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VALUES, SPACE AND SUSTAINABILITY: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF HOUSING
IN ESTONIA

Bachelor's Thesis

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I have written this Bachelor Thesis independently. Any ideas or data taken from other authors or other sources have been fully referenced.

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Introduction

This research aims to provide an assessment of societal attitudes towards more sustainable living spaces. The research problem addresses the slow adoption of sustainable housing construction practices and the shift towards eco-friendly, low-impact homes becoming the norm. This issue is compounded by a general lack of concern about climate change among Estonians. (Eurobarometer, 2024)

While the thesis engages with broad conceptual themes like the “good home” and well-being, the empirical analysis is limited to value indicators available in survey data. As such, it does not directly capture housing experiences or subjective well-being, but instead focuses on measurable attitudes from the European Values Study.

To achieve the aim of the thesis, the author raises four research questions:

- A. What are the main trends of housing in Estonia since re-independence in 1991?
- B. How do these trends align with the environmental need for reduced resource consumption?
- C. What are possible barriers (cultural, political, emotional) to accepting smaller, more sustainable spaces for Estonians?
- D. Are the societal values regarding the “good life” in Estonia connected to the Soviet Era values?

Based on the research questions, the following propositions are offered by the author:

- A. The trends in housing since re-independence show homes growing bigger, increasing resource use.
- B. Housing trends do not align with the environmental need for reduced consumption.
- C. Possible barriers to accepting smaller, more sustainable living spaces or dwelling-sharing for Estonians include:
 1. a sense of limited free will and individualism;
 2. liberal world-view;
 3. low concern about climate change.
- D. Societal values regarding the "good life" in Estonia are connected to the Soviet era values.

To find answers to the research questions, the following research objectives are also raised:

- A. Introducing the context of resource scarcity and planetary boundaries, defining well-being and its components, analysing housing's role in achieving well-being.
- B. Describing the state of housing and good life values in Estonia during the Soviet era (1944-1991), post-re-independence period (1991-2020) and the post-COVID-19 era (2020-present).
- C. Conducting a regression analysis of Estonians' values towards housing, based on European Values Study data (1981-2022).
- D. Describing the results of the regression analysis, and answering the research questions based on these findings.

The thesis begins with the literature review. The literature review synthesizes academic articles on the interconnectedness of environmental and social justice in housing and introduces the historical evolution of the “good life” narrative in Estonia. The aim is to define relevant concepts, introduce frameworks from similar research, and provide context based on preceding literature. The second part of the main body is the empirical part of the thesis. The empirical part consists of two main sections: data and methodology, and a combined chapter of results and discussion.

The data and methodology section introduces the European Value Study’s 1981-2022 Trend File dataset, and the chosen research method - multiple regression analysis. This approach is preferred, because the quantitative analysis will describe the values of Estonians over a wide sample of people. The results section presents and explains the analysis findings. In the discussion section, the results are critically analysed in the context of theoretical frameworks and related to the broader topic. The thesis concludes with a summary, confirmations or rejections of the propositions, and suggestions for further research. The findings could potentially provide insights into why Estonians are reluctant to adopt more sustainable living practices and offer strategies to address this issue effectively.

1. Literature Review

1.1. Sustainability, Resource Use and Value Conflicts in Housing

Current Resource Constraints

The construction industry predominantly operates under the assumption that resources are used only once (Benachio et al., 2020). As the sector is one of the top resource consumers, with buildings accounting for approximately 40% of all global resources (IRP, 2017), this model requires urgent amendments. The prevailing system not only pushes the

world's ecosystems towards tipping points but also exploits and mistreats vulnerable populations (Keil & Kreinin, 2022). Current construction planning focuses solely on the importance of materials for building, neglecting the fate of these materials post-demolition, or at the end of their life cycle. One solution to addressing these issues would be a circular construction model, which considers material use and reuse possibilities at all stages - design, manufacture, construction, operation, and end of life. (Benachio et al., 2020) At the same time it is also clear that due to the huge environmental costs, the construction of new buildings as well as demolition of old buildings must be critically analysed, and where possible, limited. (Foster & Kreinin, 2020)

Greenhouse gas emissions from the built environment is another measure where the construction industry is leading the way. A whopping 37% of global greenhouse gases are emitted by the buildings and construction sector. (UNEP, 2023) Although there is ample peer reviewed literature addressing the greenhouse gas emissions of housing and construction, the number of articles discussing only carbon emissions of housing and construction is approximately 80% higher. (Appendix A). Carbon footprint, while an important indicator, should not be used as the sole metric of sustainability. The phenomenon of focusing on the carbon footprint alone, “carbon tunnel vision”, can result in gaps in our knowledge. This will result in a distorted portrayal of environmental problems and solutions. Carbon tunnel vision can cause us to misjudge both the negative and positive sustainability impacts of technological solutions, i.e. renewable energy production. (Li & Pradhan, 2024; Panwar, 2023; Tian et al., 2024) A holistic perspective must be taken, with greenhouse gas emissions, ecological diversity, resource depletion and social justice considered. (Richardson et al., 2023; Rockström et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2024)

Energy efficiency has been discussed in economic literature since the 1860s, when the Industrial Revolution accelerated the mechanization of labour (Giraudet & Missemer, 2023). However, it has gained increasing prominence in the 21st century due to growing consumption, exacerbated by more extreme weather conditions (IEA, 2023; Peng et al., 2021), production uncertainties (Ahmad & Zhang, 2020; Khan et al., 2023; Rising Energy Prices and Productivity, 2023), and an unstable international political landscape (Khan et al., 2023). These factors have led to record-high energy prices in recent years (Eurostat, 2024a), revealing the energy sector as a significant vulnerability in (inter)national security (Khan et al., 2023; Peng et al., 2021; Rising Energy Prices and Productivity, 2023).

