst; Herz, Bernhard; Menkhoff, Lukas** (2012), Geld, Kredit und Banken. Eine Einführung, 3., aktualisierte und erweiterte Auflage, Heidelberg, Dordrecht, London, New York 2012.
17. **Görgens, Egon; Ruckriegel, Karlheinz; Seitz, Franz** (2008), Europäische Geldpolitik, Theorie, Empirie, Praxis, 5., völlig neu bearbeitete Auflage, Stuttgart 2008.
18. iwd (2013 a), In der Zinsfalle, in: Informationen aus dem Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln, 39. Jg., Ausgabe 23, 6.6.2013, S. 6 – 7.
19. iwd (2013 b), Hoffen auf ein Signal aus Frankfurt, in: Informationen aus dem Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln, 39. Jg., Ausgabe 34, 22.8..2013, S. 3.
20. **Köhler, Claus** (1983), Geldwirtschaft Dritter Band, Wirtschaftspolitische Ziele und wirtschaftspolitische Strategie, Berlin 1983.
21. **Krämer, Jörg** (2013), Geld braucht einen Preis, Gastkommentar im Handelsblatt, Nr.84, 02.05.2013, S. 48.
22. **Mussler, Werner** (2013), Es geht nicht nur um Griechenland, in Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 4.9.2013, Nr. 205, S. 11.
23. Nordea, Denmark Update, Negative interest rates – the Danish experience, in Nordea Research, 30. April 2013.
24. **Rohde, Armin** (1985), Mengensteuerung und Zinssteuerung. Eine Analyse monetärer Steuerungsstrategien, Berlin 1985.
25. **Rohde, Armin und Kurt, Susan** (2009), The Role of the Quantity of Money in the Current Monetary Policy of the Eurosystem, in: Prause, G., Muravska, T. (Eds), Baltic Business and Socio-Economic Development 2008, Berlin 2009, S. 185 – 193.
26. **Rohde, Armin** (2012), Wandel in der Geldpolitik und Ausweitung der europäischen Schuldenkrise, in: Universität Tartu, Technische Universität Tallinn u.a. (Hrsg.), Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik: Aktuelle

Probleme der EU-Mitgliedstaaten, 20. Jg. 2/2012, Berliner Wissenschaftsverlag, Mattimar, Berlin, Tallinn 2012, S. 234 –246.

27. **Schorkopf, Frank** (2013), Schriftliche Stellungnahme der Europäischen Zentralbank anlässlich der Anhörung des Bundesverfassungsgerichts zu den Verfassungsbeschwerden 2 BvR 1390/12, 2 BvR 1439/12 und BvR 1824/12, BvE 6/12, vom 16. Januar 2013.
28. **Weidmann, Jens** (2013), Finanzstabilität in der Währungsunion, Rede beim Verbandstag des Genossenschaftsverbandes Bayern in München am 11.07.2013, www.bundesbank.de/Redaktion/DE/Reden/2013/2013_07_11_weidmann.html

KOKKUVÕTTED

ZUSAMMENFASSUNGEN

SUMMARIES

EIN STANDORTMODELL FÜR EINEN KONZERN ÖFFENTLICHER UNTERNEHMEN

Xiao Feng¹, Peter Friedrich²
Tongji-Universität, Universität Tartu

In Europa gibt es mehrere Konzerne öffentlicher Unternehmen. In einem Beitrag zur Standorttheorie öffentlicher Unternehmen – siehe Standorttheorie öffentlicher Unternehmen im Band: Etnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik: Wirtschaftspolitische Theorie und Praxis in der Europäischen Union, 2013, Nr.1, „Grundlegende Ansätze zur Standorttheorie eines öffentlichen Unternehmens“ – haben die Autoren auf die mannigfaltigen Standortfaktoren öffentlicher Unternehmen verwiesen und **Standorttheorien** für öffentliche Unternehmen diskutiert und entwickelt. Die Standortfaktoren beinhalten ökonomische, betriebswirtschaftliche, geographische, planerische Gegebenheiten, welche die öffentlichen Unternehmen und ihre Umwelt betreffen, aber auch ökonomische, betriebliche, gesellschaftliche und politische Ziele sowie die Zahl der beteiligten Entscheidungsträger. Eine Integration dieser Theorien zu einem Modell für einen **Konzern öffentlicher Unternehmen** wird in diesem Beitrag versucht.

Der **Konzern ist dreistufig** aufgebaut (siehe Abbildung 1). Ein **öffentlicher Eigentümer** bestimmt die Grundlagen der Unternehmenspolitik, indem er über die Höhe des gesamten Investitionsbudgets entscheidet. Seine grundlegende Unternehmenspolitik ist auf das Ziel der Machterhaltung über Wahlerfolge ausgerichtet. Ferner existiert eine **Holding**, die in unserer vereinfachten Modellwelt, die Investitionsbudgets D_j der Firmen j und damit die fixen Kosten A_j (sie gleichen K_{Fj}) der dem Konzern angehörigen öffentlichen Unternehmen j festlegt. Die **Tochterfirmen** produzieren Güter X_j , welche an Abnehmer in Regionen j geliefert werden. Somit wird der Konzern finanziell koordiniert. Die Wähler ihrerseits reagieren auf Leistungszunahmen seitens eines öffentlichen Unternehmens j in Region j zustimmend positiv. Allerdings befürchten sie Nachteile aus hohen Investitionsbudgets, die finanziert werden müssen und zu deren Finanzierung D sie letztlich beizutragen haben. Der öffentliche Eigentümer berücksichtigt diese Reaktionen bei der Festlegung des gesamten Investitionsbudgets.

Die Unternehmen befinden sich an **Standorten** mit den Koordinaten s_{11} und s_{12} für Unternehmen 1 in Region 1 und mit den Koordinaten s_{21} und s_{22} für Unternehmen 2 in Region 2. Die Firmen streben einen hohen Output und eine hohe Beschäftigung an. Eine Produktionsfunktion zeigt jeweils die Abhängigkeit zwischen dem Output

¹ Prof. Dr. Xiao Feng, director of Sino-German College of Applied Sciences (CDHAW), Training Building, Jiading Campus, Tongji University, 4800 Cao An Highway, Shanghai, P. R.China (201804), Tel. 0086 (0)21 6958 4732, Fax 00 86 (0)21 6958 9621, fengxiao@tongji.edu.cn

² Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Peter Friedrich, senior researcher, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Narva Rd. 4, 51009 Tartu, Estonia, Tel. 00372 7376333, Fax 003727376327, Peter@mtk.ut.ee

und den Investitionen, d.h. dem Kapitaleinsatz, dem Arbeits- und dem Materialeinsatz auf. Der Wert des Kapitaleinsatzes entspricht den Investitionen (Fixkosten als Abschreibungen). Sie werden vom Eigentümer finanziert. Die variablen Kosten erwirtschaftet das öffentliche Unternehmen selbst. Der Lohnsatz differiert je nach Standort. Es existiert eine Preisabsatzfunktion und das jeweilige öffentliche Unternehmen setzt seinen Preis selbst. Die Funktionen sind in Abbildung 1 aufgeführt.

Die **Maximierung des Nutzens des Unternehmensmanagements** bei Berücksichtigung der Selbstfinanzierungsanforderung erlauben die folgenden Feststellungen zur optimalen Standortwahl. Die Relation der Veränderungen der standortabhängigen fixen Kosten bei Verschiebung des Standortes in Richtung 1 und Richtung 2 gleichen der folgenden Relation. Es handelt sich um das Verhältnis aus der Veränderung des Lohnsatzes abzüglich der marginalen Arbeitskosten multipliziert mit dem Wertgrenzprodukts bei Verschiebung des Standortes in Richtung 1 zur Veränderung des Lohnsatzes abzüglich der Veränderung der Arbeitskosten multipliziert mit dem Wertgrenzprodukt bei Verschiebung des Standortes in Richtung 2. Ferner gleicht das Verhältnis der Nutzenänderungen bei Verschiebung des Standortes in Richtung 1 und Richtung 2 dem Verhältnis der Bruttogrenzgewinne bei diesen Verschiebungen. Die variablen Durchschnittskosten entsprechen dem Preis. Diese Aussagen gelten für beide Unternehmen.

Die **Holdingfirma** koordiniert die beiden Unternehmen, indem sie das gesamte Investitionsbudget D auf die beiden Unternehmen aufteilt ($D = \sum_{j=1}^2 A_j$). Der Nutzen der Holding, z.B. die Erreichung ihrer öffentlichen Ziele, ist abhängig von den Outputs der Unternehmen 1 und 2. Obwohl die Parameter in den Gleichungen für die Holding nicht direkt von ihrem Standort abhängen wird der Nutzen der Holding über die standortwahlbedingten Änderungen des Outputs der Unternehmen 1 und 2 beeinflusst. Für die Holding ergibt sich die günstigste Budgetaufteilung, wenn der Grenznutzen der Outputs ausgelöst von Fixkostenänderungen verbunden mit der Standortwahl für beide Unternehmen für die Holding gleich groß wird.

Allerdings wird das Gesamtbudget, das die Holding zuweisen kann, vom Wählerverhalten in den Regionen bestimmt, da der Konzerneigner Wählerzustimmung maximiert. Die Wähler reagieren zustimmend und standortabhängig auf Erhöhungen der Ausbringungsmengen. Aber auch ablehnend und standortabhängig auf vermutete Finanzierungsbelastungen, die mit der Höhe des Gesamtbudgets verbunden sind. Aus der Maximierung der **Wählerstimmen seitens des Eigentümers** resultiert ein günstigstes Budget im Sinne des Konzerneigners. Das **Optimalbudget** wird erreicht, wenn der Zuwachs an outputabhängigen Stimmen der Abnahme an budgetabhängigen Stimmen gleicht.

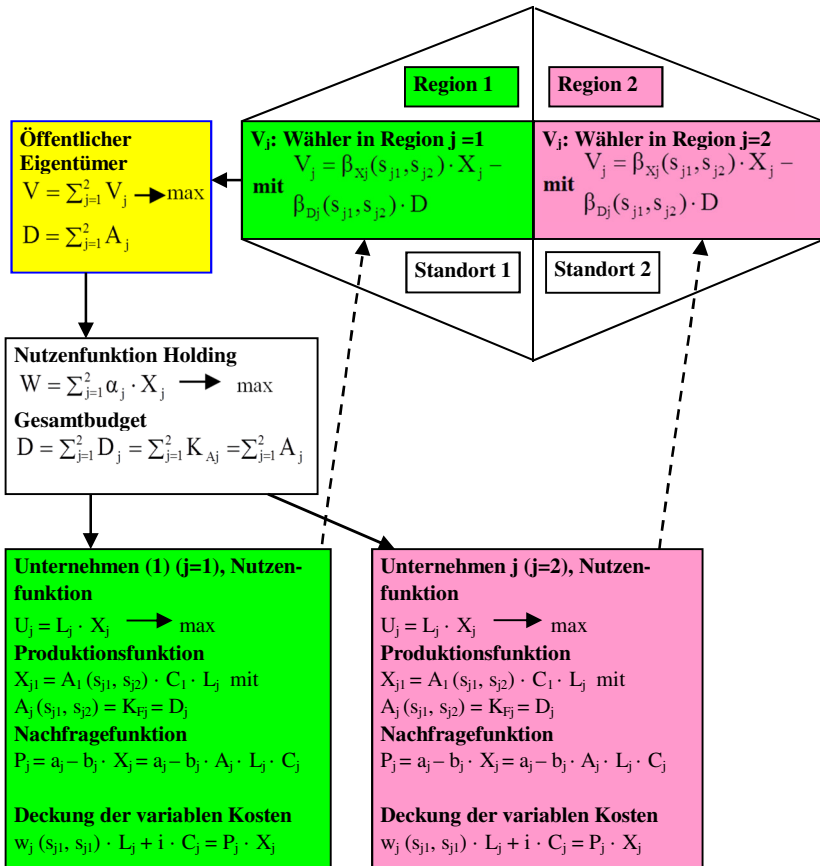


Abbildung 1: Öffentlicher Konzern, Quelle: von den Autoren skizziert.

Dieses **Optimalbudget** wird beeinflusst von den:

- Eigenheiten der Produktionen,
- Charakteristika der Nachfragefunktionen,
- Präferenzen der Nutzenfunktionen des Managements der öffentlichen Unternehmen und jener der Holding,
- Stimmenmaximierungswünschen des öffentlichen Eigentümers,
- Wählerwünschen und dem Wählerverhalten,
- Faktorpreisen und deren Standortabhängigkeit,
- Standortpräferenzen der Wähler und der Standortabhängigkeit der fixen Kosten der Unternehmen.

Die obigen Aussagen gelten, soweit wir nur die **standortabhängigen fixen Kosten** (Investitionen) betrachten, für Unternehmen 1 und Unternehmen 2. Die marginalen Änderungen der Produktion und marginale Budgetänderungen gleichen sich in beide Richtungen für Unternehmen 1. Werden die Wählersensibilitäten einbezogen, so ändern sich die Ergebnisse. Die Lösung tendiert zu Standorten mit hoher Wählersensibilität. Falls sich nur das **outputsensible Verhalten** ändert, müssen die outputabhängigen Stimmenänderungen und solche aufgrund der Budgetänderungen plus solche aufgrund der marginalen Outputänderung in beiden Richtungen gleich groß sein. Wenn sich sowohl **outputsensible als auch budgetsensible Verhalten** ändern, müssen die outputabhängigen Stimmenänderungen und die budgetabhängigen Stimmenänderungen als auch die marginalen Stimmenänderungen aufgrund der Output- und der Budgetvariation in beiden Richtungen gleich groß sein. Diese Ergebnisse gelten wiederum für Unternehmen 1 und Unternehmen 2.

Das Modell kann auch Konzerne einbeziehen, die teilweise unbeliebte Unternehmen aufweisen, z.B. Mülldeponien, Atomend- oder -zwischenlager, Wasserschutzgebiete, oder solche, welche die Wähler gerne in ihrer Nähe haben, z.B. kulturelle Einrichtungen. In diesem Modell sind die angenommenen Funktionen well-behaved. Falls dies nicht der Fall ist, etwa Sprünge in den Funktionen vorkommen oder nur diskrete Werte existieren, hat man nach guten Lösungen mit Hilfe von Methoden des Operations-Research oder mit Hilfe von Heuristiken zu suchen. Jedoch ändern sich die grundlegenden Optimalbedingungen nicht. Erste Versuche eine **Standorttheorie für öffentliche Unternehmen** zu entwickeln, wurden hier um ein Standortmodell für einen Konzern ergänzt.

Dieses Modell kann in mehrfacher Hinsicht **Erweiterungen** erfahren:

- Weitere und verschiedene Unternehmen sowie differierende Konzerne können einbezogen werden.
- Weitere Konkurrenzaktionsparameter lassen sich einbeziehen, z.B. Lieferzeiten, Kreditierungen, Qualitäten, vorgeschriebene Tarifformen.
- Verschiedene Marktformen und privat-öffentlicher Wettbewerb mögen Berücksichtigung finden,
- Die Standortwahl für die Holding, z.B. Abhängigkeiten vom Standort des Eigentümers, den Entfernungen zu den Tochterunternehmen, Beziehungsnetzwerke, ist noch zu modellieren..
- Verschiedene Wahlfunktionen für Bundesstaatliche, Länderwahlen oder Gemeindewahlen könnten in das Modell aufgenommen werden (Feig, Friedrich, 2002). Die Konkurrenz zwischen Eigentümern (mehreren Bundesländer, Gemeinden) und zwischen zugehörigen Unternehmen bzw. Konzernen (z.B. Flughäfen, Opern) mag man einbeziehen.
- Verschiedene horizontale und vertikale Wettbewerbsmodelle die beispielsweise für regionale Investitionen in der VR China von Feig (2006) entwickelt worden sind, lassen sich mit dem Konzernmodell kombinieren.

ÜLIKOOI ÜHISKONNATEENIMISE ROLLI TÄITMINE REGIONAALSE KOLLEDŽI ÕPPEKAVAARENDUSE KAUDU

Anne Keerberg, Aet Kiisla, Sulev Mäeltsemees¹
Tallinna Tehnikaülikool

Sissejuhatus

Ülikoolide ajalooliselt esmane roll oli õpetamine, 19. sajandi keskpaiku sai Alexander von Humboldti akadeemilise revolutsiooni tulemusena teaduslikust uurimistööst õppegevuse kõrval teine, kuid esimesega tihedalt seotud ülikooli põhifunktsioon. Ühiskonnateenimise ülesandest, ülikoolide nn kolmandast rollist hakati rääkima alles 20. sajandi lõpukümnenditel. Põhjuseks said muutused ühiskonnas – globaliseerumine, võrgustumine, tihedam seos ühiskonnaga ning teenusmajanduse ja teadmismahuka tootmise areng. (Chatterton and Goddard 2000; OECD 2007: 21; Bass and Silverstein 1996; Arbo and Benneworth 2007). Teadust peetakse üldjuhul ülikooli olulisimaks ülesandeks (ülikoolide hulgas rõhutatakse sageli eraldi teadusülikoole) ja õpetamist arusaadavalt sellel baseeruvaks. Ühiskonnateenimist nimetatakse enamasti alles kolmanda ülesandena, kuid viimane on tihedalt seotud kahe esimesega. Ühiskonna teenimist on viimastel aastatel hakatud kõrgelt hindama, eriti noortes demokraatlikes riikides. (Chatterton and Goddard 2000: 477)

Artikli eesmärk on analüüsida, kuidas on ülikooli regionaalsel kolledžil võimalik täita ühiskonnateenimise ülesannet läbi õppekavaarenduse. Kas ja kuidas toetab kolledžite regioonispetsiifiliste valdkondade õppekavaarendus, teadus- ja arendustegevus ning sotsiaal-kultuurilises tegevuses osalemine koostööd regioonis ning ühiskonna teenimise ülesannet? Püstitatud ülesanne võimaldab terviklikult uurida selliseid komponente, nagu õppekavade sisu ja ülesehitus, õppe- ja hindamismeetodid, õppekavavälised tegevused, üliõpilaste uurimustööde teemad ja juhendamine, koostöö partneritega. Terviklik lähenemine on eelduseks hästitoimivale õppekavale, kusjuures antud artiklis on ühendavaks teguriks ühiskonnateenimine.

Uuringu tulemused on rakendatavad konkreetsete analüüsitud õppekavade ja kolledžite puhul, kuid tänu valitud juhtumite olemusele laiendatavad ka teistele regionaalsetele üksustele. Kolledživõrgustiku tekkimise eeldused, terviklik mõju ning vastavus regioonispetsiifilistele vajadustele on oluline teema, mis vajab

¹ Sulev Mäeltsemees PhD, Sotsiaalteaduskonna dekaan, Tallinna Tehnikaülikool, Ehitajate tee 5, Tallinn, sulev.maeltssees@ttu.ee;

Aet Kiisla MSc, õppedirektor, avaliku halduse lektor, Tartu Ülikooli Narva Kolledž, Raekoja plats 2, Narva, aet.kiisla@ut.ee;

Anne Keerberg MA, direktor, Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli Kuressaare Kolledž, Roots 7, Kuressaare, anne.keerberg@ttu.ee

täiendavat uurimist.²

Artiklis käsitletud kahe suurema Eesti ülikooli (Tartu Ülikooli ja Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli) kahe regionaalse kolledži (Narva ja Kuressaare) tegevus riigi eri piirkondades on reguleeritud samade üleriigiliste õigusaktidega, mis teeb juhtumid hästi võrreldavaks. Samas on nende kolledžite tegevus teineteisest täiesti sõltumatu, mistõttu on tagatud tulemuste maksimaalne usaldusväärsus ja rakendatavus ka laiemalt (teistele taolistele kolledžitele). Vaadeldavad juhtumid on üksteisest sõltumatud, kuna kolledžid tegutsevad erinevate ülikoolide koosseisus ja geograafiliselt asuvad maksimaalselt eraldatult. Vaadeldavad regioonid on ka sotsiaal-majanduslikult küllaltki erinevad. Ka vaadeldavad õppekavad (kohaliku omavalitsuse korraldus ja väikelaevachitus) on üksteisest täiesti erinevad, üks kuulub niinimetatud pehmesse, teine kõvasse valdkonda, mis veelgi kindlustab tulemuste paikapidavust erinevate õppekavade ja ülikoolide puhul.

Teoreetiliseks aluseks on võetud rahvusvaheliselt tunnustatud hariduspoliitika teadlaste seisukohad ning OECD definitsioonid ja selgitused, mida võrreldakse kahe ülikooli regionaalsete kolledžite näidetega. Artiklis analüüsitakse ühiskonna-teenimise toetamise võimalusi läbi õppekavaarenduse OECD sõnastatud dimensioonide põhjal: teadmiste loomine regioonis, inimkapitali arendus ja teadmiste ülekandmine ning kultuuriline ja kogukonna arendus. Artikli koostamisel on kasutatud dokumendianalüüsi, aluseks on võetud õppekavade koostamise dokumendid, analüüsid, aruanded, koosolekute protokollid jms kokkuvõtted. Lisaks on uuritud ülikoolide ning nende kolledžite arengukavasid ja teisi strateegilisi dokumente ning regionaaltegevusega seotud materjale. Autorid kirjeldavad juhtumeid ka läbi oma töökogemuse uurimisobjektiks olevates kolledžites.

Ülikoolide regionaalne panus

Ülikoolide ühiskonnateenimise teema uurimisel on autorid kasutanud mitmeid erinevaid lähenemisviise: ülikoolide roll innovatsioonis (Charles 2006; Westnes et al 2009; Allison ja Eversole 2008), ülikoolide juhtivtöötajate roll (Gunasekara 2004), akadeemiliste töötajate võimalused (Bond ja Paterson 2005), teadmiste edasikandumine akadeemilise personali suhtlusvõrgustike kaudu (Vaessen ja Velde 2003), kaasatus arendustegevustesse kui regionaalpoliitiline instrument (Hudson 2006).

Vaessen ja Velde (2003) jõudsid Nijmegeni ülikooli (Holland) uuringu põhjal järeldusele, et ainuüksi ülikooli olemasolu regioonis lisab piirkonnale prestiiži ning akadeemiline personal mõjutab ümbruskonda lisaks ametialasele seotusele ka isiklike kontaktide ja kõikvõimalike formaalsete ning mitteformaalsete võrgustike kaudu. Uuring osutas, et märkimisväärne on just see teadmiste edasikandmise maht, mis toimub läbi sotsiaalse suhtlemise väljaspool tööaega (Vaessen ja Velde 2003: 107).

² Vastav uuring on käimas teadus- ja innovatsioonipoliitika seire programmi TIPS raames, mille raport valmib 2014. a <http://tips.ut.ee/index.php?module=32&op=1&id=3464>

Kohalikku võrgustumist võib käsitleda kui ülikoolide ellujäämis- ja tugevnemisstrateegiat (Chatterton ja Goddard 2000: 481). Kõrgkoolid pakuvad haridust, teostavad uuringuid ning on aktiivsed oma majandusliku, sotsiaalse ja kultuurilise keskkonna arendamises. "Üksiku institutsiooni siseselt on väljakutseks õpetamise, teadustöö ja ühiskonnateenimise rollide sidumine sisemiste mehhanismide abil (rahastamine, personali areng, boonused ja autasud, kommunikatsioon jne), et need tegevused oleksid rohkem vastavuses regiooni vajadustega" (Chatterton ja Goddard 2000: 482). Panustamine kodanikuühiskonda regioonis toimub töötajate töövälise tegevuse näol, nagu seda kirjeldavad Bond ja Paterson (2005), või täiskasvanute täienduskoolituse pakkumise, avalike loengute jms pakkumise kujul (Chatterton ja Goddard 2000: 489). Lähtudes regionaalsest perspektiivist võib kõrgkool olla võtmefiguur, mis esindab erinevaid rahvuslikke huvisid konkreetsetel territooriumil (OECD 2007: 30).

Eesti regionaalarengu strateegia 2020 koostamise lähteolukorra analüüsis rõhutatakse: riigi siseselt on piirkondade arenguerinevused liiga suured, regionaalse arengu eesmärkide saavutamiseks on vajalik eri valdkonnapoliitikate tõhusam kaasatus. Analüüs osutab, et tööjõuareaalide konkurentsivõime tugevdamisel väljaspool Tallinna ja Tartut saab arvestada ülikoolide regionaalsete kolledžite potentsiaaliga. (Eesti... 2012) Riigi väiksusest hoolimata on Eesti regionaalne areng väga ebahühtlane ja 2012. aasta rahvaloenduse andmed kinnitasid paljudest maakondadest elanike lahkumist. Kolledžite toel on võimalik ka kohapeal laiemaid õppimise ja töötamise võimalusi pakkuda, mis tõstab piirkonna arengupotentsiaali ning pidurdab lahkumist.

Regionaalpoliitika raames saab edendada innovatsioonivõimet ning tugevdada ettevõtete sidemeid ülikoolide ja teadusasutustega. Piirkondade konkurentsieelistele tugineva majandusliku spetsialiseerumise soodustamine on regionaalse arengu tasakaalustamiseks hädavajalik. Regionaalpoliitika panust rõhutatakse ka Euroopa 2020 strateegias aruka majanduskasvusaavutamiseks (Regionaalpoliitika... 2010).

Regionaalne kõrgharidus Eestis

Eesti avalik-õiguslikel ülikoolidel on seitse väljaspool Tallinna ja Tartut asuvat regionaalset kolledžit. Kolledžid paiknevad hajusalt üle Eesti ning pakuvad õppekavasid ja edendavad teadus-arendustegevust lähtuvalt regiooni ning oma emaliikooli spetsiifikast. Avalik-õiguslike ülikoolide rektorid on allkirjastanud ühisleppe (24.11.2008), millega seavad strateegiliseks eesmärgiks arendada koos välja kogu Eestit kattev regionaalsete pädevuskeskuste võrgustik, mida on vaja elukestva õppe ja piirkonna ettevõtluse hoogustamiseks. Lisaks õppetegevusele panustatakse regionaalsete innovatsioonisüsteemide loomisse ning toetatakse kogukonna arendustegevusi.

Narva asub Euroopa Liidu ja Venemaa piiril. Narvas tegutseb neli kõrgkooli, kuid avalik-õiguslikest ainult Tartu Ülikooli Narva Kolledž. Kolledž asutati vastavalt regiooni vajadustele peamiselt venekeelsete koolide õpetajate koolitamiseks. Hiljem on lisandunud teisi eri alaseid, nende seas kohaliku omavalitsuse korralduse

rakenduskõrghariduse õppekava. Nimetatud erialal õpib Narvas alla 100 üliõpilase. Eestlasi on nende seas ca 30%, ülejäänud on vene emakeelega üliõpilased, peamiselt venelased.

Kuressaare kolledž asutati Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli asutusena ja Saarte Instituudi õigusjärglasena 1999. aastal. Alustati Saaremaale omase turismivaldkonna õppega, millele hiljem lisandusid elektroonika, ettevõtluse ning väikelaevaehituse õpe, viimane neist on regioonispetsiifilise ning kõrge arengupotentsiaaliga tootmisvaldkonnana esile tõstetud Eesti regionaalse innovatsioonistrateegia koostamise protsessis (Tiits 2007). Kolledži koosseisu kuulub 2011. aastal moodustatud teadus- ja arenduskeskus – väikelaevaehituse kompetentsikeskus. Kuressaare kolledži väikelaevaehituse õppekaval õppis 1.10.2012 seisuga 50 üliõpilast.

Mõlemal erialal nimetatud kolledžites on õppurite seas nii värskeid gümnaasiumi lõpetajaid kui juba vastavas valdkonnas töötavaid inimesi.

Regioonispetsiifiliste õppekavade arendus ja regiooni teenimine

Kiired muutused eeldavad ülikoolidelt tihedamat sidet ümbritseva keskkonnaga, kiiremat reageerimist ning suuremat paindlikkust ühiskonna ootustele vastamises. Regionaalsed kolledžid on oma olemuselt teadmiste vahendajaks emaliikooli ja kohalike vajaduste vahel. Kolledžid kannavad ühest küljest ülikooli kompetentsi ja kvaliteedistandardeid, teisest küljest on paindlikud ning aitavad kohandada ülikooli kompetentsi regioonile rakendatavaks. Seetõttu on regionaalsetes kolledžites suur osatähtsus rakenduskõrghariduse õppekavadel. Lisaks valdkonnateadmiste vahendavad regionaalsed kolledžid teadmisi ka projekti-juhtimisest, koostöövormidest, rahastamisvõimalustest, uurimistööst, strateegilisest planeerimisest jms.

Kolledžite teadus- ja arendustegevus on suunatud oma õppevaldkondade arendamisele, ettevõtluse ja innovatsiooni hoogustamisele ning piirkonna arengupotentsiaali tõstmisele tervikuna. Kuressaare kolledži näide esindab teadmiste loomise osas nn "kõva" valdkonda, panust ettevõtluse toetamiseks, ning Narva kolledž "pehmet" teadmusloomet (Chatterton ja Goddard 2000), näited kinnitavad mõlema valdkonna olulisust regiooni arengusse panustamisel. Regioonides tehakse enam rakendusuuringuid ja teadustöö maht on mõnevõrra väiksem kui teaduskondades, kus ühiskonnateenimise erinevad tegevused on selle võrra vähemkaalukad. Tuleb mees pidada, et regionaalsete kolledžite loomine on üks osa ülikoolide ühiskonnateenimisest, seega nende tegevusse on sisse kodeeritud vastavate tegevuste suurem osakaal kui see on teadustööl.

Uurides teemat kahe regionaalse kolledži näitel tulid artikli autorid järeldusele, et ülikooli esindaja ja teadmiste vahendaja roll on efektiivne eelkõige kolledžis õpetatavate valdkondade raames ja nendega seonduvates sihtrühmades. Vaadates lähemalt neid valdkondi, mida kolledžites õpetatakse, võib täheldada, et regioonispetsiifiline võib olla nii selle regiooni tugevus kui ka nõrkus. Mõni eriala luuakse regiooni tugevuste rakendamiseks, mõni regiooni nõrkuste leevendamiseks. Õpetatavad valdkonnad peaksid praktilisest küljest olema omavahel mingilgi määral

seotud, vastasel korral kannatab erialade jätkusuutlikkus. Samas ei saa olla eesmärgiks fokuseerimine, sest niiviisi võivad katmata jääda olulised regiooni-spetsiifilised valdkonnad ja võib kannatada kolledžite jätkusuutlikkus.

Kolledžid laiendavad oma piirkonnas ligipääsu haridusele, seda nii noorte õppima asujate jaoks kui elukestva õppe võimaluste pakkumisel. Koostöö kohalike partneritega tagab aja- ja asjakohase õppesisu ning toetab protsessi, et kõrgharitud spetsialistid leiaksid piirkonnas ka kvalifikatsioonile vastavat tööd. Lisaks õpetamise rollile regioonis peab ülikool panustama ka töökohtade loomisse (Virtanen 2010). Kohapeal õppides on suurem tõenäosus sinna tööle jääda, samuti jäävad mitmed teistest regioonidest õppima asunud tudengid kohalikule tööturule.

Autorid leiavad, et ühiskonnateenimine ei ole ülikooli eraldiseisev lisategevus, vaid on integreeritud tema tegevuse kõikidesse valdkondadesse. Nimetus "kolmas roll" on ses mõttes tinglik, ühiskonnateenimine on ülikoolide kahe traditsioonilise rolli õppe- ja teadustegevuse kõrvale kerkinud, kuid nendega tihedalt integreeritud osa (Chatterton ja Goddard 2000). Kolmanda rolliga seotud ülesanded peavad olema seotud regionaalse kolledži erialadega. See toetab erialade õppekavaarendust, õppetöö kvaliteeti ja õppekava turundust, samas ollakse regioonile mitmekülselt kasulik. Kõiki ühiskonnateenimise ülesandeid saab ja peabki täitma seoses konkreetsete erialadega – teadustöö, koostöö partneritega, projektitegevus, üritused jne. Võib väita, et erialadega mitteseonduv ühiskonnateenimine pigem killustab kolledži tegevusi, hajustab selle eesmärgi ning pole seetõttu jätkusuutlik.

Regionaalne kolledž on oma regioonis arengumootoriks. Akadeemilisel personalil on märkimisväärne roll osaledes ekspertidena regionaalsel tasandil otsustuskogudes ja juhtimisvõrgustikes (Arbo ja Benneworth 2007). Kolledžid panustavad koostöö initsieerimisel ja piirkondlike arengustrateegiade koostamisel koos partneritega, kuid koostöövõrgustik ei tohiks tugineda liialt ühel eestvedajal. Kui suurem osa vastutust on pidevalt just kolledžite peal, siis võivad partnerid mugavaks muutuda ning loota, et keegi teine teeb nende eest töö ära. Kui siis kolledžil peaks jõud raugema või prioriteedid muutuma, lakkab kogu koostöö, sest pole eestvedajat.

Ülevaated Eesti regionaalarengust tõdevad korduvalt, et Eesti sisemised regionaalsed arenguerisused on väikese riigi kohta liiga suured ning nende ohjamiseks ei piisa puhtalt regionaalpoliitilistest meetmetest, oluline oleks saavutada ka muude valdkonnapiolitilike tõhusam koordineeritus. Tööjõuareaalide konkurentsivõime tugevdamisel väljaspool Tallinna ja Tartut saab arvestada ülikoolide regionaalsete kolledžite potentsiaaliga, nagu rõhutatakse ka Eesti regionaalarengu strateegia 2020 koostamise lähteolukorra analüüsis (Eesti... 2012). Kolledžitevõrgustiku näol on Eestis olemas instrument, mida saaks riigi tasakaalustatud arengu tagamises efektiivsemalt kasutada.

Kokkuvõtteks tuleb öelda, et olulisem kui detailsete juhiste või näidete väljatoomine, on järeldus, et ülikooli ühiskonnateenimine kolledžite toel on kõige mõistlikum erialadepõhiselt. Alates erialade valikust, lõpetades erialaga seotud üritustega, mille vahele jäävad teadus, õppemeetodid, lõputööde teemad, arendusprojektid, täienduskoolitus, koostöö partneritega jpm.

PERE- JA MITTEPEREETTEVÕTTE ERIKUS EESTIS

Maret Kirsipuu
Eesti Mereakadeemia

Sissejuhatus

Käesolevas artiklis esitatakse erisused pereettevõtjate ja mittepereettevõtjate vahel. Selgitatakse mõistet ettevõtte ja ettevõtja ning ettevõtlustegevust. Pereettevõteteks defineeritakse need ettevõtted, mille enamosalus on ühe pereliikme käes või mille tegevuses füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja korral osaleb perekond, perekonnaliikmeteks on abikaasa, lapsed, sugulased ja nende elukaaslased. Mittepereettevõteteks on need ettevõtted, kus enamosalus (äriühingud) ei kuulu pereliikmetele või ettevõtlustegevuses füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjana ei osale pereliikmeid.

Ettevõtja ja ettevõtte

Eestis ja enamuses Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikides ei ole reguleeritud seaduslikult pereettevõtte ja pereettevõtja mõiste. Eestis on õiguslik alus ettevõtja mõistel. Eestis saab olla pereettevõtjaks äriühing, milles enamosalus on pereliikmetel või siis füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja, kes on ettevõtlustegevusse kaasanud pereliikmeid.

Alates 2007. aastast on Eestis seadustatud talupidaja kui ettevõtja mõiste. Erinevate Eestis läbiviidud uuringute tulemuste põhjal saab väita, et enamus talupidajaid on pereettevõtjad (Kaseorg, Siimon, 2007; Kirsipuu 2007; Kaseorg, Raudsaar, 2008; Kirsipuu, 2009a; Kirsipuu, 2009b; Kirsipuu, 2011; Kaarna, Masso, Rell, 2012; Kirsipuu, 2012). Ettevõtjatel võib olla ettevõtteid erinevates tegevusaladel.

Äriühinguna registreerides kantakse Äriregistrisse ärinimi, mida tohib olla vaid üks (Äriseadustik § 9). Füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja võib oma erinevate ettevõtete kohta kasutada mitut erinevat ärinime (Äriseadustik § 8). Äriseadustiku § 22 kohaselt (äriregistrit peab registripidaja oma tööpiirkonnas asuvate füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjate ettevõtete ja seal asuvate äriühingute kohta) saab väita, et ettevõtja ja ettevõtte on samased.

Ettevõtlustegevus

Ettevõtlus on nii ettevõtlustegevus kui õpetus ja teadus, mis uurib ettevõtluse arengut, ettevõtluse teket, ettevõtjat jms. Ettevõtluse mõistet on eri uurijad defineerinud erinevalt, kuid põhimõtted on kõigil sarnased. Kui perekond osaleb pidevalt ettevõtlusprotsessides, siis võib seda nimetada pere ettevõtluseks (Craig, Lindsay, 2002). Eestis oli enne okupatsiooni arenenud pere ettevõtlustegevus, perekondade omandis olid nii tootmis- kui teenindusärid kui ka talud. Okupeerimisperioodi viimastel aastatel sai võimalikuks eraettevõtlus, 1989. aastal loodi riiklikud väikeettevõtted, lisaks riiklikule omandusele võisid ettevõtted olla välisriikide juriidiliste isikute ja kodanike omanduses (ENSV ettevõtteseadus,

17.11.1989). Seda aega saab pidada kaasaegse Eesti eraettevõtlustegevuse alguseks, mis hoogustus peale Eesti taasiseseisvumist 1991. aastal.

Maapiirkondades hakkas ettevõtlustegevus arenema peale maareformi ja põllumajandusreformi, kui oli võimalus saada tagasi vanavanemate talusid. Talude tagastamise algusperioodil tekkis palju väikeseid talukesi, kus ei suudetud majandustegevust arendada ning seetõttu hakati nii maad kui farme koondama, et tagada intensiivseks tootmiseks suuremad põllumassiivid ja tehnoloogiliste võimsuste kasv. Samas eksisteerivad ka väikesed ettevõtted, kuid nende põhitegevuseks on pigem nišitootmine ja maaturismi arendamine (Eesti...2007).

Eestis on enamus väike-ja keskmised ettevõtjad. Eesti mikroettevõtjad moodustavad kõigist ettevõtetest 94,3% ning mikroettevõtjad koos väikeettevõtjatega 99,3%-lise enamuse. Euroopa Liidus on samad näitajad 78% ja 96% (Ojamaa, 2012). Väikeettevõtjatest 66% liigitavad end pereettevõtjateks (Kaarna et al, 2012). Vaatamata sellele, et erinevate uurimistööde põhjal saab väita, et pere ettevõtlustegevust on teadvustatud nii ettevõtjate seas kui meedias, puudub pereettevõtja definitsioon Eesti seadusandlusest.

Analüüs

Analüüsimiseks andmete kogumine autori poolt toimus ajavahemikul 2006-2012, summaarselt küsitleti kirjalikult 2035 oletatavat pereettevõtjat selgitamaks, kas ettevõtjad peavad end pereettevõtjateks või mitte. Mittepereettevõtjate põhiuuring toimus aastal 2009, intervjueriti 154 omanikku. (Wahl, 2011) Autori teostatud ja võrreldavas uurimistöös on lähtutud Kluge (2000) neljaastmelisest empiirilisest põhjendatud tüüpide moodustamise mudelist, tulemused on võrreldavad ja neid saab pidada usaldusväärseks. Mõlemas uurimistöös kõik grupeeringud kodeeriti ja teostati analüüs selleks, et selgitada välja erisused ja sarnasused ning valida välja grupeeringud, mille tulemused kajastavad töö eesmärki. Tulemuste töötlemiseks kasutati arvutipõhist andmeanalüüsi, esmalt koostati andmebaas exceli tabelitesse, seejärel töödeldi koostatud andmebaas andmeid vabavaralise andmeanalüüsipaketi PAlaeontological Statistics, edaspidi PAST (Hammer et.al., 2001) versiooni 2.00-ga.

Andmeanalüüsis kasutati erinevaid algoritme, mille alusel moodustati dendogrammid. Korrelatsioonikordaja (Coph. Corr. = 0,3563; Coph Corr. = 0,2824) väärtused mõlemas uurimistöös on ligilähedased ja sobilikud dendogrammi alusel klastrite arvu määramiseks. Mitmemõõtmelise skaleerimisega saab analüüsida naaberliite klasterdamisel moodustunud tunnusgrupe. Saadud tulemuste kvaliteeti hinnatakse näitajatega stress, mida madalam on stressi väärtus, seda parem tulemus, stressi väärtus sõltub valitud protseduurist ja analüüsitavatest andmetest: väärtus 0,0 on ideaalne, väärtus üle 0,4 enam mitte (Malhotra, 2007). Analüüsitavate tunnusgruppide näitaja stress väärtus on 0,1257 ja 0,3751. Väärtused on alla 0,4 ning seetõttu saab saadud tulemusi pidada kvaliteetseteks.

Tulemus

Käesolev artikli eesmärguks oli selgitada välja pereettevõtete ja mitte pereettevõtete erisused Eestis. Uurimistööde tulemustes ilmnevad selged erinevused.

Kui pereettevõtjaks hakkamise valdav soov oli iseendale peremeheks olemine ja pereliikmetele heaolu tagamine, siis mitte pereettevõtjad vastasid, et nad hakkasid ettevõtjaks seetõttu, et saada majanduslikku vabadust (rikkust, heaolu, edukust kindlustada, rohkem raha teenida), kasutasid soodsat võimalust (erastamine, ülevõtt, likvideerimine, vaba raha). Kui pereettevõtja ei pelga piiramatut vastutust ning füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja tegutseb enda ees- ja perekonnanime all, siis mittepereettevõtjad vastasid, et omanikuks olemise juures ei meeldi neile vastutus.

Pereettevõtjad on veendunud, et olulisem kasumi teenimisest on perekonnaliikmete vajaduste rahuldamine ja pereettevõtlustraditsioonide järjepidevus. Nad ei soovi ettevõtlustegevust laiendada vaid pigem pereliikmetele heaolu võimaldada. Samas mittepereettevõtjad on veendunud, et äriühingute peamiseks missiooniks on kasumi maksimeerimine, olla edukam konkurentidest, laiendada tegevuspiirkonda, luua uusi väärtusi.

Pereettevõtjad peavad oluliseks seda, et pereliikmed (abikaasa, lapsed, hõimlased) saaksid pereettevõtlustegevuses pidevalt rakendust ja nende sooviks on pidevalt ise olla ettevõtlustegevuse keskel ja pereettevõtlust arendada. Samas mitte pereettevõtete omanikud tähtsustavad ühiskondlikku rolli tööandja ja maksumaksjana ning ise pigem soovivad otsesest ettevõtlustegevusest eemale jääda.

Pereettevõtjad juhivad tavapäraselt oma ettevõtteid ise (erandolukordades palgatakse tegevjuhtkond), koostavad strateegilised plaanid ja kujundavad pereettevõtluskultuuri. Samas mittepereettevõtetes omanikkonna kollektiivne tahe võib avalduda omanikkonna strateegiana, mis alati ei pruugi ühtida äriühingu juhtkonna strateegiaga ning omanikkond võib takistada jäikusega ettevõtlustegevust.

Pereettevõtetes on esimeses põlvkonnas tavapäraselt juhiks omanik ise ja seega ei teki konflikte ettevõtte juhtimises ja strateegiliste plaanide elluviimisel. Mittepereettevõtjad on veendunud, et omanikel endas selgusele jõudmine tagab adekvaatse käitumise ja tihedat osapoolte vahelist (omanik ja juhtkond) diskussiooni aitab ennetada ettevõttes tekkivaid konflikte.

Pereettevõtjad peavad oluliseks inimsuhteid pereettevõttes ja enamuses on suunatud isikukultuurile. Samas mittepereettevõtjale on olulisem omanikuks olemisest saadav tulu (sh kapitali kasv), nad leiavad, et võim saavutatakse isikliku autoriteedi alusel, järgnevad samastumise (eeskuju, teadmised), premeerimise (raha, kiitus, tähelepanu), formaalse omaniku õiguse ja sunni (raha, karistamine, vallandamine) alusel saavutatud võim.

Pereettevõtjad loodavad, et ettevõtte on jätkusuutlik ja nende tehtut jätkavad järgmised põlvkonnad. Samas mittepereettevõtja on valmis oma aksiad või osa hea pakkumise korral koheselt müüma.

Pereettevõtja on veendunud, et pereettevõttes peab olema osalus ideaalis 100% pereettevõtja või tema perekonna omandis, kuid kindlasti peab olema osalus pereliikmetel üle 50%. Samas mittepereettevõtja leiab sageli, et osalus äriühingus vahemikus 10 kuni 50% on piisav.

Pereettevõtete erinevused mittepereettevõttest on tingitud juba ainuüksi pikaajalistest peretraditsioonidest ja teistsugustele väärtustele orienteerimisest. Pereettevõtte pereettevõtluskultuuri, kui komplekse terviku, südameks on väärtused, mida pereettevõtte liikmed hindavad ja arvestavad ning mida pereettevõtte soovib väljapoole peegeldada. Pereettevõtte väärtused peegelduvad pereettevõtte töötajate käitumises, majandusprotsessides ja aitavad kaasa pereettevõtte eesmärkide saavutamisele. Pereettevõtetes valitsevad kõikide liikmete vahel usalduslikud suhted, kõik hoolivad üksteisest, ollakse abivalmid ja suheldakse väljaspool töökeskkonda. Stabiilset pereettevõtluskultuuri toetavad tugevad traditsioonid, millesse kaasatakse kõiki pereettevõtte töötajaid selliselt, et ka mitte pereliikmetest töötajad tunnevad end pereliikmetena.

Edukas on pereettevõtja vaid siis, kui kõik pereliikmed on huvitatud pereettevõtte edust ja panustavad selleks maksimaalselt. Tugevate ja kindlate peresuhte korral on pereettevõttel edu tõenäosus suurem. Pereettevõtete ebaõnnestumised on sageli tingitud sellest, et ei suudeta uskuda, et pereliikmed ei oska või ei soovi teha kõiki töid ning sageli on see üheks põhjuseks, miks lõpetatakse ettevõtlustegevus või kaasatakse osanikke väljastpoolt perekonda.

Kokkuvõte

Eestis ei ole pereettevõtja mõiste õigusaktidega sätestatud. Euroopa Liidu poliitika kohaselt tuleb ettevõtlustegevust arendada ja suurendada, tõsta vastutustundlikku ettevõtlust ning tähtsustada väike- ja keskmiste ettevõtete tegevust ning luua selged kriteeriumid mikroettevõtjatele ja luua soodsam keskkond pereettevõtjatele.

Antud artiklis esitatakse autori poolt läbiviidud uurimistöö, mille algandmed on kogutud aastatel 2007-2012, neid tulemusi, millest selgub pereettevõtja ja pereettevõtte erisus ja mida saab võrrelda Wahli (2011) mitte pereettevõtjate seas läbiviidud uurimistööga selgitamaks välja erinevused.

Artikli eesmärk, milleks oli analüüsida pereettevõtete ja mittepereettevõtete erinevusi Eestis, saavutati. Selgus, et pereettevõtjate ja mitte pereettevõtjate vahel on selge erisus, mis on tingitud juba ainuüksi pikaajalistest peretraditsioonidest ja teistsugustele väärtustele orienteerimisest. Pereettevõtte pereettevõtluskultuuri, kui komplekse terviku, südameks on väärtused, mida pereettevõtte liikmed hindavad ja arvestavad ning mida pereettevõtte soovib väljapoole peegeldada. Pereettevõtte väärtused peegelduvad pereettevõtte töötajate käitumises, majandusprotsessides ja aitavad kaasa pereettevõtja eesmärkide saavutamisele.

Uurimistöö uudsuseks on see, et on tehtud esimene laialdane uurimine Eesti pereettevõtjate seas, saadud tulemusi on võimalik kasutada edaspidistes uurimistöodes, näiteks analüüsida pereettevõtjate ja mitte pereettevõtjate sarnasusi.

NAINE EESTI PEREETTEVÕTLUSES

Maret Kirsipuu, Uno Silberg
Sisekaitseakadeemia

Sissejuhatus

Käesolevas artiklis käsitletakse vähem uuritud valdkonda Eestis, pereettevõtlust ning naise rolli pereettevõtluses. Probleemiks on see, et senini puudub selge ülevaade Eesti pereettevõtluses osalevatest naistest. Vajalik on koondada olemasolevad andmed, et nende põhjal edaspidi läbi viia süvendatud uurimistöid.

Artikli eesmärgiks on anda ülevaade naise osalusest pereettevõtluses teoreetiliste allikate ja käsitluste põhjal. Eesmärgi täitmiseks antakse lühiülevaade pereettevõtlusest, Euroopa Liidu strateegiatest, naise rollist pereettevõtluses.

Antud artiklis on pereettevõtluseks selline ettevõtlustegevus, milles osaleb ettevõtja perekond. Tegemist on teoreetilise artikliga, milles tuginetakse olemasolevatele teoreetilistele teemakäsitlustele ja uuringutele. Artiklis kajastatakse teostatud uurimistööde põhjal naise rolli pereettevõtluses.

Ettevõtlustegevus

Ettevõtlustegevus saab toimuda eelkõige siis kui on olemas ettevõtluseks sobilik keskkond ja on ettevõtjaid, ehk siis kui on aktiivselt tegutsevaid või tegutseda tahtvaid inimesi üksinda või koos pereliikmetega. Pereettevõtet ja pereettevõtjat on erinevate autorite poolt erinevalt defineeritud, kuid kõikide definitsioonide ühisjooneks on pere osalus ettevõtlustegevuses.

USA uurimistulemuste põhjal saab väita, et enamus pereettevõtteid sünnivad pereliikmete soovil ja tahtel, vähesel hulgal on selliseid, kes võtavad üle mitte pereettevõtte ja jätkavad pereettevõtlusega, enamus jätkavad peretraditsioone põlvkonniti. Pereettevõttele pikaajalisuse tagab see, kui kaasatakse hajutatult pereliikmed, planeeritakse edasisi etappe ning määratakse kindlaks hoiakud, eesmärgid. (Chua, Chrisman, Chang, 2004)

Perekonna moodustab abielupaar koos järglastega ja lähisugulastega (Õigekeelsussõnaraamat, 2006). Naised aitavad pereettevõtet koos hoida, väikeste laste korral keskendudes alguses enam perele ja hiljem juba ühildades pere ja ettevõtlustegevust (Crouter, 1984). Naistele meeldib enam töötada pereettevõttes kui väljaspool, pereettevõttes osalevad naised oskavad paremini ühildada pere ja ettevõtlustegevust (Lyman, 1988).

Erialased oskused ja perekonna toetus on ainus elujõuline valik ettevõtluses (Verbeke, Kano, 2012). Klassikaliselt jõutakse pereettevõteni läbi otsuste ja aja. Sageli luuakse alguses mitte pereettevõtte, siis kaasatakse abikaasa ja ongi pereettevõtte ning lõpuks kui kogu või suurem osa perekonnast on kaasatud on

tegemist kogu pere ettevõttega. Pereettevõtted sünnivad pere vajadustest lähtuvalt, kogu pere kaasamine aitab neil ellu jääda. Pereettevõtteid luuakse vähem noorte abielupaaride ja väga vanas eas olevate paaride poolt. Pereettevõtlusesse kaasatakse liikmeid perekonnast, selle tagajärjel pereliikmete töökohustused kasvavad ja osad juhtimislülid jäetakse vahele. Vanuseline jaotus võib kajastada jätkusuutlikkust. (Chua, Chrisman, Chang, 2004)

Pereettevõtja võib olla nii üksikisik, kelle ettevõtlustegevusse on kaasatud pereliikmed, kui äriühing, kus asutajateks on pereliikmed. Uurimistöödes valdavalt kajastatakse pereettevõtjatena mehi, kelle ettevõtlustegevuses osalevad pereliikmed sh naine, lapsed.

Naise osatähtsus pereettevõtluses

Naise rolli emana on tähtsustatud alati, naise rolli ettevõtjana alles viimastel aastakümnetel. Tavapäraselt eeldatakse, et perekonda luues hakkab mees, kui perekonnapea, peret toitma, naine kasvatab lapsi ja hoolitseb kodu eest. Kuid kaasaegsed naised ei rahuldu sellega ja soovivad anda panuse ühiskonna arengusse ühildades oskuslikult ema, naise ja ettevõtja vm rolli.

Naised eelistavad luua selliseid pereettevõtteid, mis on kodukesksed, sest kodukeskne ettevõtte aitab siduda paremini pere ja äri, kuid samas nõuab pidevat enesedistsipliini (Owen, Winter, 1991). Uurimistööde tulemustes on selgunud, et naise, kui pereema, roll pereettevõttes on oluline, naise osalus pereettevõttes tagab ettevõtluse stabiilsuse. Pereettevõtlusel on mõju ettevõtja eluvaldkondadele: majapidamisele, sotsiaalsele elule, majanduselule ja kogu perekonna kindlustatusele. Kui perekonna liige loob pereettevõtte, siis sageli peavad kõik pereliikmed omaks võtma uue eluviisi. (Kakkonen, 2006; Römer-Paakkanen, 2002; Brazzale, 2007; Rautamäki, 2007; Heinonen et al., 2011)

Venemaal 2007. aastal 555 naisjuhti küsitledes selgus, et neist 56% oli pereettevõtte ja pereettevõtte oli loodud naise poolt. Selgus, et naiste poolt loodud ja juhitud pereettevõtted olid alahoidlikud, sotsiaalsed, suunatud pereettevõtluskultuuri tõhustamisele. Uurimistöös järeldati, et naine tagab ettevõtluses edu ja jätkusuutlikkuse. (Kickul, Gundry, Iakovleva, 2007) Naiste poolt loodud ja juhitud pereettevõtted on vähem riskialdid, rohkem suunatud pärandikultuuri säilitamisele, naised ei ole jõulised juhid, kuid juhivad pereettevõtet alahoidlikult ning edasiviivalt (Sharma, Chrisman, Chua, 1997).

Naisele tuleb anda võimalus osaleda pereettevõttes, naise ilumeel ja alahoidlikkus on ettevõtlustegevuses eeliseks. Laste sündides tuleb naise kui ema rolli tähtsustada ning teda vähem koormata juhtimisalaste ülesannetega. Naine suudab kaasata lapsed ettevõtlustegevusse noorelt, mis tagab selle, et lapsed kasvades soovivad ja tahavad töötada pere heaks. Naised ei ole riskijad, nad seavad pere tähtsamaks, naiste kaasamine tagab harmoonia nii perekonnas kui pere ettevõtlustegevuses. Naised tegutsevad meeleldi võrgustikes, jagavad teadmisi ning otsivad vastuseid probleemidele. (Parada, Gimeno, Melin, 2010)

Rootsis läbiviidud uurimistöös aastatel 1994-2008 uuriti naise ja ema rolli ning naise osatähtsust pereettevõttes avaldatud artiklite baasil. Selgus, et laste sündides seavad naised esikohale lapsed, seejärel laste kasvades, taas pereettevõtluse. Kokkuvõtlikult saab järeldada, et naise elus on esmatähtis koht lastel, seejärel mitte normidega arvestamine ning naisel kui ärinaisel, oskuste omandamine ja jagamine, pereettevõtte arendus. Naised oskavad oskuslikult ühendada naise ja ema rolli, samuti naise-ema ja ettevõtja rolli. (Bjursell, Bäckval, 2010)

Naise rolli pereettevõtluses on uuritud, analüüsitud on naise ja pere ning ettevõtlustegevuse ühildavust, kuid vaid vähesel määral on uuritud naist, kui pereettevõtluse alustajat, seda millised on naise motiivid pereettevõtjaks hakkamisel.

Euroopa Liidu strateegia kohalikul tasandil

Arenenud riikides soovitakse, et sooline võrdõiguslikkus oleks tagatud, et naised ei alavääristataks ning naised saaksid osaleda ühiskonnas täisõiguslike kodanikena. Euroopa Liidus on samuti oluline, et sooline võrdõiguslikkus oleks tagatud.

Regioonide Komitee avaldas 2006. aastal arvamuse soolise võrdõiguslikkuse kaotamise kohta, avalduses leiti, et naised tuleb toetada, kaotada tuleb vägivald ning tagada nende võrdne kohtlemine. Selleks tuleb tugvdada naiste ühiskondlikku poisitsiooni, tagada neile ligipääs tööturule. (Opinion..., 2006) Euroopa Kohalike ja Regionaalsete Omavalitsuste Nõukogu koostas Euroopa harta naiste ja meeste võrdõiguslikkuse kohta kohalikus elus. Harta eesmärgiks on naiste ja meeste võrdõiguslikkus, otsustati anda abi naisettevõtjatele. (Euroopa kohalike..., 2006)

Regioonide Komitee täiskogu esitas 30.-31.05.2013 arvamuse eelnõu direktiivi kohta, milles käsitletakse soolise tasakaalu parandamist börsil noteeritud äriühingute tegevjuhtkonda mittekuuluvate juhtorgani liikmete seas ja sellega seotud meetmeid, millest nähtub, et jätkuvalt takistavad teatud tegurid naistel juhtivatele ametikohtadele asumist, näiteks puuduvad meetmed, mis hõlbustaksid töö- ja pereelu ühitamist. (Regioonide..., 2013)

Sotsiaalkindlustus peaks olema tagatud kõikidele ettevõtlusega tegelevate isikutele, ettevõtluses võetakse tööle töötajaid ning seoses sellega on neil ka sotsiaalsed garantiid. Pereettevõtetes, eriti alustavates, ei ole piisavalt ressursse, et palgata tööjõudu ning ka pereliikmeid tööle vormistada. Pereliikmetel, kelle töösuhet on pereettevõttes vormistamata, puuduvad sotsiaalsed garantiid. Suuremates raskustes on füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjad. Selleks, et tagada füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja abikaasale sotsiaalkindlustus võeti Euroopa Liidus vastu direktiiv, mis arvestades sellega, et füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjate abikaasad, kes siseriiklikus õiguses sätestatud tingimustel osalevad tavaliselt füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja tegevuses, täites samu või abiülesandeid, olemata ettevõtjaga töösuhetes või tema äripartnerid, nende osalemist pereettevõttes, peaks füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjate, kellel on juurdepääs sotsiaalkaitse süsteemile, abikaasadel olema samuti õigus sotsiaalkaitsele. Direktiivis sätestati, et liikmesriikidelt tuleks nõuda vajalike meetmete võtmist sotsiaalkaitse korraldamisel vastavalt siseriiklikule õigusele ning liikmesriikidel tuleb otsustada

selle üle, kas sotsiaalkaitset tuleks rakendada kohustuslikul või vabatahtlikul alusel. Liikmesriigid võivad sätestada, et sotsiaalkaitse võib olla proportsionaalne füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja tegevuses osalemisega ja/või sotsiaalkindlustusmaksete suurusega. Vastavalt direktiivile 2010/41/EL võib soodustus rakendada elukaaslastele, kui neid tunnustatakse siseriikliku õiguse alusel. (Euroopa Parlamendi..., 2010) Eestis saab alates 01.08.2012 füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja kanda oma abikaasa maksukohustuslaste registrisse kui füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja ettevõtte tegevuses osaleva abikaasana ja maksta igakuiselt sotsiaalmaksu abikaasa eest. (Sotsiaalmaksuseadus § 6¹, 2012) Antud võimalus ei kehti Eestis elukaaslastele.

Euroopa Komisjoni asepresident Antonio Tajani esitas 01.01.2013 tegevuskava ettevõtjate toetamiseks ja Euroopa ettevõtluskultuuri põhjalikuks muutmiseks. Tegevuskavas rõhutatakse, et kui muuta ettevõtlus Euroopa kodanike jaoks ihaldusväärseks ja kättesaadavaks ning kasutada Euroopa ettevõtluspotentsiaali, siis suudetakse taastada Euroopa majanduskasv. Komisjon kavatseb edendada ettevõtlust konkreetsete elanikkonnarühmade ehk naiste, eakate, sisserändajate ja töötute seas. (Communication..., 2013)

Euroopa Liidus ei ole senini sätestatud ühtset pereettevõtluse mõistet, kuid autorite arvates pööratakse pereettevõtlusele enam tähelepanu ja kaugel ei ole aeg, kui määratakse raamistik pere- ja mittepereettevõtluse eristamiseks. Samuti suurendatakse soolise võrdõiguslikkuse tagamisel naiste osatähtsust pereettevõtluses ning tähtsustatakse naise, kui pereettevõtja rolli.

Naine Eestis ettevõtluses

Eestis on vähesel määral uuritud naise osatähtsust ettevõtluses, kuid puuduvad üleriigilised uuringud naise osalusmäära ja rollist pereettevõtluses.

Naiste loodud ettevõtted annavad tööd nii omanikele kui ka ümbritsevatele inimestele. Oma ettevõtte annab naistele võimaluse tasakaalustada töö- ning perekonnaelu sfääre oma äranägemise ja võimaluste järgi. Naiste aktiivne osavõtt majanduselus vähendab naiste ja meeste vahelist ebavõrdsust, tõstab naiste autonoomiat ning loob eeldused naiste suuremaks kaasaráhkimisvõimaluseks oma maa majanduslikus ja poliitilises arengus. (Laas, 2003)

Teada saamiseks naise rollist ettevõtluses viidi läbi 2004. aastal küsitlus 393 naisettevõtja seas. Uuringust selgus, et peaaegu 40% küsitletud naisettevõtjatest oli oma pere peamiseks ülalpidajaks. Pere toetuse olemasolu on naise jaoks oluline ja mõjutab naise ettevõtmisi ja ettevõtlikkust. Naisettevõtjat kummitab ajanappus, vähem jääb aega perega koosolemiseks, enda hobide ja harrastustega tegelemiseks ning sõprade ja sugulastega suhtlemiseks. Naisettevõtja puhkusevõimalused on piiratud, vaid neljandik sai puhkust siis kui ise soovis, ligi pooled vastanutest ei olnud ettevõtlustegevuse ajal puhata saanud, kolmandik oli pidanud puhkust sobitama ettevõtte tegevusega. Pereliikmed enamasti toetavad pereema ettevõtlikkust, kuid probleemid peres tekivad sellest hoolimata. Kui iseendale

tööandjate seas domineerivad Euroopas mehed, keda on selles grupis kolmveerand, siis Eestis analüüsiga selgus vastupidine olukord. Naiste osakaal ise endale töökoha loojatena on kasvanud, eriti teenindussektoris. (Talves, Laas, 2004)

Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikides on soolise statistika alusel ettevõtjatest 30% naisi. Naiste poolt loodud ettevõtted on keskmiselt pikema eluaega kui meeste loodud ettevõtted, see tuleneb ennekõike tegevusvaldkonnast. Sotsiaalse kaitse skeemid on üheks tasuta pereettevõtte töötajate ja naisettevõtjate probleemiks. Väikeettevõtluses on üheks suuremaks rahvusvaheliselt aktuaalseks probleemiks pereettevõtetes töötavate inimeste õiguslikud, sotsiaalse kaitse ja majanduslikud suhted. Uuringud näitavad, et Eestis on naiste majanduslik, sotsiaalne ja poliitiline positsioon madalam kui meestel. Eesti tööturule on iseloomulik tugev sooline segregatsioon, mis tähendab seda, et selgelt eristuvad nn naiste ja meeste tööd ning naiste ja meeste positsioon tööorganisatsioonis on erinev. (Talves et al, 2004)

Füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjate seas 2004. aastal läbiviidud uurimistööst selgus, et paljud neist on ettevõtlusse kaasanud kogu perekonna: abikaasa, lapsed, vanemad ja õed-vennad. Ettevõtluses kasutas perekonna kaasabi 37% küsitletutest (Kirsipuu, Teder, 2006). 2006. aastal samade ettevõtjatega läbiviidud uurimistööst selgus, et 88,8% nendest tegeleb aktiivselt ettevõtlusega, ettevõtlustegevuse lõpetanutest 5,6% olid naised. Aktiivsetest ettevõtjatest 67% oli pereettevõtjad ja kõikide ettevõtlustegevuses osales abikaasa. Ettevõtlusesse oli kaasatud perekonnaliikmetest abikaasa; lapsed; vanemad; õed-vennad; vanavanemad; väimees; ämm ja äi. (Kirsipuu 2007)

2011. aasta rahva ja eluruumide loenduse andmetel elatub ettevõtjatulust 2% elanikest, eelmise loendusega võrreldes suurenes palgatööst ja ettevõtlusest elatuvate inimeste osatähtsus. Kogu Eesti elanikkonnast teenis ettevõtjatulu sh tulu talupidamisest ca 28 000 elanikku sh 8307 naist, kellest enamus tegutses linnade läheduses, maapiirkonnas vaid 2963 (REL..., 2013)

Alates 2009. aastast on juriidilisest isikust põllumajanduslike majapidamiste arvu kasv vähenenud, mis viitab sellele, et füüsilisest isikust ettevõtjana talupidamine on osaliselt asendumas piiratud vastutusega juriidilise isiku vormiga. See tähendab aga seda, et ettevõtlusvormi järgi ei ole enam võimalik vahet teha nn klassikalistel peretaludel ja põllumajandusettevõtetel. 2007. aastal läbiviidud uuringust 1000 põllumajandustootja seas selgus, et põllumajandustootmise lõpetamise kavatsuse tõenäosus on väiksem nendes ettevõtetes, kus peretööjõu osakaal on suurem. Kuna peretööjõu osatähtsus on suurem väiksemates tootmisüksustes, siis võib sellest järeldada, et väiksemate tootjate puhul on üheks jätkusuutlikkust tagavaks teguriks pereliikmete osalemine talutöodes. (Viira, 2011)

Maaelu arenguaruandest selguvad piirkondlikud arenguvajadused, milles on eraldi välja toodud pereettevõtluse olulisus. Maaelu arengu seisukohalt on tähtis pöörata senisest enam tähelepanu eri soost ja erineva vanusega inimeste sidumisele töö- ja pereelu ning ettevõtlusega. (Maaelu..., 2011)

Pereettevõtluse aktiivsuse kasvuks on vaja toetada igati pereettevõtlust, tähtsustada naise rolli pereettevõtluses ning tagada sotsiaalsed garantiid ka mitte füüsilisest isikust pereettevõtja naisele.

Uurimistöödest, mis on läbiviidud aastatel 2007-2012 pereettevõtjate seas selgub, et pereettevõtjatest abikaasad teevad pereettevõttes meeskonnatööd: kes jälgib strateegia elluviimist, kes korraldab rahaasju, kes juhib ja kes teeb majapidamistöid. Pereettevõtjatest on naine see, kes kergemad tööd teeb, samas on sageli ettevõtlikum naine. Pereettevõtetes peavad olema omavahelised suhted väga head, omavaheliste suhete kohta ütlesid abikaasad järgmist: „täiendame teineteist“, „mõtleme sarnaselt“, „abikaasa paneb paika strateegia, mina viia seda ellu“. Uurimistöödest nähtub, et pereettevõtjana alustamisel tuli initsiatiiv 40% naistelt ja 60% meestelt, kes siis kaasasid esmalt abikaasa (75%), siis lapsed (20%) ja vaid 5%-l lähisugulased. Uuritud pereettevõtjatest 55% on tegutsenud rohkem kui 10. aastat, 45% alla 10. aasta. (Kirsipuu *et al*, 2006, 2009a, 2009b, 2010, 2011, 2012).

Naise osatähtsust pereettevõtlustegevuses Eestis tuleb täiendavalt uurida.

Kokkuvõte

Käesolevas artiklis anti ülevaade teoreetiliste allikate põhjal naistest pereettevõtluses. Erinevate uurimistööde tulemuste analüüsist selgus, et naise kui pereema rolli on uuritud, kuid naise kui pereettevõtja rolli vaid vähesel määral. Uurimistööde tulemustes on selgunud, et naise, kui pereema, roll pereettevõttes on oluline, naise osalus pereettevõttes tagab ettevõtluse stabiilsuse. Pereettevõtlusel on mõju ettevõtja eluvaldkondadele: majapidamisele, sotsiaalsele elule, majanduselule ja kogu perekonna kindlustatusele.

Artiklis kajastatakse ka Eestis läbiviidud analüüside tulemusi ning autorid leiavad, et Eestis on vajalik luua ühtne andmebaas, kuhu saab koondada kõik ettevõtjatega läbiviidud uurimistööd, et siis neid analüüsides saaks edaspidi teostada süvendatud uurimusi.

Euroopa Liidus ei ole senini sätestatud ühtset pereettevõtluse mõistet, kuid autorite arvates pööratakse pereettevõtlusele enam tähelepanu ja kaugel ei ole aeg, kui määratakse raamistik pere- ja mittepereettevõtluse eristamiseks. Samuti suurendatakse soolise võrdsõiguslikkuse tagamisel naise osatähtsust pereettevõtluses ning tähtsustatakse naise, kui pereettevõtja rolli.

Edaspidi tuleb täiendavalt uurida naise osatähtsust Eestis pereettevõtlustegevuses.

AVALIKU SEKTORI KESKKONNAKULUTUSED EESTIS AASTATEL 1995-2011

Sirje Pädam¹, Üllas Ehrlich²
Tallinna Tehnikaülikool

1. Sissejuhatus

Eesti avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutuste maht on otseselt seotud sihtotstarbeliste, keskkonnakaitseliste tegevuste finantseerimiseks mõeldud keskkonnatasude laekumisega. Keskkonnakasutusest laekuvate tulude (edaspidi keskkonnatulude, näit. ressursimaks, saastetasud) sihtotstarbeline kasutamine keskkonnakaitses on üldiselt iseloomulik pigem Ida-Euroopa kui Lääne-Euroopa riikidele, kus keskkonnakaitselisi kulutusi finantseeritakse riigieelarvest üldistel alustel. Keskkonnatulude eelnevalt kokkulepitud sihtotstarbeline kasutamine aitab kaasa stabiilsele keskkonnapoliitikale ja keskkonnakaitseliste eesmärkide saavutamisele. Nii näiteks tagab keskkonnatulude sihtotstarbeline kasutamine, et keskkonnakulude finantseerimine ei pea riigieelarve koostamisel iga-aastaselt konkureerima teiste valdkondadega, tagades nii keskkonna vajadusteks tehtavate kulutuste suurema stabiilsuse. Eelnevat illustreerib asjaolu, et vaatamata ulatuslikele eelarvekärbetele 2008. ja 2009. aastal riigi keskkonnakulutused kasvasid. Sellest võib järeldada, et laekunud keskkonnatulude eelnevalt kokkulepitud kasutamine muudab keskkonnakulude finantseerimise suhteliselt sõltumatuks makromajanduslikest arengutest. Keskkonnakulude kasv kriisiaastatel sai lisaks kokkulepitud finantseerimismehhanismile võimalikuks tänu ökoloogilisele maksureformile, mis suurendas riigieelarvesse laekuvaid keskkonnatulusid, mille sihtotstarbeline kasutus oli kokku lepitud. Olulisel kohal keskkonnakulutuste suurenemises on lisaks maksureformile ka Euroopa Liidu 2007-2013 eelarveperioodi keskkonna vajadusteks ette nähtud vahendite järk-järguline kasutuselevõtt, mida tuleks riigisiseste tulude kulutamise sihtotstarbelisuse mõju analüüsil arvestada, käsitledes EL-ist lähtuvat finantseerimist siseriiklikust eraldi.

Käesoleva artikli eesmärgiks on välja selgitada, millist mõju avaldab riigi keskkonnakuludele nende finantseerimise eelnev kokkuleppimine keskkonnatuludest. Arvestades, et riigi keskkonnakulutuste finantseerimine toetub erinevalt kohalike omavalitsuste kulutusest tulude (keskkonnamaksude) sihtotstarbelisele kasutamisele, püstitasid autorid hüpoteesi, et kohalike omavalitsuste keskkonnakulutused on riigi kulutustega võrreldes makromajanduslikest arengutest enam sõltuvad.

Avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutusi on seni nii Eestis kui ka Euroopas suhteliselt vähe uuritud. (Näiteks autoritel õnnestus välja selgitada vaid kuus viimasel

¹ Sirje Pädam, PhD, dotsent sirje-ilona.padam@ttu.ee, TTÜ majandusteaduskond, Akadeemia tee 3, EE-12618 Tallinn, Estonia.

² Üllas Ehrlich, PhD, Professor, ullah.ehrlich@ttu.ee, TTÜ majandusteaduskond, Akadeemia tee 3, EE-12618 Tallinn, Estonia.

kümnendil avaldatud selleteemalist teadustööd.) Võttes arvesse, et keskkonna kvaliteet on elukvaliteedi ja indiviidide heaolu üheks oluliseks determinandiks, mille tagamine ühes selleks vajalike kulutuste tegemisega kuulub suuresti avaliku sektori ülesannete hulka, väärib teema senisest põhjalikumalt käsitlemist, millist eesmärki püüab täita ka käesolev uurimus.

2. Riigi keskkonnakaitselised kulutused

Vaatlusaluse perioodi alguses, aastatel 1995-2000, olid valitsuse keskkonnakulutused Eestis suhteliselt stabiilsed, tasemel 20 miljonit eurot aastas (püsihindades). Sellele järgnenud ajavahemikul 2001-2005 keskkonnakulutused aasta-aastalt suurenesid. Kasv jätkus 2008. aastani, olles eriti märkimisväärne aastatel 2006 kuni 2008. Sealpeale hakkasid kulutused kahanema, langes 2011. aastal tagasi 2006. aasta tasemele. 2011. aastal olid riigieelarvelised keskkonnakaitselised kulutused veidi üle 68 miljoni euro, mis moodustas selle aasta riigieelarve kuludest ligikaudu 1,5 protsenti. Võrreldes 2010. aastaga langesid kulutused 2011. aastal oluliselt. Kulutuste vähenemine toimus võrreldes 2009. aastaga ka 2010. aastal. Aga näiteks aastatel 2007-2009 ületasid keskkonnakulutused 2 protsenti riigi eelarvelistest kogukulutustest.

Eesti avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutustest perioodil 1996-2010 annab ülevaate tabel 1. Hindamaks makromajandusliku keskkonna (sh majanduslanguse) mõju keskkonnakulutustele, on tabelis toodud riigi ja omavalitsuse keskkonnakulutuste protsent sisemajanduse kogutoodangust.

Andmetest nähtub, et nii riigi kui omavalitsuste keskkonnakulutused on vaatlusalusel perioodil märkimisväärselt kõikunud. Nii riigi kui omavalitsuste keskkonnakulutuste olulised suurenemised langevad ühtele ja samale aastale, 1997, 2001 ja 2005. Arvestades, et keskkonnakulutuste hulka kuuluvad ka mahukad investeeringud prügimajandusse ja veepuhastusse, võib eeldada kulutuste tsüklilisust. Siiski saab keskkonnakulutuste korreleerumisest SKP muutustega teha mõningaid järeldusi kulutuste tundlikkuse kohta makroökonoomilistest arengutest.

Korrelatatsioon SKP-st on väiksem riigi keskkonnakulutustel ($r=0.22$) omavalitsuste kulutustega võrreldes ($r=0.36$). Kui perioodi kaks viimast aastat välja arvata, siis korrelatsioon suureneb, olles 0.27 riigi ja 0.55 omavalitsuste kulutustel. Andmetest võib järeldada, et riigi kulutused on makromajanduslikust keskkonnast võrreldes omavalitsuste kulutustega vähem mõjutatavad ja riigi kulutuste mõju SKP fluktuatsioonidest on aja jooksul pigem vähenenud. Kui võrrelda keskkonnakulutusi kriisiperioodidel 1998-1999 ja 2008-2009, võib täheldada erinevusi. Nii oli esimese kriisi (1998-1999) mõju riigi keskkonnakulutustele tunduvalt suurem kui viimase (2008-2009). Viimasele majanduslangusele järgnenud SKP kasv aga riigi keskkonnakulutuste mahtu positiivselt ei mõjutanud, need jätkasid vähenemist ka 2011. aastal. Küll aga kasvasid omavalitsuste keskkonnakulutused 34 miljonilt eurolt 2010. aastal 49 miljoni euron 2011. aastal.

Tabel 1. Eesti SKP, riigi ja omavalitsuste keskkonnakaitseliste kulutuste dünaamika aastatel 1996-2011, väljendatuna muutuse protsentides aastas (püsihindades)

	SKP	Keskkonnakaitseliste kulutused	
		Riik	Omavalitsused
1996	5,9%	28,1%	-14,1%
1997	11,7%	42,6%	14,0%
1998	6,8%	1,6%	4,6%
1999	-0,3%	-1,6%	-4,4%
2000	9,7%	-13,5%	-6,2%
2001	6,3%	62,5%	58,8%
2002	6,6%	11,7%	5,6%
2003	7,8%	12,1%	-6,4%
2004	6,3%	10,0%	1,2%
2005	8,9%	26,1%	39,6%
2006	10,1%	-12,1%	6,0%
2007	7,5%	45,1%	-7,5%
2008	-4,2%	33,9%	-1,3%
2009	-14,1%	-16,7%	-13,9%
2010	3,3%	-27,2%	-15,0%
2011	8,3%	-17,4%	44,1%

Allikas: autorite arvutused, Eesti statistika.

3. Keskkonnakulutuste sõltuvus finantseerimisallikatest

Tabelis 2 on esitatud andmed riigi kulutuste kohta keskkonnakaitsele ja veevarustusele, Keskkonnainvesteeringute Keskuse (KIK) kaudu tehtud keskkonnakulutused ja KIK-i vahendatud EL fondidest tehtud keskkonnakulutused. Kahjuks on aegrida regressioonanalüüsi teostamiseks liiga lühike.

Toodud andmetele toetudes võib täheldada seost riigi ja KIK-i keskkonnakulutuste vahel, välja arvatud asjaolu, et 2011. aastal ületas EL-i fondidest lähtuv finantseerimine riigi vastavaid kulutusi mitmekordselt. Ökoloogilise maksureformi esimesel aastal (2006) kasvasid riigi kulutused ca 8 miljoni euro võrra, samal ajal kui finantseerimine EL-i fondidest suurenes tervelt 18 miljonit eurot. Riigi keskkonnakulutused hakkasid oluliselt kasvama järgmisest, 2007. aastast. 2008. aastal kasvasid võrreldes 2007. aastaga nii riigi, KIK-i kui KIK-i vahendatud EL-i fondidest finantseeritavad keskkonnakulutused. KIK-i omamaistest vahenditest tehtud kulutused suurenesid 13 miljonit ja EL- fondidest vahendatud kulutused 22 miljonit eurot. See näitab EL-st lähtuva finantseerimise suuremat mõju ökoloogilise maksureformiga võrreldes. Kokkuvõttes võib väita, et perioodil 2005-2011 moodustasid KIK-i toetused, mis formeerusid ette kokkulepitud kasutusotstarbega keskkonnakuludest, ligikaudu 37 protsenti riigi kulutustest keskkonnale ja veevarustusele. See jääb mahu poolest tunduvalt alla EL-i fondidest tehtud keskkonnakulutustele.

Tabel 2. Riigi kulutused keskkonnakaitsele ja veevarustusele, Keskkonnainvesteeringute Keskuse (KIK) kaudu tehtud keskkonnakulutused ja KIK-i vahendatud EL fondidest tehtud keskkonnakulutused, miljon eurot

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Riigi kulutused keskkonnakaitsele ja veevarustusele	61,3	58,5	94,8	133,6	111,2	81,3	69,1	609,8
KIK-st tehtud keskkonnakulutused	45,0	70,6	73,7	108,3	110,0	98,0	182,7	688,3
sh KIK-i programmi toetused	23,4	31,1	31,0	43,0	37,4	23,9	33,9	223,7
KIK-i vahendatud EL-i fondide raha	21,6	39,5	42,7	65,3	72,5	74,1	148,9	464,6

Allikas: Autorite arvutused, Eesti statistika, KIK-i aastaraamatud ja aastaaruanded 2005-2011.

4. Järeldused

Kuigi keskkonnatulude ette kokkulepitud sihtotstarbelist kasutamist keskkonnakulutusteks ei ole põhjust alahinnata, võib siiski väita, et Eesti avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutustes mängis analüüsitaval perioodil suhteliselt suuremat rolli EL-i fondidest lähtuv keskkonnakaitseliste tegevuste finantseerimine. Analüüs näitab ka, et perioodil 1996-2011 olid riigi keskkonnakulutused võrreldes omavalitsuste keskkonnakulutustega makroökonoomilistele muutustele vähem tundlikud. Riigi tehtud kulutuste mahu väiksemast tundlikkusest võib järeldada, et keskkonnatulude eelnevalt kokkulepitud kasutamine keskkonnakuludeks aitab kaasa keskkonna kvaliteedi parandamiseks tehtavate kulutuste stabiilsusele. Samas võib Eesti näite põhjal järeldada, et keskkonnatulude kasutuse ette kindlaksmääramine ei ole meetmena piisav. Selline järeldus tugineb tõsiasi, et aastatel 2006-2008 oli keskkonnakulude suurenemine enam mõjutatud EL-i fondidest pärit vahenditest samal perioodil kasvanud keskkonnamaksudega võrreldes. Samuti võib eeldada, et oma mõju avaldas ka majanduskriisi tingimustes muudetud keskkonnatulude kasutuse ette kindlaksmääramise kord.

Kuigi ette kindlaksmääratud kasutusega keskkonnatuludel on avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutustes oluline osa, võib siiski väita, et avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutuste suurenemisel on määravama tähtsusega EL-i fondidest pärit vahendid. Küll on põhjust oletada, et EL-i fondidest keskkonnakulutuste finantseerimine ei pruugi olla igavene, mistõttu väärib keskkonnatulude keskkonnakulutusteks kasutamise põhimõtte säilitamist ja edasiarendamist.

KESKKONNA OSA LINNADE KONKURENTSIVÕIME TUGEVDAMISEL EUROOPA ROHELISTE PEALINNADE JA TALLINNA NÄITEL

Jüri Ratas¹, Sulev Mäeltsemees²
Tallinna Tehnikaülikool

Euroopa Liidu tasakaalustatud ja jätkusuutliku majandusliku ja sotsiaalse arengu üheks oluliseks eelduseks on kõrgetasemega elukeskkonna tagamine. Euroopa linnades, kuhu on koondunud suur hulk elanikkonnast ja kus toimub peamine töökohtade, majanduskasvu ja lisandväärtuse loomine, esineb praegu veel hulgaliselt tõsisid keskkonnprobleeme. Urbanisatsiooniaste oli 2010.a Euroopas 72,7%, ÜRO prognoosib 2050. aastaks Euroopas selle tõusu kuni 82,2%. Et tunnustada neid linnu, kes on oluliselt panustanud enda elukvaliteedi paremustamisse, loodi 2006. aasta Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna tiitel. Selle tiitliga pärjatud linnad on kasutusele võtnud kõige innovaatilisemad ja efektiivsemad meetmed linna konkurentsivõime tõstmiseks ning on eeskujuks mitte üksnes pealinnadele säästva arengu saavutamisel. Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna lauraatide keskkonnanäitajad on kõrged. Artiklis analüüsitakse seda probleemi Eesti Vabariigi pealinna Tallinna näitel, kes püüdleb Euroopa kõige kõrgema elukvaliteediga linnade hulka. Artikli eesmärgiks on näidata ja analüüsida ERP osa Euroopa Liidu keskkonnanäitajate eesmärkide saavutamisel tuginedes 12 tegevusvaldkonnale, mida arvestatakse tiitli saamisel.

Euroopa Liidu tasakaalustatud ja jätkusuutliku majandusliku ning sotsiaalse arengu eelduseks on kõrgetasemelise elukeskkonna tagamine, kus olulist osa etendavad linnad. Urbaniseerumine ehk linnastumine ongi tänapäeva Euroopa üks fundamentaalsemaid tunnuseid, mis on oluliselt muutnud elukeskkonda (Antrop, 2004). Seetõttu on linnade areng ruumipoliitikate tähelepanu keskpunktis. Tänapäeval elab linnades üle 70 % Euroopa kodanikest. Linnad on oma elanikele mitte ainult elupaigaks, vaid ka majanduse aktiivsuse mootoriks, andes suure osa (kuni 85%) rahvuslikust koguproduktist (United Nations, 2009). Linnades toimub peamine töökohtade, majanduskasvu ja lisandväärtuse loomine.

Linn on inimkooslus oma vaimse ja füüsilise ning kaasneva taristuga. Linnas põimuvad tihedad sotsiaalsed, majanduslikud ja keskkondlikud seosed, kujuneb vaid sellele elupaigale iseloomulik põhifunktsionaalne võrgustik. Linn on pidevalt arenev süsteem, mille käitumist saab prognoosida ja mille arengut saab põhijoontes ka suunata (Levald, Sander, 2005). Linnade areng juhindub arengukavadest ja planeeringutest. Linnaplaneerimises on vajalik olla teadlik linna kasvu erinevatest aspektidest ning rakendada majanduslikku, sotsiaalset ja keskkonnanäitajate arengut (Jauhiainen, 2005). 1983. aasta Torremolinose konverentsil koostatud Harta toonitas ruumilise planeerimise tähtsust, mis on demokraatlik, erinevate elualade

¹ Jüri Ratas, magistrikraad, Riigikogu aseesimees, Riigikogu, Lossi plats 1a Tallinn 15165, jyri.ratas@riigikogu.ee

² Sulev Mäeltsemees, doktorikraad, professor, Tallinn Tehnikaülikool, Sotsiaalteaduskond, dekaan, Ehitaajate tee 5, Tallinn 12618 sulev.maeltssemees@ttu.ee

arengukavasid koordineeriv, integreeriv ja funktsionaalne pikaajaline ruumilise arengu kavandamine (European regional..., 1983).

Üldised linnaarengu eesmärgid peavad tagama kõigile põhivajadusi rahuldava, seega elamisväärse, säästliku, tervisliku ja turvalise elukoha. Oluline on rahuldada linnaelanike sotsiaal-kultuurilised ja majanduslikud vajadused võimalikult väikeste energia- ja materjalikuludega, otstarbeka maakasutusega ning vähimate keskkonna kahjustustega. Planeeringu üheks kontseptuaalseks aluseks on linnastruktuuri väärtuslike elementide säästlik ärakasutamine ja arendamine sotsiaalse tasakaalu ja mitmekesisuse saavutamiseks nii linnas tervikuna, kui selle üksikutes piirkondades/linnaosades, mis sageli just tagavad linna kui terviku kiire ja efektiivse arengu (Mäeltsemees, Lõhmus, 2006). Seega on oluline ühendada loovalt looduslik ja tehnilik keskkond toetamaks mingi piirkonna jätkusuutlikku arengut (Magnaghi, 1998).

Linnakeskkonna paremustamist on suuresti toetanud mitmed 1990ndatel aastatel ja 21. sajandi alguses väljatöötatud ja vastu võetud kontseptsioonid. 1992. aastal toimunud Rio de Janeiro ülemaailmse arengu- ja keskkonna konverentsi seisukohtade edasiarendamiseks kogunesid 1994. aastal Aalborgi Euroopa omavalitsuste esindajad, et kirjutada alla Aalborgi Hartale. See sai aluseks paljude Euroopa linnade säästva arengu kavade väljatöötamisele (Aalborg Charter, 1994).

Euroopa Liidu 6. keskkonna tegevusprogramm seadis eesmärgid neljas prioriteetses valdkonnas: kliimamuutus; loodus ja bioloogiline mitmekesisus; keskkond, tervis ja elu kvaliteet ning loodusvarad ja jäätmed (6th EU Environment..., 2001). See programm tõi esile ka mitmeid aspekte, mille lahendamisel on linnadel otsustav roll. Õhukvaliteedi tagamine, keskkonnasäästliku linnatranspordi arendamine, liiklustiheduse vähendamine ja liiklusummikute ärahoidmine, üldise mürafooni vähendamine, hoonestatud aladel elukeskkonna kvaliteedi tagamine, heakorra tagamine, kasvuhoonegaaside vähendamine, valglinnastumisega seotud negatiivsete ilmingute vähendamine, jäätmete tekke vähendamine, reovee kanaliseerimine ja puhastamine on vaid osa valdkondadest, mille lahendamine on just linnade ülesanne.

2006. aastal võeti Euroopa Parlamendis vastu resolutsioon linnakeskkonda käsitleva temaatilise strateegia kohta (P6_TA(2006)0367), mille eesmärk on anda panus Euroopa linnade üldisesse keskkonnahoidu, vähendades bürokraatiat ja tõhustades keskkonnapoliitika rakendamist ning julgustades kohalikul tasandil pikaajalist keskkonnaplaneerimist (European Parliament resolution..., 2006).

2004/2005 viis Läänemere Linnade Liit läbi uuringu selgitamaks olukorda ja suundumusi linnade jätkusuutlikus arengus (Baltic Cities..., 2005). Indikaatorid olid valitud Läänemere Linnade Liidu Agenda 21 tegevusprogrammi põhiteemadest, mis haakuvad Euroopa Komisjoni linnakeskkonna temaatilise strateegiaga kui Euroopa kuuenda keskkonnavalase tegevusprogrammi ühe osaga: võimekas juhtimine, hea elukeskkond ja looduse kaitse, sotsiaalne integratsioon ja tervis, säästlik energia ja ressursside kasutamine ning seda tagav majandus ja transport.

Linnade jätkusuutlik areng leiab käsitlemist ka Leipzigi Hartas, mis võeti vastu 2007. a., ning annab uue tõuke säästvate linnade kujundamisele, kasutades integreeritud linnaarengu poliitikat, kus majanduslik areng, sotsiaalne tasakaal ja ühtekuuluvus ning keskkonna aspektidega arvestamine peavad linnade arendamisel leidma võrdväärse koha. Oluline koht on erineva tasandi poliitilise ja haldusüksuste ning avaliku ja erasektori vahelisel koostööl. (Leipzig Charter, 2007).

Linnade ettevõtmised, mis avaldavad olulist mõju elukeskkonna parandamisele, vajavad enam tunnustamist, teadvustamist ja sellealased jõupingutused enam motiveerimist. Just sel eesmärgil tegi Tallinn käesoleva artikli autori eestvedamisel 2006. aastal ettepaneku Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna (ERP) tiitli asutamiseks, mis väärtustaks linnade keskkonnahoiu alaseid tegevusi ning tunnustaks linnade poolt tehtavaid pingutusi harmoonilise linnakeskkonna loomisel (Measuring urban..., 2010). Lähtuti üldtunnustatud seisukohast, et linnade keskkonnaseisundi sihikindel parandamine annab olulise aluse linnade konkurentsivõimele, mis on praeguses üha avatumaks muutuv ja integreeruv maailmas järjest olulisem.

Käesoleva artikli eesmärgiks on analüüsida linna keskkonnategevusevaldkondi ja keskkonnakorraldust konkurentsivõime tõstmise kontekstis. ERP linnade andmestik pärineb mitmetest Euroopa Komisjoni poolt välja antud töödest ja interneti leheküljelt (European Green Capital: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/index_en.htm). Kasutamist leiab ka 2013. aastal Säästva Eesti Instituudi (SEI) poolt valminud põhjalik uurimus, kus kirjeldatakse ja kõrvutatakse viie tiitli saanud linna keskkonnanäitajaid 12 tegevusvaldkonna lõikes (Ülevaade..., 2013). Samuti on ka kasutatud autori poolt ERP-de linnavalitsustele esitatud küsimuste vastuseid Rohelise Pealinna mõjust oma linnale. Töö koostamisel on kasutatud hulgaliselt käskkirjalisi materjale, mis käsitlevad Tallinna linna arengukavasid ja aruandelisi arvandeid.

2006. aasta kevadel anti Euroopa linnade linnapeade poolt alla kirjutatud Rohelise Pealinna tiitli ettepanek – memorandum üle Euroopa Komisjonile (Memorandum..., 2006), kus see heaks kiideti. 2008.a. kehtestati Brüsselis Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna tiitel. Deklaratsioonis on esitatud põhiidee – innustada linnasid tõstma keskkonnakaitse taset ja parandama oma keskkonnaseisundit (Declaration..., 2008). Põhiideele lisandusid kolm eesmärki: premeerida linnu, kes suudavad järjepidevalt saavutada kõrgeid keskkonnavalitsuste eesmärgi; innustada linnu seadma ambitsioonikaid eesmärgi täiendavaks keskkonnaseisundi parendamiseks ja jätkusuutlikuks arenguks ning pakkuda eeskuju inspireerimaks teisi linnu ning soodustada parima praktika levikut teistesse Euroopa linnadesse (Expert Panel, 2010).

2008. aasta lõpuks selgitati välja kaks Euroopa linna, kes võiksid esimestena kanda Euroopa Rohelise Pealinna nimetust. Neid hinnati 10 keskkonnanäitaja alusel (The Expert Panel's ..., 2009). ERP konkursil esitatud tingimused iga keskkonnanäitaja kohta on küllaltki kõrged. Tänapäev on hinnatavate tegevusvaldkondade arv tõusnud 12. Nendeks on: piirkonna roll üldilmses kliimamuutuses; kohalik transport; rahvale avatud rohealad, sh keskkonnasäästlik maakasutus; looduse ja bioloogiline

mitmekesisus; kohaliku õhu kvaliteet ja müratasand; jäätmetekke ja jäätmemajandus; veetarbimine; reoveekäitlus; ökouuendus ja jätkusuutlik tööhõive; kohaliku omavalitsuse keskkonnajuhtimine ja energiatõhusus (European Green Capital).

Rohelise Pealinna tiitliga tunnustatakse linna, kes on kasutusele võtnud kõige innovaatilisemad ja efektiivsemad meetmed ja jätkab nende elluviimist ka tulevikus ning on eeskujuks teistele linnade säästva arengu saavutamisel (Expert Panel, 2010). Tiitli vääriline linn tõstab kindlasti teiste linnade seas oma konkurentsivõimet, muutub atraktiivsemaks investeerijatele, turistidele, linnaplaneerijatele ja teiste elualade esindajatele. See tähendab ühtlasi uut impulssi majandusarengu elavdamiseks linnas, rääkimata keskkonnatingimuste inimsõbralikumaks muutumisest. Esimene ERP tiitel anti välja üheaegselt kahele linnale: 2010. aastaks Stockholmile ning 2011. aastaks Hamburgile. Tallinn on seadnud eesmärgiks kandideerida ERP tiitlile 2018. aastaks, sellest tulenevalt tuleb taotlus esitada 2015. aastal.

Linna ruumilisest planeerimisest oleneb transpordikorraldus, linnahaljastus, rohealade ligipääs ja sidusus. Rohealade moodustavad ERP-de pindalast 10-40%. Tallinnas on haljasmaid kokku 43,3 km². Linna pindalast on 27,2% kaetud haljastusega (Strateegia Tallinn 2030, 2010). Tallinnas on see u. 100 m² ühe elaniku kohta (Tallinn arvudes..., 2012). Haljasalad linnas on investeringud tulevikku. Neid ei ole vaja üksnes esteetilistel kaalutlustel ning liigilise mitmekesisuse säilitamiseks, vaid ka õhufiltrina ja mürareostuse leevendajana.

Looduse suur mitmekesisus on Tallinna üks tugevusi. Linnas paikneb 3 maastikukaitseala, 2 hoiuala, 50 parki ja 117 looduse üksikobjekti ning 5 supelrandat. Neile lisanduvad Natura 2000 alad (Tallinn arvudes 2012, 2012). Kõik see annab võimaluse täita küllaltki arvestatavalt siinses linnakeskkonnas looduskaitse nüüdisaja peamisi funktsioone, mida toetavad ka mitmed Tallinna linnaelustiku uuringud (Uustal jt., 2010; Kuldna, 2011 jm.).

Linnatransport mõjutab linna tervikuna, sh inimeste, kaupade ja teenuste liikuvust ning keskkonnaseisundit. Elanikkonna liiklusviisid (kergliiklus, liiklemine autodega ja ühistranspordiga) on küllaltki erinevad (Jüssi jt., 2010). Oluliseks teguriks keskkonna paremustamisel on kergliikluse ja ühistranspordi osakaalu suurenemine.

Linnaõhu peamine probleem on peente saasteosakeste suurenenud sisaldus suurematel ristmikel. Paljude linnaosade tänavatel on tervist mõjutavaks teguriks kujunenud kõrgenenud müratase, eriti raudtee ja magistraaltänavate vahetus läheduses (Strateegia "Tallinn 2030", 2010). Tallinn on suure autode arvuga linn. Praegu on linnas 350 autot 1000 elaniku kohta (Fakte Tallinnast 2012, 2013). Tingitud asendist mere ääres ei esine linnas suuri õhukvaliteedi piirmäärade ületamisi.

Suurt tähelepanu pööratakse linnades tarbitava vee kvaliteedile ja veehulga vähendamisele. Toimub pidev veetaristu parendamine, vanade ja leketeohtlike

torude väljavahetamine. Leketega veekao vähendamisel on Tallinn jõudnud 19%-ni. Praeguseks on ERP linnad saavutanud tarbimise veidi üle 100 l/in päevas.

Oluline valdkond linnas on jäätmed ja nende käitlemine. Alates 1997. aastast on jäätmetekke Tallinnas vähenenud ning jäätmete kogus on alla 300 kg elaniku kohta. Lähimaks eesmärgiks on taaskasutada vähemalt 50% olmejäätmetest. Tallinna jäätmete töötlemine ja järelejääva osa ladestamine toimub 2003. aastal avatud ning kõigile keskkonnanõuetele vastavas Jõelähtme vallas asuvas Tallinna Jäätmete Taaskasutuskeskuses. 2013. aastal läheb käiku Iru jäätmete põletustehas, kuhu suunatakse suurem osa eelsorteerimise läbinud olmejäätmeid.

Oluliselt on vaja tõhustada tööd ökouuenduse ja jätkusuutlik tööhõive valdkonnas. Tallinnas on ökoinnovatsiooni alal üksikuid näiteid: mobiiltelefonide teel parkimise eest tasumine, audiogiidi kasutamine, tasuta traadita internet jm.

Alates 20. sajandi viimasest veerandist on üha enam rõhutatud jätkusuutliku arengu põhimõtet — majanduslikke, sotsiaalseid ja keskkonnahoidlikke ülesandeid saab lahendada vaid terviklikus koosluses, vastastikust koostööju arvestades. On jõutud seisukohale, et keskkonnakasutuse lahutumatu osa on keskkonnakaitse ning keskkonnaprobleemide lahendamine edendab ka majanduslikku ja sotsiaalset arengut. Ruumilises plaanis käib see eeskätt linnade kohta.

Rahvusvahelise konkurentsivõime suurendamiseks tuleb Tallinnal laiendada planeeringualast ja funktsionaalset koostööd naaberomavalitsustega, et tagada piirkonna eelduste sealhulgas piirkonnas toimivate rahvusvaheliste koostöövõrgustike parim kasutamine. Linnaruum oma tagamaaga on ettevõtluse peamine paik. Majanduse ja keskkonna näitajad ja nende muutuvus on vastastikku tihedalt seotud ja otseselt sõltuvad üksteisest. Majanduslikus tegevuses on keskkonnatingimused (õhk, vesi, toore, keskkonnaseisund, logistika jm.) üheks peamiseks sisendiks. Nüüdisaja poliitikameetmete kogum majandushoobade näol käsitleb omavahel põimuvalt nii majanduslikke kui ka keskkondlikke eesmärke. Seejuures just majandushoovad võimaldavad muuta keskkonnakulutusi sisekuludeks.

Hea elukvaliteediga linnade areng oleneb linnade läbimõeldud eluruumi planeerimisest, mis sisaldab nii asustussüsteeme, elamumajandust kui ka looduse kaitset. Linna keskkonna paremustamine sisaldab linnas rohke haljasalade olemasolu; keskkonnahoidlikku ühistranspordi eelisarendamist, õhu ja vee kvaliteedi tõstmist, jäätmete ja müra vähendamist. Keskkonna mõjutavaid tegevusvaldkondi on mitmeid, mida koos arendades saavutatakse keskkonnakvaliteedi paranemine linnas. Oluline on ka keskkonnajuhtimine. Kõik see tõstab linnade konkurentsivõimet. Linnade eluruumi kvaliteedi tõstmisel on kahtlemata vajalik linnade omavaheline suhtlemine, mis aitab informatsiooni vahetada, samuti toob see kaasa uute algatuste väljatöötamise ja kohustuste võtmise, et kaitsta keskkonda ja edendada linna arengut tervikuna.

MÕNEDEST HALDUSTERRITORIAALSE REFORMI VAJALIKKUSE JA VÕIMALIKKUSE ASPEKTIDEST EESTIS

Matti Raudjärv¹
Tartu Ülikool

Sissejuhatus

Regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse (ehk lokaalse) poliitika küsimused on Eesti Vabariigis olnud pikka aega päevakorras sageli vaid diskussiooni tasemel kuid praktiline tegevus selles valdkonnas on olnud kindlasti ebapiisav. Hulk aastaid on arutatud ja räägitud haldusterritoriaalse reformi vajalikkusest ning selle raames kohalike omavalitsuste liitumiste vajadusest ja võimalikkusest, tulemused on aga rohkem kui tagasihoidlikud.²

Käesolev artikkel on täienduseks, jätkuks ja edasiarenduseks autori varasematele sama valdkonna artiklitele ja esinemistele. (Raudjärv ...2007)^{3,4} Siinjuures olgu märgitud, et käesolevas kirjutises on ka eelmistes artiklites ja esinemistes avaldatu osalisi kordamisi.

Artikli eesmärgiks on mõnede Eesti regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitikas lahendamist vajavate aktuaalsete küsimuste käsitlemine. Uuritakse ja hinnatakse järgmiseid aspekte:

- olulisemad regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika probleemid,
- regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika arendamise vajadus,
- Eesti maakonnakeskuste ja ümbritsevate valdade võimalikud ühinemised,
- mõned ettepanekud edasiseks regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika valdkonnas.

¹ PhD Matti RAUDJÄRV, Tartu Ülikool (regionaalne Pärnu Kolledž), c/o Kose tee 79, 12013 Tallinn, Estland-Estonia; taasiseseisvunud Eestis esimese majanduspoliitika õppetooli asutaja (Tallinna Tehnikaülikooli majandusteaduskonnas 1992), selle esimene juhataja ja professor. Email: mattir@hotmail.ee; matti.raudjarv@ut.ee; www.mattimar.ee

² Üheksakümnendate aastate lõpus ja kaheksakümnendate aastate alguses oli kohalike omavalitsuste ühinemise teema nii aktuaalne, et mõnel perioodil võis igal nädalal kord (vahest isegi üle päeva) Eesti meediast teada saada, et Eestis on esitatud jälle uued ettepanekud ning valminud järjekordne kohalike omavalitsuste haldus-territoriaalne kaart!

³ Raudjärv, M. Über die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten der Regional- und Kommunalpolitik (unter Berücksichtigung der Zusammenlegung von Verwaltungseinheiten)/ Regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika arenguvõimalustest Eestis (sh haldusüksuste kontsentratsiooni aspekt). Majanduspoliitilised väitlused/ Estnische Gespräche über Wirtschaftspolitik/ Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy – 2007 (kaasasoleval CD-l saksa keelne artikkel, paberikandjal eesti keelne kokkuvõte, lk.67-71).

⁴ Autori ettekanne 28. veebruaril 2008 Tallinnas Viru-Sokos hotellis konverentsil „Eesti Linnade ja Valdade päevad – 2008“ teemal „Regionaalse ja kohaliku arengu kontsentratsioon Eestis“.

Senine loid tegevus haldusterritoriaalse reformi valdkonnas tuleks Eesti ja tema piirkondade arengu huvides võimalikult kiiresti oluliselt aktiivsema tegevusega asendada. Pole ju tõsiselt võetav, et ligi 18-ne aasta jooksul ehk aastatel 1996-2013 on kokku vaid 22. korral toimunud 51. valla-linna ühinemist, mille tulemusel on omavalitsuste arv tänaseks 29 võrra vähenenud. Seega kui ühinemiste eel oli Eestis 255 kohaliku omavalitsuse üksust, siis 2013. aasta alguses oli 226 kohalikku omavalitsust (linna ja valda). Viimane ja ainuke ühinemine toimus 2009. aastal ning seni on kõik ühinemised vastavalt õigusaktidele toimunud kohalike valimiste järel.

2012. aasta lõpukuud ning 2013. aasta alguskuud on näidanud järjekordset aktiivset arutelu ühinemiste teemadel. Järjekordsed kohalikud valimised toimuvad 20. oktoobril 2013 ning vastavalt õigusaktidele tuleb ühineda soovijatel hiljemalt 19. aprilliks ehk pool aastat enne valimisi ühinemiseks vajalikud protseduurid läbi viia, dokumentatsioon ette valmistada ning vastav ühinemisavaldus oma maakonnas maavanemale esitada. Käesoleva artikli autor siiski ei usu, et ühinemisi meie omavalitsustegelaste konservatiivsuse tõttu 2013. aastal eriti palju toimub.⁵

Mõned olulisemad probleemid regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitikas

Eesti rahvamajanduse areng oli enne majanduskriisi suhteliselt kiire. Selle kõrval on regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse küsimused praktikas aga paraku tagaplaanile jäänud ning regionaalne tasakaalustamatus isegi suurenenud, maakondade ja pealinna vahelised arengu erisused kasvanud. Haldusterritoriaalse reformi erinevate valdkondadega on tegeletud pikki aastaid, kuid rahuldavate tulemusteni jõutud ei ole.

Arvestades vajalikke ja võimalikke haldusterritoriaalseid muutusi võib väita, et ilmselt takistavad seda meie erakondlikud huvid ning konkreetset nn „asjast huvitatud” poliitikut. Näiteks regionaalset tasakaalustatust ja sealhulgas kohalike omavalitsuste ühinemisi ei soodusta sageli kohalikud ja erakondlikud huvid, mistõttu on takistatud Eesti rahvamajanduse süsteemne ja kompleksne areng.

Eesti on küll juba aastast 2004 Euroopa Liidu liige, pikki aastaid on räägitud paljudest Euroopa Liidu prioriteetidest (näiteks regionaalse arengu tasakaalustatuse olulisusest), kuid sageli on selles osas väga vähe tehtud. Mitmed majandusteadlased ja kohaliku omavalitsuse tegelased teistes riikides on seisukohal, et edasiseks arenguks regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika valdkondades vajab Euroopa Liit tugevaid linnu, kuhu on hõlmatud ka linnade tagamaad (Collomb). Samas ollakse seisukohal, et ka valdade areng on Euroopa arengus oluline, st valdade olemasolu on vältimatu arengu eeldus (Häupl). Seega – linnad ja vallad peaksid moodustama harmoonilise koosseksisteeriva süsteemi.

⁵ Käesoleva artikli need read on kirjutatud märtsi lõpus 2013, seega ca kolm nädalat enne 19. aprilli. Artikli lõpus (mis on kirjutatud aprilli lõpus-mai alguses) on juba selge, milliseks olukord kujunes!

Linnu on Eestis vähe ning need on Euroopa linnadega võrreldes üldjuhul väikesed ja seeläbi ka nõrgad (vaid Eesti kaks suuremat linna, Tallinn ja mõneti ka Tartu võivad siin ehk erandi moodustada). Eestis jätkub tendents elanike ümberasumiseks eeskätt suurematesse linnadesse ja linnu ümbritsevasse valdadesse ehk linnade tagamaale. Osa inimesi suundub enne linna tagamaale asumist siiski mõneks ajaks ka linna elama.

See panebki mõtlema sellele, et Eesti oludes on vaja samuti linnu eesmärgipäraselt tugevdada. Kuidas seda teha? Ilmselt tuleb läbi viia osaline linna ja maa (linna tagamaa) vaheline integreerumine. Tegelikult toimib see paljude inimeste jaoks juba pikemat aega. Integratsiooni on aga vaja ka institutsionaalselt, majanduspoliitiliselt, administratiivselt ja haldusterritoriaalselt toetada. Siis on inimesed ka riigi ja kohaliku omavalitsuse tasandi suhtes integreeritud, koostöös, ühtsemad mingis konkreetse ruumis, asukohas.

2012. aasta sügisel tegi Eesti regionaalminister *kuuevariandilise* ettepaneku omavalitsussüsteemi reformimiseks, milleks oli:

1. Minivaldade Eesti
2. Omavalitsusliitude Eesti
3. Kahetasandiline Eesti
4. Maakondade Eesti
5. Kihelkondade Eesti
6. Tömbekeskuste Eesti

Lühihinnang: artikli autori arvates võiks kaaluda sellist haldusterritoriaalse reformi varianti, kus üheaegselt arvestatakse mitmete mudelite kooskasutusega.

Erinevaid variante (mudelit) kombineerides tuleks vabatahtlikkuse (omavalitsuste liitumised ja muud ümberkorraldused) kõrval kasutada ka valitsuse otsuseid ja vajadusel isegi sundi, sest senine vabatahtlikkus ei ole end üldjuhul õigustanud (kohati on kavandatud reform isegi palaganiks muutunud) ning kindlasti tekib olukordi, kus asjaosalised omavalitsused pole suutelised ja mõnikord ka pädevad otsustama. Siinjuures oleks ilmselt vajalik tänaste *valdade-linnade ning maakondade piiride korrigeerimine* inimeste elukohti ning tegelikku liikumist arvestades.

Regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika arendamisest

Haldusterritoriaalne reform ja sellega seonduv tuleks Eestis võimalikult kiiresti läbi viia (seni on sellest vaid ligi 20 aastat räägitud ja ikka väidetakse, et ei olda veel valmis, peab veel asju analüüsima, täpsustama jms). Senine haldusüksuste (vallad, linnad) vabatahtlik ühinemine on andnud paraku tagasihoidlikke tulemusi ning olnud aeglane. Ilmselt peavad riiklikud institutsioonid siin reformile omapoolselt ja ehk isegi sunniviisiliselt üsna jõuliselt kaasa aitama.

Eestis seni toimunud haldusterritoriaalse reformi tempot tuleks oluliselt kiirendada, mille tulemusel:

- omavalitsusliku staatusega linnade ning eeskätt nõrkade ja vähese haldussuutlikkusega valdade arv väheneks nende ühinemise tulemusel oluliselt;
- tasuks kaaluda enamuse Eesti linnade (haldusüksuste, omavalitsusliku staatusega linnade) kui mitte kõigi viimist vallasisesteks linnadeks.⁶ Seejuures tekib vajadus ka paljude valdade ja isegi linnade piiride korrigeerimiseks. Eelneva alusel oleks maakonnakeskus eeskätt valla kui haldusüksuse keskus ning teisalt kui vallasisene linn ehk teisiti – tänane maakonnakeskus oleks pakutava muudatuse järel kui valla keskus ning vallasisene linn, kus on ühinenud endine haldusüksus-linn ja teda ümbritsenud vald (või vallad).

Eesti linnad oma tagamaadega (milleks on linna ümbritsev tänane vald või ümbritsevad vallad) muutuksid tugevamateks ja jätkusuutlikumateks. Ka linnade tagamaadest kaugemale jäävad vallad ja vallasisesed linnad muutuksid tugevamateks, kuna teatud korrektsioon administratiivsete muudatuste ja haldusüksuste piiride muutmiseks tuleks Eestis tuleviku arenguid arvestades igal juhul ära teha.

Selliste liitumise tulemusel loodaks eeldused regionaalse arengu senisest paremaks tasakaalustamiseks, kuna võiks väheneda inimeste suundumine pealinna Tallinnasse ja teistesse suurematesse Eesti linnadesse. Ka elu valdades, väike-asulates ja külates võib muutuda seejuures atraktiivsemaks ning elamiseks suuremat rahulolu pakkuvaks.

Eesti maakonnakeskuste ja ümbritsevate valdade võimalikud ühinemised

Uurides Eesti maakondade keskuste-linnade paiknemist neid ümbritsevate valdade suhtes, võib perspektiivsete muudatustega linnade tugevdamise jaotada nelja ossa:

- (1) toimunud muudatused;
- (2) lihtsamad lahendused (linna ühinemine teda ümbritseva rõngasvallaga);
- (3) keerulisemad lahendused (linna ühinemine mitme teda ümbritseva vallaga või mitme valla omavaheline ühinemine);
- (4) veelgi keerulisemad (et mitte öelda – väga keerulised) lahendused, mille puhul tekib hulk täiendavaid küsimusi-probleeme võrreldes teiste juhtudega (eelnevatega võrreldes on ühinejaid rohkem või asukoha keerukus, sh Harjumaa, Ida-Virumaa ja Hiiumaa olukord).

Kui tahetakse maakonna keskuste tagamaad nii linnade kui valdade arenguks kasutada, tuleb korrigeerida ka valdade (miks mitte vajadusel ka linnade) piire. Olemasolevad valdade piirid on suures osas pärand Nõukogude ajast, mida tuleks muuta kui see osutub vajalikuks (vajalikkus on aga paljudel juhtudel vägagi tõenäoline!).

⁶ Osa linnadele võiks anda nn kahese staatuse (sest siin on tegemist ka võimu küsimusega), st linn, mis oleks nii haldusüksus linna staatuses kui ka keskuseks (vallakeskuseks) ümbritsevale või ümbritsevatele valdadele.

Loomulikult tuleks lisaks maakondade keskuste tugevdamisele vaadata üle ka teiste linnade tugevdamised, st teised linnad võiksid eksisteerida mitte haldusüksustena vaid vallasiseste linnadena, olles samal ajal ka valdade tõmbekeskusteks.

Teha oleks palju kuid otsustamatust on vist veel rohkem

Kuigi Eestis on alates 1996. aastast toimunud hulk linnade ja valdade ühinemisi (samuti on toimunud hulgaliselt valdade omavahelisi ühinemisi), ei ole teadaolevalt eriti põhjalikult nende ühinemiste mõju ja tagajärgi uuritud ega piisavaid üldistusi tehtud.⁷ Seda oleks aga vaja. Kui kusagil on uuringuid tehtud, siis pole sellest seni midagi olulist ja vajalikku kogemust järeldatud!

Otstarbekas ja vajalik oleks selgusele jõuda:

- millised positiivsed ja ka negatiivsed kogemused on ühinemisest saadud,
- millised probleemid on tekkinud ning
- millised perspektiivid ühinemisega seotud omavalitsusi edaspidi ootavad (sh võimalus – rõhuasetuse viimine senisest vabatahtlikkusest sunniviisilisele ühinemisele). Kaua võib?

Nendele probleemidele vastuseid saades oleks võimalik üldistuste alusel prognoosida teisi ühinemisi ning ennetada (või leevendada) vastuolulisi olukordi.

Eesti omavalitsuse problemaatikast järeldub, et vaatamata pikale perioodile, kus teema on olnud arutlusel, pole mingeid olulisi kogemusi talletatud. Seda ei soovi ilmselt paljud omavalitsustegelased ise ega soovi seda ka valitsusinstiitutsioonid ega poliitilised erakonnad. Kas siin ei ole tegemist (tagasihoidlikult sõnastades) Eesti riigi arengu pidurdamisega ning rahva elujärje halvenemisele kaasaaitamisega, ükskõiksusega, hoolimatusega ning ebariigimehelikkusega?

Täide läks käesoleva artikli autori algul toodud seisukoht (vt käesoleva artikli sissejuhataste viimast lõiku lk 2 ning joonealust märkust 4): nüüd, pärast 19. aprilli on selge, et omavalitsuste ühinemisi on aastal 2013 tõepoolest vähe – tähtajaks esitasid ühinemisavalduse 18 kohalikku omavalitsust ning neist moodustub seitse uut ning pärast sügisesi kohalike omavalitsuste volikogude valimisi väheneb omavalitsuste arv Eestis 215ni. Kui 2013. aastal toimub omavalitsuste ühinemine vabatahtlikult, siis regionaalministri kava näeb ette haldusterritoriaalse reformi läbiviimise 2017. aastaks. Milles ei saa aga kindel olla.

Lõpetuseks

Kõige taustaks tuleks rõhutada, et Eesti haldus-territoriaalse reformi läbiviimisel tuleb kindlasti ka järgmiseid teemasid arvestada ja küsimusi esitada (vastasel juhul on lahendused poolikud ega anna mõistlikke tulemusi, pigem vastupidi):

- milliseks kujunevad kohalike omavalitsuste finantseerimise alused;

⁷ Autor ei arva, et uuringuid pole üldse tehtud. Küll aga seda, et need on ilmselt mõneti killustunud ja episoodilised olnud, mis pole võimaldanud üldistavaid ja põhjalikult argumenteeritud seisukohti, järeldusi ja veenvaid ettepanekuid teha.

- millised on riigi ja kohalike omavalitsuste vahelised funktsioonid arvestusega, et riik ja kohalikud omavalitsused oleksid võrdväärsed partnerid;
- milliseks kujuneb kohalike omavalitsuste omavaheline konkurents oma funktsioonide täitmisel;
- milliseks kujuneb maavalitsuste roll, kas need üldse on vajalikud ning millised institutsioonid võiksid maavalitsuste poolse koordineerimise üle võtta.

Siinkohal võiks meie püüdlustele võrdluseks tuua soomlaste valdade-linnade ühinemise kava, mis on kavandatud lühiajalisena, jõulisena ning arenguvajadusi arvestades. Mida Eesti kohta kahjuks ütelda ei saa.

Soome regionaalminister Henna Virkkunen andis oma intervjuus teada mitmeid huvitavaid Soome valitsuse seaduseelnõus kavandatud ja arutusel olevaid seisukohti valdade ulatusliku ühendamise kohta (mis küll kõikjal Soomes heakskiitu ei leidnud):

- eesmärgiks on omavalitsuste tegevuse tõhustamine ning nende arvu vähendamine mitmesajalt loodetavalt vähemaks kui sada uut valda (üldjuhul peaks ühinema kolm kuni viis valda). Paljud tänased vallad on nii väikesed, et ei suuda kõiki ülesandeid täita. On vaja suuremaid valdu, kus töötaks piisaval hulgal professionaale ja spetsialiste;
- vallad peavad ühe aasta jooksul naabritega ühinemisuuringu tegema; uuringuteks antakse aega 1. juulini 2014. Vallad saavad riigilt ühinemistoetust ja muud abi muudatuste tegemiseks. Üldiselt on kolm kriteeriumit – a) ühinemisuuring tuleb teha kui elanike arv on alla 20 000; b) kui suur osa omavalitsuse elanikest töötab mujal; c) omavalitsusel on halb majanduslik olukord;
- valla minimaalne elanike arv hakkab olema 20 000; siiski võib piirkondlikke erandeid taotleda seal kus vahemaad on väga pikad (põhja- ja idapiirkonnad). Praegu on valdade mediaansuurus 6000 elanikku;
- ühinemised peaksid toimuma 2015.aasta algusest kuni hiljemalt 2017.aasta alguseni (seejärel toimuvad Soomes järgmised kohalikud valimised). Keerukamad on olukord linnadega mille läheduses on jõukad vallad. Kavas on ka Helsinki laiendamine;
- vallad saavad juurde lisafunktsioone mistõttu tulevikus ei lähe maakonna tasandit ilmselt vaja. Maakonna funktsioonid jagunevad riigile ja valdadele. Eesmärgiks on siin tugevad vallad ja riik.

Eeltoodu näitab, et Eesti ja Soome on halduskorralduselt ja siin olevate probleemide poolest suhteliselt sarnased. Ainult Eestis ei suudeta otsustada ja asju piisavalt vajalikul määral korraldada. Seetõttu kaotatakse palju aega ning Eesti-sisene piirkondlik ebavõrdsus üha süveneb. See takistab kokkuvõttes Eesti riigi arengut ka tervikuna.⁸

⁸ Kuna käesolev kokkuvõte ja CD-I olev inglise keelne artikkel on lõpetatud 2013. aasta mais, siis ei ole autor arvestanud neid sündmusi, mis kohalike omavalitsuste teemal on 2013. aasta teisel poolel toimunud (näiteks tõmbekeskuste teema ning kuni 60 kohaliku omavalitsuse moodustamise ideed Eestis 2017. aastaks, mis aga juba algselt augustis kohati tugeva kriitika alla langesid).

REMARKS ON RECENT MONETARY POLICY OF THE EUROSYSTEM

Armin Rohde

Ernst-Moritz-Arndt-Universität Greifswald

Recent monetary policy could be classified as very expansive. Besides historically low key interest rates, which have reached a level of 0.5 percent since May 2013, monetary policy provides central bank money to monetary financial institutions practically without quantitative limitations, by offering main refinancing operations in fixed rate tender version with full allotment. In addition minimum reserve requirements have been reduced by 50 percent in January 2012, which lowers the need of central bank money for the monetary financial institutions and which is essential for efficient monetary policy. All in all the interest rate levels on European financial markets are extremely low compared with former times. Today it is often argued wrongly, especially in Germany, that the reason of this kind of very expansive monetary policy is to rescue the common European currency i.e. the Euro. But this is an illusion because the Euro does not have to be rescued, because the Euro is up to now a very successful currency in both, in its internal value, measured by inflations rates since 1999, and in its external value, measured by exchange rates against the currencies of the leading industrialized countries. But in real this expansionist course of monetary policy is no peculiarity of the Euro currency area, because it is quite common with recent monetary policy in all industrialized countries.

This kind of monetary policy has become the result of fundamental changes in monetary policy strategy during the last 10 to 15 years. You can describe this fundamental change from concentrating monetary policy on developments of the quantity of money, based on monetarism thinking, in the times before to focussing strictly on developments of interest rates and interest rate levels, based on Neo-Keynesian thinking nowadays. Whereas during the former monetarism based monetary policy central banks are more concerned about the development of the quantity of money, while interest rates as endogenous figures were of minor monetary policy interest, the opposite counts in the Neo-Keynesian based monetary policy. When central banks are concentrating on developments of interest rates, then the quantities of monetary aggregates become endogenous figures, which are of minor importance for conducting monetary policy. Within such an interest rate policy strategy monetary policy is concentrating to influence general economic development. In doing so, it has become quite normal for the monetary policy to lower interest rates in case of economic crises not only rapidly but also to levels of zero or near zero percent, to give strong incentives for investments. During the actual phase of low interest rate policy even negative key interest rates are discussed as a proper means of monetary policy.

It could be argued that a lasting period of very low interest rates as it could be observed today will be connected with severe disadvantages or even dangers not only for special institutions of the companies sector, for example life insurance

firms, and for private household savings but also for investments in real capital and for solving sovereign and private debt crises. This is so because a very low interest rate policy gives wrong or misleading incentives. In addition such an expansive low interest rate policy strategy forced investors to look at investments with higher risks to get a better expected return on investment, which could be the cause for new financial instabilities and economic crises.

In focussing on interest rate developments the transmission of interest rate policy measures, which have its starting point on the short-term money market, to the interest rates on other financial markets e.g. the long term capital market have become a very important role in central banking policies of today. For example rising long term interest rates in one or two member countries of the European monetary union, while holding the central bank key interest rate on a low level, are in the sense of the European central bank disturbances of the interest rate transmission process which needs to meet if necessary even by unconventional measures.

One of these unconventional measures of monetary policy, are outright monetary transactions (OMT) in secondary markets for sovereign bonds. In September 2012 the ECB announced its willingness to buy sovereign bonds of single member countries of the Euro area under certain circumstances if necessary without quantitative limitations. It has been a follow up measure to the securities market program (SMP) which the ECB used since May 2010, when the European sovereign debt crisis started in Greece. The main intention for announcing this OMT-Program was to meet rising interest rates in special capital market segments of single member countries of the Euro area. This ECB-program of monetary outright transactions led to a strong public controversy between the ECB and the German central bank, i.e. the Deutsche Bundesbank.

Whereas the ECB stressed the sense of OMT as an important monetary policy measure to meet severe disturbances in the interest rate transmission process i.e. the interest rate channel, the Deutsche Bundesbank doubts whether there are disturbances within the transmission process at all and whether OMT are a legal measure of monetary policy. The Deutsche Bundesbank fears that OMT are a forbidden measure of financing national debt. Up to now it is not very clear, why the Deutsche Bundesbank as an integral part of the Eurosystem went to public with that controversy, because such strong differences should have been discussed properly within the decision-making bodies of the ECB to protect the credibility of monetary policy within the Euro area. But it seems that this strong conflict between the ECB and the Deutsche Bundesbank can be discussed as fundamental differences of how monetary policy should act in recent days. Especially this conflict can be discussed as a controversy about the proper role of interest rates in monetary policy.

KROONIKA

CHRONIK

CHRONICLE

PROFESSOR MAIT MILJAN
(16.09.1939 – 1.16.2007)
IN MEMORIAM



Mait Miljanit õppisin tundma pärast 1975. aastat Tartu Ülikooli tööle tulles. Esialgu puutusime vähe kokku, sest ma ei elanud veel Tartus ja kogu vaba aeg kulus minul alustava õppejõuna konspektide ettevalmistamiseks ja uuendamiseks. Aga ta jäi paremini silma 1982. aastal kui ülikool tähistas oma 350. juubelit. Ta oli üks pidustuste organiseerijatest ja siis avastasin endale, et tal on väga head organiseerimisvõimed. Kasutasin neid ära üheksakümnendate algul kui meil hakkas olema võimalusi külla kutsuda väliskülalisi. Palusin ikka Maidul nende vastuvõtu logistiline pool enda peale võtta ja kunagi ei

pidanud ma pettuma Kõik sujus suurepäraselt ja ta oli alati ka valmis õhtul koos meiega olema ja oma autot transpordiks kasutama. Hiljem areneski meie koostöö sügavaks sõpruseks.

Pikkamisi sain Maidust ka rohkem teada. Ta oli lõpetanud TRÜ kaubatundmise erialal 1963. aastal. Seejärel suunati ta Viljandi poisina tööle Viljandi Kaubastusse vanemkaubatundjaks, kus ta töötas 1967. aastani jõudes vahepeal käia ka nõukogude armees. Seejärel töötas ta ühe aasta Üleliidulise Kaubanduskonjunktuuri Teadusliku Uurimise Instituudi vanemteadurina ja loogilise jätkuna astus ta sealt õppima TRÜ aspirantuuri ja ühtlasi õppejõuna tööle ülikoolis. Tema kandidaaditöö teemaks oli „Piima ja piimasaaduste turg Eesti NSV-s ja selle arenguperspektiivid“, mille ta kaitses 1972. aastal omandades majandusteaduste kandidaadi teaduskraadi.

Kandidaadikraadi kaitsemise järel algas Mait Miljanil kiire karjäär. 1973. aastal valiti ta juba TRÜ kaubatundmise ja kaubanduse organiseerimise kateedri vanemõpetajaks, aasta hiljem sai temast dotsent ja ühtlasi kaubatundmise ja kaubanduse organiseerimise kateedri juhataja, millisel ametikohal töötas ta järjepannu kümme aastat. Hiljem jätkas ta samas kateedris tööd dotsendina. See oli tema kujunemisperiood üheks Eesti parimaks kaubanduse ja turunduse asjatundjaks.

Kui kogu Nõukogude Liidus hakati alates 1985. aastast juurutama isemajandamist ja ettevaatlikult ka turumajandust, polnud kahtlust, et Mait Miljan on parim kandidaat uue turunduse õppetooli juhataja kohale ja 1990. aastal saigi temast vastloodud turunduse õppetooli juhataja. Kuivõrd tema võimed õppetöö ümberkorraldamisel turunduse alal olid muljetavaldavad, siis usaldatigi talle 1992. aastal erialaõppe õppeprodekaani koht TÜ majandusteaduskonnas (baasõppe prodekaanina töötas prof. Valner Krinal), millisel kohal ta töötas kaks kõige raskemat aastat kuni

dekaanivahetuseni 1993. aasta sügisel. Samal aastal valiti ta ka turunduse korraliseks professoriks.

Kuivõrd töötasin Maiduga koos teaduskonna juhtimisel, siis arutasime kõiki tööasju lahtiste kaartidega. Temaga oli kerge koos töötada, sest ta seadis alati esiplaanile kollektiivi huvid. Ta oli ka minust oluliselt energilisem, mistõttu meie tiimist tekkis positiivne sünergia. Lisaks sellele oli ta kolleegide tähelepanelik jälgija, kes oskas nende võimeid ja iseloomu hästi kirjeldada, mistõttu temast oli suur kasu kaadriprobleemide lahendamisel. Meenub see, et 1992. aastal oli ülikoolis õppetoolide asutamine ja nende etteotsa korraliste professorite valimine. See muidugi tekitas ka teaduskonnasiseseid pingeid, sest selle tiitli väärilisi tahtjaid oli rohkem kui meile eraldatud kohtade arvuline limit. Kauplesin küll rektoriilt juurde ühe lisakoha, seega võisime valida 10 korralist professorit. Kuid ikkagi ei jätkunud, sest kateedrite poolt oli esitatud soov 21 õppetooli moodustamiseks. Mõni solvunu, kes korraliste professorite nimekirja ei mahtunud, süüdistas dekaanati subjektiivsuses ja võeti isegi ajakirjanduses sõna sellise „ebaõigluse“ vastu.

Lisaks tekkis uus probleem. Vastloodud sotsiaalteaduskond reklaamis end kui õige lääne tüüpi ühiskonnaõpetusega teaduskond ja kuivõrd ülikooli juhtkonnas ja ka teistes teaduskondades oli enamus majandusest teadlik vaid nõukaaegse poliitökonoomia õppimise kaudu, siis tahetigi majandusteaduskond õpetamisele vajaliku turumajandusliku kvaliteedi tagamiseks liita sotsiaalteaduskonnaga, muidugi sellele allutades. Vesteldes sotsiaalteaduskonna tollase dekaani Rein Taageperaga jäi mulle selline mulje, et tema arvates enamus nõukaaegsetest õppejõududest kui vanameelsed tuleks lahti lasta ja asendada rikkumata mõtlemisega noortega. Seetõttu tegin Maidule ettepaneku, et 1992. aastal moodustame küll raha ja panganduse ning turunduse õppetoolid, kuid jätame oma kandidatuurid korralise professori kohtadele esitamata ja tuleme meie valimiste juurde tagasi aasta hiljem kui pinged on mõnevõrra alanenud. Ta jäi kohe nõusse ja nii valiti meid korralisteks professoriteks aasta pärast massilisi valimisi nii ülikoolis kui ka teaduskonnas, seega 1993. aastal. See oli Maidult suur ohver, sest mina olin niigi professor aga tema jäi esialgu dotsendiks edasi.

Meie positsioone teaduskonna iseseisvalt jätkamiseks kindlustas rektoraadi poolt tellitud majandusteaduskonna rahvusvaheline õppe- ja teadustöö kvaliteedi hindamine, mis andis vastupidiselt ülikooli juhtkonna ootustele meie teadus- ja õppetöö tasemele hea hinnangu. Seega saime oma õpetus- ja struktuurireformiga edasi minna. Saime luua õppetoole ja instituute vastavalt meie strateegiale ja nägemusele. Kuivõrd eri õppesuuna juurutamise soove oli ikkagi rohkem kui korralise professori (seega õppetoolide) limit võimaldas, siis taotlesime rektoraadilt loa kuue lektoraadi asutamiseks. See kindlustas mitmekesisema suunavaliku ja kõikidele teaduskonna töötajatele kõrge motivatsiooni maksimaalselt uuenduste ja kvaliteedi tõstmise nimel pingutada.

Mitmete uute erialadega tuli alustada praktiliselt nullist. Üks nendest oli turundus, mille sügavam vajadus puudus nõukoguliku plaanimajanduse ja defitsiidi tingimustes, aga nüüd muutus turunduse oskuslik juhtimine otsustavaks teguriks

majanduse arengul. Mait Miljanit võib pidada Eesti turundusõpetuse üheks alusepanijaks. Tema ülesandeks oli välja töötada turunduse aineprogramm ja selle õpetamine mehitada ka lektoritega. Tema kutsel tuli meile külalisõppejõuna tööle professor A.J. Brokaw USA Michigani Tehnoloogiaülikoolist, kes andis suure panuse turunduse õppekava viimistlusse, pidas USA tasemel loenguid ja tõi kaasa uut erialakirjandust. Seega võib väita et Mait Miljan sai suurepäraselt hakkama turunduse õpesuuna loomisega Tartu Ülikoolis ja ta ise kujunes ka üheks turumajanduse autoriteediks Eestis, kelle juhendamisel kaitsti üle kümne magistritöö. Mait Miljan oli hinnatud õppejõud, kelle ainekäsitus oli konkreetne ja samas diskussiooni tekitav.

Lisaks õpetamise reformimisele oli tarvis õppetöö kindlustada ka eestikeelsete õppevahenditega. Mait näitas ka siin head eeskuju. Temalt ilmus kaks õpikut. 1996. aastal „Hinnakujundus turunduses“ ja 1998. aastal „Turunduse juhtimine“. Õpikuid kirjutasid ka turunduse õppetooli dotsendid Mäuring ja Roose.

Mait Miljani peamisteks uurimisvaldkondadeks olid turunduse juhtimine siirdemajanduses, väärtuspõhine turunduse juhtimine, hind ja hinnakujundamine, nõudluse uurimine ja prognoosimine ning tarbekaupade turgude analüüs ja nende arengu prognoosimine. Ta polnud üksnes akadeemilisele tegevusele pühendunud teoreetik, vaid tema abiga kujundasid mitmed Eesti ettevõtted välja oma turundusstrateegia.

Teadustöös oskas ta teha kolleegidega koostööd, selliselt et meeleldi kirjutati artikleid temaga kahasse. Tema 2001. aasta augustis kirjutatud elulookirjelduses toob ta esile viimase viie aasta kümme tähtsat tööd. Nende erinevate autorite arv oli 11, kusjuures kaasautoreid oli lisaks 'Eestile ka Soomest, Lätist Saksamaalt Leedust Venemaalt ja Suurbritanniast. 2005. aasta algul tehtud CVs nimetab ta oma avaldatud publikatsioonide arvuks 83. Eeltoodud 10 artiklil olin kaheksa puhul kaasautoriks ka mina. See näitab, et meie teaduslane koostöö kujunes eriti tihedaks.

Meie esimene ühine väliskonverents oli 1992. aastal Taanis Ahlborgi linnas. Taotlesime ja saime selleks konverentsi organiseerijalt kulude katteks grandid, mis kattis kõik kulud. Ega sel ajal väliskonverentsile ülikoolist üldiselt ei lubatudki, kui ise finantseerimist ei leidnud. Esimene väliskonverents jääb ikkagi meelde. Mäletan, et kulutasime ettekannete kuulamise asemel terve konverentsipäeva selleks, et pähe tuupida ettekande teksti, sest meie inglise keel oli veel väga algeline. Meie suureks pettumuseks aga anti meile kahe peale ettekandeks vaid viis minutit aega, millest tõi küll, me ei suutnud väga täpselt kinni pidada. Pärast seda esimest käisime tihti koos nendel konverentsidel, kus siirdemajanduse teemasid arutati. Maidul olid tekkinud head kontaktid Vaasa Ülikooli ja Viini Majandusülikooliga, kus regulaarselt siirdemajandusele keskenduvaid majanduskonverentse korraldati. Nendel konverentsidel hakkasime ikka koos käima ja tihti oli ka ettekanne meil ühine. Vaasa Ülikooli professor Jorma Larimo tuli hiljem isegi tööle Tartu Ülikooli turunduse külalisprofessoriks. Maiduga oli meeldiv koos konverentsidel käia kahel põhjusel. Esiteks, kui tööjaotus oli kokku lepitud, polnud põhjust kahelda, et kõik

tema poolt lubatu täpselt nii saab ka tehtud. Teiseks, temaga oli õhtul mõnus enamasti ühises toas konverentsimuljeid jagada ja muidki probleeme arutada.

Meie koostöö ei piirdunud vaid administratiivse ja teadustööga. Üha rohkem laienes see ka meie töövälise elu korraldamisse. Mait oli ostnud Põlva maakonda Koolma järve äärde vana talumaja. Seda oli vaja remontida. Minul oli võetud aga isa tagastatavast talumaast samuti Põlva maakonda üks hektar maad, et sinna suvila ehitada. Sõitsimegi siis koos Lõuna-Eestis ringi ja varusime ehitusmaterjale, teinekord ka endiste ehitusorganisatsioonide, millised olid lõpetanud senise ehitustegevuse, vanadest varudest. Igal juhul tema oli välja uurinud, kust võib midagi osta ja lahkesti jagas ta seda teavet minuga. Mait müüs mulle ka suvila tarbeks voodrilaudu. Hiljem ta ütles, et endale tuli neid isegi veidi puudu. Siit järeldub, et sõpradega oli ta väga koostööaltis ja omakasupüüdmatu.

Teaduskonnas kujunes mul Maiduga traditsiooniks, et iga nädal jõime korra koos kohvi kas tema või minu professori kabinetis. Muide, ta oli kohvi alal tõeline asjatundja ja gurmaan, kes oskas nii head kohvi soovitada kui ka ise valmistada. Tavaliselt toimusid need kohvitunnid Maidu initsiatiivil. Aruteluteemad olid seal lisaks teaduskonna probleemidele palju laiemad. Meie vestlustest sain aru, et ta on väga perekeskne ja pingutab kõvasti, et lapsi oma elu- käitumise põhimõtete järgi kasvatada. Kuivõrd Mait oli sportliku käitumisega, kes isegi garaaži autot võtma minnes tegi seda ikka jooksuga, siis korraldas ta suvekodus alatasa laste võistlusi, kus töö ja sport olid ühendatud, mis olid seetõttu kasvatusliku iseloomuga. Ta oli uhke, kui tema organiseeritud pereüritused korda olid läinud. Kindlasti liitis see tema pere liikmeid tugevamini ka ühte. Ise jätkas Mait ka jooksutrenne ja võttis tihti osa ümber Viljandi järve jooksudest.

Mait Miljan oli ikka osavõtja kõikidel teaduskonna töövälistel üritustel. Lisaks korraldas ka turunduse õppetool ja enne seda kaubatundmise ja kaubanduse organiseerimise kateeder regulaarselt ühisüritusi, kus tihti ka kolleegide pere liikmed osa võtsid. Siit järeldub, et Mait kulutas nii oma aega kui ka energiat mitte ainult oma perele, vaid ka selleks, et kollektiivi ühiseks pereks liita. Kuid nii tema kui ka tema töökaaslastega vesteldes tundus, et ta hoidis nendega mingit distantssi, ehk oli mingil määral reserveeritud. Võibolla oli tema eesmärk mitte olla liiga familiaarne, et hiljem saaks ülemusena kolleegidelt ja ka üliõpilastelt distsipliini nõuda. Oma sisemas oli ta aga probleeme mõistev ja lahendusi pakkuv.

Maidul avastati 2007. aasta algul pahaloomuline nahakasvaja. Pärast lõikust oli ta optimistlik ja paralleelselt järelraviga jätkusid meie kokkusaamised ja arutelud kohvitassi juures, kus tihti tulid kõne alla ka tema tuleviku kavad. Siiski ei olnud haigus täielikult taandunud ja kevadel tabas teda ootamatult uus järsk haiguse ägenemine. Kui ta oli juba aru saanud, et tervenemist ei tule, arutasime korra ka seda surma probleemi. Ta ütles, et 67. aastaselt on ikka liiga vara lahkuda, kuid leidsime, et saatuse üle ei saa siiski eriti nuriseda, sest nii teaduskonnas, kui ka isiklikus elus suutis ta ju põhilise ära teha. Jah, pensionipõlve pidamiseks ei jäänudki aega, sest pärast 2005. aastal pensionile siirdumist jätkas ta edasi intensiivselt õppetööd, sest ka kaks õppetooli kolleegi olid pensioniikka jõudnud ja aitasid vaid mõnede

kursuste lugemisega. Nii, et õppetooli huvid olid ikka esiplaanil. Leidsime, et õppetool saab pärast Maidu lahkumist piisavalt hästi ilma temata jätkata ja ka lapsed on suureks kasvatatud ja iseseisvaks eluks ette valmistatud. Ta ütles veel, et peab saatust kiitma ka selle eest, et see tõsine terviserike tabas teda mitte autoroolis, mis oleks võinud nii temale kui ka kaasliiklejatele traagiliseks kujuneda, vaid vahetult pärast suvilast tagasisõitu kodus olles. Siit näeme, et Mait oli realist ja oskas ka oma elule objektiivset hinnangut anda.

Muidugi oleks Maidul veel palju teha olnud, tema plaanides oli nii mõndagi, millele kuri saatuse käsi liiga varakult kriipsu peale tõmbas. Aga nende ülikoolile ja perele pühendatud aastatega jõudis ta rohkemgi ära teha kui oleks ühelt inimeselt oodanud. Temast jääb meile mälestus kui töökast, tasakaalukast ja põhimõttekindlast inimesest. Kolleegi ja sõbrana elab Mait nii minu kui meie ühiste kolleegide mälestustes ikka edasi.

Mart Sörg
Kolleeg ja sõber

PROFESSOR DR. MAIT MILJAN
(16.09.1939 – 01.06.2007)
IN MEMORIAM

Kollege Mait Miljan hatte ich im Jahre 1982 näher kennengelernt, als die Universität Tartu ihren 350. Jahrestag seit ihrem Bestehen feierte. Miljan war einer der Verantwortlichen für die Ausrichtung dieser Feierlichkeit. Er bewies damals sein außerordentliches organisatorisches Talent. Diese Fähigkeit prägte in den darauffolgenden Jahren maßgebend die Entwicklung der wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Fakultät an der Universität Tartu, insbesondere den Aufbau ihrer Auslandsbeziehungen.

Miljan hatte 1963 die Prüfung im Fach Warenkunde an der Staatlichen Universität Tartu bestanden. Danach arbeitete er als Warenkundler in der Handelsorganisation Vijandi. Seine wissenschaftliche Laufbahn begann er am Institut für Handelskonjunktur der Universität Tartu, wo er 1972 mit einer PhD-Arbeit promovierte.

Mit der Promotion begann seine steile Karriere an der wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Tartu. 1973 wurde Dr. Mait Miljan zum ältesten Lehrer des Lehrstuhls für Warenkunde und Organisation des Handels gewählt. Bereits ein Jahr später wurde er zum Dozenten und Leiter des Lehrstuhls befördert. In dieser Position war er zehn Jahre durch seine außerordentliche Schaffenskraft sehr erfolgreich und wurde einer der besten Fachkundigen des Handels und des Marketings in Estland.

Nach der Wende von der sozialistischen zur freiheitlichen Wirtschaftsordnung war von vornherein klar, dass Dr. Mait Miljan aufgrund seiner bisherigen verdienstvollen Leistungen der beste Anwärter für das Amt eines Professors und Leiters des neugegründeten Lehrstuhls für Marketing war. Vordringliche Aufgabe war, diese Fachrichtung neu zu positionieren. Miljan hat das entsprechende Lehrprogramm an der Fakultät neu gestaltet und die erforderlichen Lehrkräfte gefunden. Er hat dabei seine bisher bewiesenen organisatorischen Fähigkeiten zielgerichtet eingesetzt. 1992 wurde er zum Prodekan für Lehrarbeit an der Fakultät ernannt.

Die Hauptrichtungen der Forschungstätigkeit von Professor Mait Miljan waren das Marketingmanagement in der Übergangsgesellschaft, das wertorientierte Marketingmanagement, die Probleme der Preisgestaltung sowie die Analyse und Prognose der Nachfrage. Er hat darüber zwei Lehrbücher geschrieben. Zahlreiche Unternehmungen haben mit seiner Hilfe für sie zielgerichtete Marketingstrategien entwickelt. Miljan hat seine wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten meistens in Zusammenarbeit mit Kollegen entwickelt. In seinem Curriculum Vitae aus dem Jahre 2005 hat er 83 Publikationen aufgeführt; die meisten von diesen Veröffentlichungen sind in Kooperation mit estnischen oder ausländischen Kollegen entstanden.

Mait Miljan habe ich immer als korrekten und aufrichtigen Menschen erlebt. Es war für mich immer ein Erlebnis, wenn ich Gelegenheit hatte, mit ihm wissenschaftliche Konferenzen im Ausland zu besuchen. Mait hat stets einen sportlichen Lebensstil geführt und auch seine Kinder für Familienveranstaltungen in seinem Sommerhaus am See Koolma begeistern können.

Im Jahre 2005 wurde Professor Mait Miljan emeritiert. Dennoch hat er seine Lehrtätigkeit fortgesetzt. Er bemühte sich stets, für seine jungen Kollegen ein Vorbild zu sein. Er hat immer die Interessen der Fakultät und des Lehrstuhls vor seine eigenen gesetzt. Im Grunde konnte er seinen verdienten Ruhestand nicht richtig genießen. Anfang 2007 erkrankte erschwer und starb kurze Zeit danach.

Sicherlich hätte Mait noch vieles leisten können. Ich weiß, dass er dafür konkrete Pläne hatte. Aber das schwere Schicksal hat all diese Visionen durchkreuzt. Während der vielen Jahre, die er der Universität gewidmet hatte, konnte Mait viel mehr erreichen, als das von einem Menschen erwartet werden kann. Er bleibt in unserer Erinnerung als ein arbeitsamer, ausgeglichener und prinzipientreuer Kollege. Mait lebt in meinen Gedanken weiter; ich kann mir vorstellen, dass das auch vielen meiner Kollegen so geht.

Mart Sörg
Kollege und Freund

PROFESSOR MAIT MILJAN
(16.09.1939 – 1.16.2007)
IN MEMORIAM

I got to know Mait Miljan better in 1982 when the University of Tartu celebrated the 350th anniversary. Mait was one of the organisers. I then discovered that he had especially good organisational skills that became irreplaceable in developing the faculty work and were also very helpful in the foreign relations of our Faculty.

He started his career as the marketing expert after graduating from Tartu University in 1963. In 1972 he successfully defended there his PhD in economics on the field of marketing. In 1974 he was elected as the Head of Department of Sales Management. He stayed on this position for ten years, during that period he became one of the best expert of sales management and marketing in Estonia.

When the market economy was introduced in Estonia, there was no doubt that Mait Miljan was the best candidate to lead the newly created department of marketing. Virtually he had to start from scratch. His task was to develop a specialized programme of marketing studies and find new lecturers. He completed it successfully. As his achievements founding a new department were so impressive, then 1992 he was selected as the Deputy Dean in the faculty of Economics.

His main research areas were the marketing management of the transition economy, value-based marketing management, cost and pricing, research and prediction of demand. He compiled two textbooks on these topics that helped several Estonian companies to shape their marketing strategy. He enjoyed doing research work together with his colleagues. His CV from the year 2005 counts 83 publications, from which the majority were written together with domestic and foreign co-authors.

Mait always kept his word and was very accurate. It made it very pleasant attending the international conferences with him. Also he liked to live healthy and loved to do sports. He raised his children by these principles, organised lot of events for the family at his own-built cottage at Koolma Lake.

He retired in 2005, but still had to continue teaching as a simultaneous retiring of the colleagues would otherwise have left too much teaching for younger teachers. The interests of the faculty and the department always came first for him. Unfortunately, he did not get to really enjoy his retirement as the beginning of 2007 he was diagnosed with cancer.

Mait will be remembered as a hard-working, highly-principled poised man. Mait lives continuously on both in my and my colleague's memories.

Mart Sörg
Colleague and friend

RAHVUSVAHELINE MAJANDUSPOLIITIKA XXI TEADUSKONVERENTS TOIMUS 2013. AASTAL JÄNEDAL

Kakskümmend varasemat majanduspoliitika teaduskonverentsi on Värskas toimunud, seekordne kahekümne esimene toimus Jäneda mõisas ajavahemikul 27.-29. juuni 2013. Uue asukoha soov vahelduse mõttes oli mitmete osalejate poolt juba mõned aastad tagasi esitatud. Samas oli ka käesoleval aastal osalejaid, kes pooldasid ja pooldavad ka edaspidi konverentsi läbiviimise asukohana näha endiselt Värskat. Jäneda kui uue asukoha valikule eelnes juba 2012. aasta märtsis eeltöö. Nimelt saatis allakirjutanu siis 10-le võimalikule konverentsikorraldajale Eestis hinnapakumise päringu (Jäneda, Haapsalu, Nelijärve, Pärnu, Pühajärve, Sagadi, Viljandi, Võru-Kubija jt). Kolmele päringule ei vastatud, mõned vastanud jäid ebasobivuse tõttu kõrvale ning nn „sõelale jäänud pakkumistest“ osutus meile mitmete tegurite ja tingimuste poolest sobivaimaks Jäneda mõis.

Konverentsi kaks tööpäeva oli seekord sisustatud võrreldes varasemate aastatega teisiti – nimelt oli esimesel päeval (neljapäeval, 27.juunil) põhirõhk pandud nn ümarlauale Eesti haldus-territoriaalse reformi teemal¹ ning alles teisel päeval (reedel) toimusid traditsioonilised ettekanded ja diskussioonid.

Konverentsi avamine toimus neljapäeva pärastlõunal, kus käesoleva kirjutise autor andis ülevaate majanduspoliitika teaduskonverentside ajaloost, eesmärkidest ja traditsioonidest. Seejärel tegi sissejuhatava ettekande Sulev Mäeltsemees (TTÜ) teemal „Regionaal- ja kohaliku omavalitsuse poliitika Eestis (haldus-territoriaalse reformi kontekstis)“. Järgnenud ümarlauda juhatas Sulev Mäeltsemees ning sellel esinesid, võtsid sõna ning kommenteerisid Tapa vallavanem Alari Kirt, Eesti Linnade Liidu direktor Jüri Võigemast, Eesti Maaomavalitsuste Liitu esindasid Ambla vallavanem Rait Pihelgas ja Koeru vallavanem Triin Pobbul. Kohal olid ka Harju Omavalitsuste Liidu esimees ja Kose vallavanem Vello Jõgisoo, Viljandi linnapea Loit Kivistik, Halinga vallavanem Ülle Vapper ning Tallinna Linnavalitsusest Angelika Kallakmaa. Üldistava sõnavõtu tegi ümarlaua lõpposas Geomedia OÜ direktor Rivo Noorkõiv. Diskussioonidel osalesid aktiivselt ka konverentsi väliskülalised ning teised osalised Eesti kõrgkoolidest. Konverentsi teisel päeval oli kohal ka Nõva vallavanem Aldo Tamm.

Aruteludes oli nii positiivseid kui negatiivseid hinnanguid seniste kohalike omavalitsuste arengute kohta. Kokkuvõtlikult oldi seisukohal, et haldus-territoriaalne reform vajab senisest kiiremat tegemist, senised omavalitsuste liitumised on end valdavalt õigustanud, samas on vaja resolutsioonilt määratleda riigi ja omavalitsuste omavahelised suhted ning selgelt fikseerida kummagi poole funktsioonid ja ülesanded, seda nii õiguste osas ühelt poolt ning kohustuste ja vastutuse osas teiselt poolt. Mõneti läbis sõnavõtte ka murelikkus protsessi

¹ Ka 2007.aastal Värskas oli esimene päev kohaliku omavalitsuse teemaatikale pühendatud, kuid siis toimusid ettekanded ja arutelud eeskätt Põlva maakonna näidetel (kuna Värskat vald kuulub Põlva maakonna koosseisu) ning ettekanded tehti nimetatud maakonna omavalitsuse ja Maavalitsuse esindajate poolt.

kulgemise kohta. Samas oldi seisukohtadel, et diskussioone haldus-territoriaalse reformi teemadel tuleks laiendada. Avaldati ka mõtet, et toimuv majanduspoliitika teaduskonverents võiks ka edaspidi oma päevakorras arutatud küsimusi käsitleda ning aktuaalsena hoida. Peter Friedrich (TÜ, Müncheni Bundeswehri Ülikool) rõhutas Saksamaa LV kogemustele tuginedes kohalike omavalitsuste omavahelise konkurentsi tähtsust, mida võiks ka Eesti puhul arvestada. Ümarlauda võis põhimõtteliselt kordaläinuks lugeda.

Esimene päev lõpetati Musta Täku Tallis maitstva õhtusöögiga ning samal ajal Rakvere Muusikakooli saksofonikvarteti ligi tunnist esinemist Jüri Takjase juhatusel kuulates ja muusikalist elamust saades.

Konverentsi teine päev (reede) oli juba otseselt konverentsi ettekannetele pühendatud ning toimus neli istungit. Esimest istungit juhatasid Frank Ehrhold ja Mathias Wiedmer Greifswaldi Ülikoolist (Saksamaa LV). Tehti kolm ettekannet. Stephan Hornig (Kufsteini Rakendusülikool, Austria) ettekanne oli pühendatud Euroopa kriisile, käsitledes ja võrreldes eeskätt Saksamaa ja Kreeka majandust. Teine ettekanne (Viljar Veebel, TTÜ) oli eurosooni majandus- ja finantskriisi lahendusmeetmetest ning valikutest huvigruppide seisukohast lähtudes. Istungi kolmanda ettekande tegi Armin Rohde Greifswaldi Ülikoolist (Saksamaa LV), käsitledes aktuaalseid eurosüsteemi rahapoliitika küsimusi.

Reedese päeva teist istungit juhatas Tartu Ülikoolist Mart Sörg. Esimese ettekande tegi Margus Randma (TTÜ/ Saue Vallavalitsus), kes arutles kohaliku omavalitsuse netovõlakooormuse arvestamise alternatiivsete võimaluste üle. Järgmine ettekanne oli Jüri Ratas'elt (TTÜ/ Riigikogu), kus ta tõi välja Euroopa Roheliste Pealinnade ja Tallinna näitel, milline on keskkonna osa linnade konkurentsivõime tugevdamisel. Kolmandana esines Maret Kirsipuu (Eesti Mereakadeemia), võttes vaatluse alla pere- ja mittepereettevõtluse erisused Eestis ning analüüsis naise rolli Eesti pereettevõtluses.

Kolmandat istungit juhatasid Üllas Ehrlich ja Sulev Mäeltsemees (mõlemad TTÜ). Istungi esimese ettekande tegi Peter Friedrich (TÜ/ Müncheni Bundeswehri Ülikool, Saksamaa LV), käsitledes ning analüüsid asukohateooria ja avaliku sektori organisatsiooni vahekordi. Teisena vaagis Aet Kiisla (TÜ Narva kolledž) ülikooli ühiskonna teenimise rolli täitmist regionaalse kolledži õppekavaarenduse kaudu (seda nii TÜ Narva kolledži kui TTÜ Kuressaare kolledži näidete alusel).² Istungi viimase ettekande tegi Sirje Pädam, analüüsid Eesti avaliku sektori keskkonnakulutusi aastatel 1995-2011.

Konverentsi viimast istungit juhatas Janno Reiljan Tartu Ülikoolist. Kavas oli neli ettekannet, kuid kohal olid vaid kahe ettekande autorid. Neist ühe ettekande tegi Petr Wawrosz (Praha Rahanduse ja Juhtimise Ülikool, Tšehhi Vabariik), kus ta analüüsis tootmismuudatuste ekstensiivseid ja intensiivseid tegureid majanduse eri tasanditel.

² TTÜ Kuressaare kolledži esindajal Anne Keenberg'il kui kaasautoril, ei õnnestunud perekondlikel põhjustel konverentsil osaleda.

Teine ettekanne oli eestimaalaselt Maksim Mõttus'elt (TÜ). Tema oli uurinud Eesti ettevõtlustoetusi ning nende soosivat mõju ettevõtetele.

Konverentsi lõpetas, tegi kokkuvõtted ning esitas tulevikunägemused Matti Raudjärv (TÜ, Pärnu kolledž). Teine konverentsipäev lõppes spordi- ja terviseprogrammiga Jänedas mõisa ümbruses ja SPA-kompleksis.

Kolmanda päeva hommikupoolikul tutvuti Jänedas mõisa peahoonega ning toimus põhjalik ja huvitav ekskursioon samas asuva muuseumi ekspositsiooniruumides. Seejärel oli mõnus jalutuskäik üle Jänijõe mööda matkarada lähedal asuva Kali järve äärde, kohalike legendide kuulamine ning muu varasemat kohalikku elu-olu käsitlev vestlus giidi eestvedamisel. Pärast lõunasööki lahkuti Jänedalt, et hakata järgmist, XXII konverentsi ette valmistama. Majanduspoliitika konverentsi raames kohtutakse uuesti juuni lõpus 2014 Jänedal.

Tallinnas, juulis 2013

Matti Raudjärv

Konverentsiseeria algataja ja ning XXI konverentsi
peakorraldaja-koordinaator

DIE XXI. INTERNATIONALE WISSENSCHAFTLICHE KONFERENZ ÜBER WIRTSCHAFTSPOLITIK 2013 IN JÄNEDA

Die zwanzig vorangegangenen wissenschaftlichen Konferenzen über Wirtschaftspolitik fanden in Värskas statt, die diesmalige, XXI. Konferenz wurde vom 27.-29. Juni 2013 im Gutshof Jäneda ausgetragen. Der Wunsch nach einem neuen Austragungsort im Sinne der Abwechslung wurde schon vor einigen Jahren von vielen Konferenzteilnehmern geäußert. Gleichzeitig gab es auch in diesem Jahr Teilnehmer, die sich weiterhin für Värskas als Austragungsort stark machen. Für die Wahl eines neuen Konferenzortes wurde schon im März 2012 Vorarbeit geleistet. Nämlich hat der Initiator der Konferenzreihe zehn eventuelle Konferenzveranstalter um einen Kostenvoranschlag gebeten (Jäneda, Haapsalu, Nelijärve, Pärnu, Pühajärve, Sagadi, Viljandi, Võru-Kubija u.a.). Auf drei Anfragen wurde nicht geantwortet, einige waren ungeeignet und von den Orten, die in die engere Auswahl kamen, erwies sich Jäneda unter Berücksichtigung verschiedener Kriterien für uns am meisten geeignet.

Die zwei Arbeitstage der Konferenz waren im Vergleich zu Vorjahren anders organisiert. Nämlich fand am ersten Tag, (am Donnerstag, den 27. Juni) der Runde Tisch zu Fragen der Gebiets- und Verwaltungsreform in Estland statt¹ und erst am zweiten Tag (am Freitag) wurden die traditionellen Vorträge und Diskussionen abgehalten.

Die Eröffnung der Konferenz fand am Donnerstagnachmittag statt. Der Autor des vorliegenden Beitrages gab eine Übersicht über die Geschichte der wirtschaftspolitischen Konferenzen, über ihre Ziele und Traditionen. Danach machte Sulev Mäeltsees (TU Tallinn) den einleitenden Vortrag zum Thema „Die Regional- und Kommunalpolitik in Estland im Kontext der Gebiets- und Verwaltungsreform“. Er moderierte auch den anschließenden Runden Tisch. Mit Vorträgen, Stellungnahmen oder Kommentaren nahmen daran teil: Gemeindeältester von Tapa Alari Kirt, Direktor des Verbandes Estnischer Städte Jüri Võigemast, Gemeindeältester von Ambla Rait Pihelgas und Gemeindeältester von Koeru Triin Pobbul (die beiden letzten vertraten den Verband der ländlichen Kommunalverwaltungen Estlands). Anwesend waren noch Vorsitzender des Verbandes der Kommunalverwaltungen des Landkreises Harju und Gemeindeältester von Kose Vello Jõgisoo, Oberbürgermeister von Viljandi Loit Kivistik, Gemeindeälteste von Halinga Ülle Vapper und Angelika Kallakmaa als Vertreterin der Tallinner Stadtverwaltung. Rivo Noorkõiv, Direktor der Geomedia GmbH, hielt die zusammenfassende und abschließende Rede. An lebhaften Diskussionen beteiligten sich sowohl unsere ausländischen Gäste als auch Vertreter der estnischen Hochschulen. Am zweiten Tag der Konferenz war auch Gemeindeältester von Nõva Aldo Tamm anwesend.

¹ Auch im Jahre 2007 war der erste Tag der Thematik der kommunalen Selbstverwaltungen gewidmet, aber die Vorträge und Diskussionen fanden am Beispiel des Landkreises Põlva statt (Värskas gehört zu diesem Landkreis). Als Referenten traten Vertreter der dortigen Kommunalverwaltungen auf.

In Diskussionen wurden sowohl positive als auch negative Einschätzungen zu bisherigen Entwicklungen der kommunalen Selbstverwaltungen geäußert. Der zusammenfassende Standpunkt war, dass die Gebiets- und Verwaltungsreform schneller in Angriff genommen werden muss als bisher. Die schon durchgeführten Zusammenschlüsse haben sich überwiegend bewährt. Gleichzeitig ist es notwendig, sehr konkret das Verhältnis zwischen dem Staat und den Kommunalverwaltungen zu formulieren und klar und eindeutig die Funktionen und Aufgaben beider Seiten festzusetzen, bezüglich sowohl der Rechte einerseits als auch Pflichten und Verantwortung andererseits. Teils war in den Diskussionsbeiträgen auch Sorge um den Verlauf des Reformprozesses zu hören. Gleichzeitig gab es Meinungen, dass die Debatten über die Gebiets- und Verwaltungsreform auf einer noch weiteren Basis geführt werden müssen. Der Gedanke, dass sich die wirtschaftspolitische Konferenz auch in Zukunft mit dieser Thematik und ihren aktuellen Entwicklungen befasst, wurde allgemein befürwortet. Peter Friedrich (Universität Tartu, Bundeswehruniversität München) betonte auf Grund der Erfahrungen in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, wie wichtig der Wettbewerb der kommunalen Selbstverwaltungen untereinander ist, und brachte hervor, dass man dies auch in Estland berücksichtigen sollte. Den Runden Tisch konnte man grundsätzlich als gelungen bezeichnen.

Der erste Tag ging mit einem schmackhaften Abendessen im „Stall des Schwarzen Hengstes“ zu Ende. Für musikalischen Genuss sorgte fast eine Stunde lang das Saxophonquartett der Musikschule Rakvere unter der Leitung von Jüri Takjas.

Der zweite Tag der Konferenz (Freitag) war der Tag für Vorträge, die in vier Sitzungen aufgeteilt waren. Die erste Sitzung moderierten Frank Ehrhold und Mathias Wiedmer aus der Universität Greifswald (Deutschland). Es wurden drei Vorträge gehalten: Stephan Hornig (Fachhochschule Kufstein, Österreich) referierte über die Krise in Europa und verglich in erster Linie die deutsche und griechische Wirtschaft. Der zweite Vortrag (Viljar Veebel, TU Tallinn) behandelte die Lösungsmaßnahmen für die Wirtschafts- und Finanzkrise der Eurozone und Wahlmöglichkeiten verschiedener Interessensgruppen. Den dritten Vortrag hielt Armin Rohde aus der Universität Greifswald (Deutschland) zu den aktuellen geldpolitischen Fragen des Eurosystems.

Die zweite Sitzung am Freitag moderierte Mart Sörg aus der Universität Tartu. Den ersten Vortrag hielt Margus Randma (TU Tallinn/ Gemeindeverwaltung Saue), der seine Gedanken zu alternativen Möglichkeiten bei der Berechnung der Nettoverschuldung der Kommunalverwaltungen zum Ausdruck brachte. Der nächste Beitrag war von Jüri Ratas (TU Tallinn/ Estnisches Parlament *Riigikogu*). Er beschrieb am Beispiel von Tallinn und der Grünen Hauptstädte Europas, welche Rolle die Umwelt bei der Stärkung der Wettbewerbsfähigkeit der Städte spielt. Als Dritte an der Reihe war Maret Kirsipuu (Estnische Seefahrtsakademie), die die Unterschiede zwischen Familienunternehmen und Nicht-Familienunternehmen unter die Lupe nahm und die Rolle der Frau in estnischen Familienunternehmen analysierte.

Die dritte Sitzung wurde von Üllas Ehrlich und Sulev Mäeltsemees (beide TU Tallinn) moderiert. Den ersten Vortrag hielt Peter Friedrich (Universität Tartu/Bundeswehruniversität München, Deutschland), der näher das Verhältnis der Standorttheorie und der Organisation des öffentlichen Sektors einging. Als zweite Referentin trat Aet Kiisla (College Narva der Universität Tartu) auf und analysierte, wie die Universität ihre Rolle als Diener der Gesellschaft durch die Studienplanentwicklung eines regionalen Colleges (am Beispiel des Colleges Narva der Universität Tartu und des Colleges Kuressaare der TU Tallinn) erfüllt.² Im letzten Vortrag dieser Sitzung bekam Sirje Pädam das Wort. Ihr Thema war die Analyse der Umweltausgaben des öffentlichen Sektors Estlands in den Jahren 1995-2011.

Die letzte Sitzung der Konferenz leitete Janno Reiljan (Universität Tartu). Auf dem Programm standen vier Vorträge, aber nur zwei Autoren waren anwesend. Einer von den beiden, Petr Wawrosz (Universität der Finanzen und der Verwaltung, Prag, Tschechische Republik), analysierte extensive und intensive Faktoren in den Produktionsveränderungen auf verschiedenen Ebenen der Wirtschaft. Der zweite Vortrag war von Maksim Möttus (Universität Tartu). Sein Thema behandelte die Gewerbesubventionen und ihre günstige Wirkung für Unternehmen in Estland.

Das Schlusswort hielt Matti Raudjärv (Universität Tartu, College Pärnu). Er brachte einige zusammenfassende Gedanken zum Ausdruck und trug seine Zukunftsvisionen vor. Der zweite Konferenztag ging mit einem Sport- und Wellnessprogramm in der Umgebung von Jäneda und im Spa-Komplex zu Ende.

Am Vormittag des dritten Tages gab es eine Führung durch das Hauptgebäude des Gutes Jäneda und das dort befindliche Museum. Danach ging eine ruhige Wanderung über den Fluss Jänijõe zum See Kali, dabei lauschte man örtliche Legenden und heimatkundliche Ausführungen aus dem Munde des ortskundigen Fremdenführers. Nach dem Mittagessen in Jäneda stand die Heimreise an. Die Vorbereitungen zur nächsten, der XXII. Konferenz haben schon begonnen. Im Rahmen der wirtschaftspolitischen Konferenz wird man sich Ende Juni 2014 wieder in Jäneda treffen.

Tallinn, Juli 2013

Matti Raudjärv

Initiator der Konferenzreihe, Hauptveranstalter
und Koordinator der XXI. Konferenz

² Anne Keerberg, Vertreterin des Colleges Kuressaare der TU Tallinn und Koautorin konnte aus familiären Gründen an der Konferenz nicht teilnehmen

XXI INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE ON ECONOMIC POLICY WAS HELD AT JÄNEDA IN 2013

Twenty earlier scientific conferences on economic policy have been held at Värskas, this, the XXI conference took place in the Jäneda Manor from 27–29 June 2013. Several participants had suggested selecting a new location for a change already a few years ago. On the other hand, some other participants, also this year, would still like to have Värskas as the venue for the conference. Jäneda was chosen as the new venue after preliminary work which started already in March 2012. More specifically, the undersigned sent a price inquiry to 10 possible conference organisers (Jäneda, Haapsalu, Nelijärve, Pärnu, Pühajärve, Sagadi, Viljandi, Võru-Kubija, etc.) at that time. Three inquiries remained without answers, some offers received were rejected because they were unsuitable, and due to several factors and conditions, the Jäneda Manor proved to be the most appropriate venue for us from among the offers screened.

The two conference days had a different structure this time compared to earlier years – namely, on the first day (Thursday, 27 June) the main emphasis was on the round table on the subject of the administrative-territorial reform in Estonia,¹ and the traditional presentations and discussions were held only on the second day (Friday).

The conference was opened on Thursday afternoon with an overview of the history, objectives and traditions of scientific conferences on economic policy by the author of this article. It was followed by the introductory presentation by Sulev Mäeltsemees (Tallinn University of Technology) on the subject „Regional and Local Government Policy in Estonia (in the context of the administrative-territorial reform)“. The round table that followed next was chaired by Sulev Mäeltsemees, and the participants who made presentations, took the floor and made comments were the Tapa Rural Municipality Mayor Alari Kirt, Director of the Association of Estonian Cities Jüri Võigemast, and representatives of the Association of Municipalities of Estonia, the Ambla Rural Municipality Mayor Rait Pihelgas and the Koeru Rural Municipality Mayor Triin Põbbul. Also the Chairman of the Association of Municipalities of Harjumaa and Kose Rural Municipality Mayor Vello Jõgisoo, Mayor of Viljandi Loit Kivistik, Halinga Rural Municipality Mayor Ülle Vapper, and Angelika Kallakmaa from the Tallinn City Government participated. At the end of the round table the general conclusions were drawn from the discussions by the Director of Geomedia OÜ Rivo Noorkõiv. Also foreign guests of the conference and other participants from Estonian institutions of higher education participated actively in the discussions. Also the Nõva Rural Municipality Mayor Aldo Tamm was present on the second day of the conference.

¹ The first day had been dedicated to the subjects related to municipalities also at Värskas in 2007 but then the presentations and discussions were mainly based on examples from the Põlva County (as the Värskas Rural Municipality is in the Põlva County) and the presentations were made by representatives of the above-mentioned county and of the County Government.

The discussions included both positive and negative evaluations of the current development of municipalities. The overall position was that the administrative-territorial reform should be accelerated, the current mergers of municipalities have been mostly justified but on the other hand it is necessary to define the mutual relations between the state and the local governments more decisively and to establish clearly the functions and duties of both parties both in terms of rights on the one hand and responsibilities and liability on the other hand. The persons who took the floor were also somewhat worried about the progress of the process. On the other hand the position was that wider discussions should be held on the subjects of the administrative-territorial reform. Also the idea was expressed that this scientific conference on economic policy could include the issues discussed in its agenda also in the future and keep these issues topical. Peter Friedrich (University of Tartu, Bundeswehr University Munich) emphasised on the basis of the experience of the Federal Republic of Germany the importance of competition among municipalities, which could also be taken into account in Estonia. The round table could essentially be regarded as a success.

The first day ended in a delicious dinner at the Black Stallion Stable, listening at the same time to the concert by the saxophone quartet of the Rakvere Music School, conducted by Jüri Takjas, for about an hour and enjoying the music.

The second day of the conference (Friday) was already directly planned for conference presentations and four sessions were held. The first session was chaired by Frank Ehrhold and Mathias Wiedmer from the University of Greifswald (Federal Republic of Germany). Three presentations were made. The presentation by Stephan Hornig (Kufstein University of Applied Sciences, Austria) was dedicated to the crisis in Europe and compared above all the economic situations of Germany and Greece. The second presentation (Viljar Veebel, Tallinn University of Technology) was on the measures for the solution of the economic and financial crisis in the eurozone and on choices available from the positions of different interest groups. The third presentation of this session was made by Armin Rohde from the University of Greifswald (Federal Republic of Germany) on topical issues of the monetary policy of the euro system.

The second session on Friday was chaired by Mart Sörg from the University of Tartu. The first presentation was made by Margus Randma (Tallinn University of Technology / Saue Rural Municipality Government) who discussed the alternatives for the calculation of the net debt burden of municipalities. The next presentation was from Jüri Ratas (Tallinn University of Technology/ Riigikogu) who pointed out the role of the environment in the enhancement of the competitiveness of cities, based on examples of the European Green Capitals and Tallinn. The third presentation was by Maret Kirsipuu (Estonian Maritime Academy) who provided an overview of differences between family businesses and non-family businesses in Estonia and analysed the role of women in Estonian family businesses.

The third session was chaired by Üllas Ehrlich and Sulev Mäeltsemees (both from the Tallinn University of Technology). The first presentation of the session was

made by Peter Friedrich (University of Tartu, Bundeswehr University Munich, the Federal Republic of Germany) who treated and analysed the relationships between the company seat principle and the public organisation. The second presentation, by Aet Kiisla (Narva College of the University of Tartu) dealt with the fulfilment of the role of serving the society by a university through the development of the curricula of a regional college (based on examples of both the Narva College of the University of Tartu and Kuressaare College of the Tallinn University of Technology).² The last presentation of the session was made by Sirje Pädam who analysed the environmental expenditures of the Estonian public sector in 1995–2011.

The last session of the conference was chaired by Janno Reiljan from the University of Tartu. Four presentations had been planned but authors of only two presentations were present. One of these presentations was made by Petr Wawrosz (University of Finance and Administration in Prague, Czech Republic) who analysed the extensive and intensive factors of changes in production operations on different levels of the economy. The second presentation was made by Maksim Möttus from Estonia (University of Tartu). He had studied the Estonian business support measures and their favourable impact on enterprises.

The conference ended with conclusions and visions of the future presented by Matti Raudjärv (Pärnu College of the University of Tartu). The second day of the conference ended in the sports and health programme around the Jäneda Manor and in the SPA building.

In the morning of the third day the participants became acquainted with the main building of the Jäneda Manor and had a thorough and interesting tour of the museum exhibit rooms. It was followed by a pleasant walk over the Jänijõe River along the hiking path to nearby Lake Kali, listening to local legends and talking about other issues of the local life, led by the guide. After dinner the participants left Jäneda to start preparations for the next, XXII conference. They will meet again at the conference of economic policy at Jäneda at the end of June 2014.

In Tallinn, in July 2013

Matti Raudjärv

Initiator of the series of conferences and

main organiser/coordinator of the XXI conference

² Representative of the Kuressaare College of the Tallinn University of Technology Anne Keerberg as the co-author could not participate in the conference due to compassionate reasons.

MAJANDUSPOLIITIKA TEADUSKONVERENTSID EESTIS (1984-2013)

WISSENSCHAFTLICHE KONFERENZEN ÜBER WIRTSCHAFTSPOLITIK IN ESTLAND (1984-2013)

SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCES ON ECONOMIC POLICY IN ESTONIA (1984-2013)

- | | | |
|------|------|--|
| I | 1984 | Ühiskondliku tootmise intensiivistamise probleemid Eesti NSV-s |
| II | 1994 | Majandusteadus ja majanduspoliitika Eesti Vabariigis |
| III | 1995 | Majanduspoliitika teooria ja praktika Eesti Vabariigis |
| IV | 1996 | Aktuaalsed majanduspoliitika küsimused Euroopa Liidu riikides ja Eesti Vabariigis /I ja II/
Aktuelle wirtschaftspolitische Fragen in den Ländern der Europäischen Union und in der Republik Estland /I und II/
Topical Problems of the Economic Policy in the Member States of the European Union and the Republic of Estonia /I and II/ |
| V | 1997 | Eesti Vabariigi majanduspoliitika ja integreerumine Euroopa Liiduga
Die Wirtschaftspolitik der Republik Estland und die Integration mit der Europäischen Union
Economic Policy of the Republic of Estonia and Integration with the European Union |
| VI | 1998 | Eesti Vabariigi integreerumine Euroopa Liiduga – majanduspoliitika eesmärgid ja abinõud
Die Integration der Republik Estland mit der Europäischen Union – Ziele und Mittel der Wirtschaftspolitik
Integration of the Republic of Estonia into the European Union – Goals and Instruments of Economic Policy |
| VII | 1999 | Eesti Vabariigi majanduspoliitika ja Euroopa Liit
Wirtschaftspolitik der Republik Estland und die Europäische Union
Economic Policy of the Republic of Estonia and the European Union |
| VIII | 2000 | Eesti Vabariigi majanduspoliitika tulemuslikkus ja Euroopa Liit
Wirksamkeit der Wirtschaftspolitik der Republik Estland und die Europäische Union
Effectiveness of the Economic Policy of the Republic of Estonia and the European Union |
| IX | 2001 | Harmoniseerimine ja vabadus Eesti Vabariigi majanduspoliitikas integreerumisel Euroopa Liiduga
Harmonisierung und Freiheit der Wirtschaftspolitik Estlands in EU-Integrationsprozess
Harmonisation and Freedom in the Economic Policy of Estonia integrating with the European Union |
| X | 2002 | Euroopa Liiduga liitumise mõju Eesti majanduspoliitikale
Die Integration der Europäischen Union und ihre Wirkungen auf die Wirtschaftspolitik Estlands
Effect of Accession to the European Union on the Economic Policy of Estonia |

- XI 2003 Eesti majanduspoliitika teel Euroopa Liitu
Die Wirtschaftspolitik Estlands auf dem Weg in die Europäische Union
Estonian Economic Policy on the way towards the European Union
- XII 2004 Eesti majanduspoliitilised perspektiivid Euroopa Liidus
Wirtschaftspolitische Perspektiven Estlands als Mitglied der
Europäischen Union
Economic Policy Perspectives of Estonia in the European Union
- XIII 2005 XIII majanduspoliitika teaduskonverents
Die XIII wirtschaftspolitische Konferenz
13th Scientific Conference on Economic Policy
- XIV 2006 XIV majanduspoliitika teaduskonverents
Die XIV wirtschaftspolitische Konferenz
14th Scientific Conference on Economic Policy
- XV 2007 Eesti majanduspoliitika – kolm aastat Euroopa Liidus
Die Wirtschaftspolitik Estlands – drei Jahre in der Europäischen Union
Economic Policy of Estonia – three Years in the European Union
- XVI 2008 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2008
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2008
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2008
- XVII 2009 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2009
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2009
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2009
- XVIII 2010 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2010
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2010
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2010
- XIX 2011 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2011
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2011
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2011
- XX 2012 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2012
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2012
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2012
- XXI 2013 Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2013
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2013
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2013

NB! Järgmine majanduspoliitika teaduskonverents toimub / Die nächste wirtschaftspolitische Konferenz findet statt / The next scientific conference on economic policy will be held:

- XXII 26.-28.06.2014 (Eesti-Estland-Estonia):
Majanduspoliitika Euroopa Liidu riikides – aasta 2014
Die Wirtschaftspolitik in den EU-Mitgliedsstaaten – 2014
Economic Policy in the EU Member States – 2014

Täpsem information alates oktoobrist-novembrist 2013 / Genauere Informationen ab Oktober-November 2013 / More detailed information from October-November 2013: www.mattimar.ee