A lot of research and exploration is being done on tackling resource constraints, but technological solutions have always been on the forefront of innovation. However, as early as

the 19th century, there were doubts about technology being the answer to all efficiency problems. W. S. Jevons argued in 1865, that contrary to popular belief, technological advancements will not result in less consumption and will conversely increase it. The concept he described is known as the rebound effect, which presents itself when an increased efficiency brings along an increase in consumption. Increased consumption then offsets the initial benefits of efficiency, due to an overall increase in resource use. (Font Vivanco et al., 2016; Giraudet & Missemmer, 2023) An example of this is technological advancements in car motors. A motor that needs less fuel to operate, with the aim to reduce fuel consumption, will instead provide the driver to cover longer distances with the same amount of money. The efficiency, lower costs and higher degree of freedom will make personal car use more attractive for a wider public and car use will thus increase. This way, a more fuel-efficient motor will create higher fuel usage. (York & McGee, 2016) Continuous technical solutions for energy efficiency and the subsequent growth in energy demand are another fitting example. For instance, studies show that there is a gap between the energy-efficiency of homes and the reduction in energy costs. Technical improvements may have a limited impact when they lead to more consumption. (Heindl, 2022) Moreover, even with the innovative solutions for energy and resource efficiency, it must be remembered that due to the embedded carbon and materials in existing built infrastructure, as well as the energy costs of demolition “the greenest building is... one that is already built”. (Elefante, 2007)

Closely linked to the rebound effect is the prebound effect, which occurs due to overestimated baseline consumption - energy use in energy-inefficient housing may be more frugal due to its higher cost. (Heindl, 2022) In this context, degrowth literature suggests returning to "low-tech" solutions, which are cheaper, simpler, and already exist. Alexander & Yacoumis (2018) propose that focusing on behavioural strategies and energy descent could potentially reduce household energy consumption by 49%.

Well-being Needs and Housing Sufficiency

To provide the "good life" for all within planetary boundaries, it is necessary to determine the level of well-being that will achieve this goal. Recent research shows that this means focusing on satisfying people's essential needs, rather than promoting ever-growing consumption. Whether through the Safe and Just Space framework (O'Neill et al., 2018), sustainable housing scenarios (Zu Ermgassen et al., 2022), or the idea of “consumption corridors” (Fuchs et al., 2021), the message is similar: well-being should be based on what

people truly need to live a decent life, not on consumerist ideals that strain both people and the planet.

Housing plays a key role in this context. It meets basic physical needs like shelter and security, but it also supports psychological needs such as privacy, identity, and a sense of belonging. However, the line between meeting these needs and living in luxury is not always clear. Determining a sufficient level of well-being, specifically for housing needs, is complex. While certain factors, such as living space per person and access to sanitation can be objectively measured, housing standards remain largely subjective. They depend heavily on individual preferences, cultural norms, and demographic factors. (Zu Ermgassen et al., 2022)

In this thesis, well-being is defined through a needs-based approach following Fuchs et al. (2021), where well-being is understood as a state of thriving achieved once basic human needs are satisfied. To put this into practice, the thesis builds on the Theory of Human Needs developed by Doyal and Gough (1991), as applied by Schlesier et al. (2024). Doyal and Gough identify housing as a foundational physiological need - alongside food, clean water, safety, and health. Housing fulfils both physiological functions (e.g., shelter, temperature regulation, privacy) and psychological ones (e.g., identity, belonging). This multidimensionality is key to understanding its role in human well-being.

While the needs-based approach is influential, it is not the only framework used to conceptualise well-being. Alternative definitions include subjective well-being (SWB), often associated with self-reported happiness and life satisfaction (Diener, 1984; Kahneman et al., 2004), and capabilities-based approaches, such as that of Sen (1999) and Nussbaum (2000), which focus on individuals' real freedoms and opportunities to lead the kind of life they value. The needs-based approach was chosen here due to its clear link between objective conditions (like housing) and their contribution to universal needs. Nevertheless, this choice is not without trade-offs. SWB frameworks, for example, can better capture lived experience, while capability approaches allow for a more dynamic and individualised notion of well-being.

There are also various methods to measure well-being. Common indicators include life satisfaction surveys, measures of healthy life expectancy, Gross National Happiness (Ura et al., 2012), and multidimensional indices such as the Human Development Index (HDI) or OECD's Better Life Index. These indicators may include both objective conditions (income, housing, health) and subjective self-assessments (happiness, perceived well-being). In the context of housing, well-being can be assessed via crowding, affordability, tenure security, and subjective housing satisfaction (Eurostat, 2024b; OECD, 2020).

Material conditions like housing also have symbolic importance. Dittmar (2008a) has shown that material possessions, especially the home, are strongly tied to identity and self-expression. She distinguishes between objective well-being (meeting universal needs) and subjective well-being (how people feel about their lives). According to her, SWB includes three components: life satisfaction, frequent positive emotions, and low levels of negative emotions (Kalke et al., 2024).

Additionally, Dittmar argues that SWB research is crucial, and that gross national happiness (GNH) should be measured as an economic indicator alongside GDP. After all, well-being contributes to happier communities, which are more productive and have a positive impact on society. (Dittmar et al., 2008) GNH also helps create a more precise understanding of the general state of well-being than GDP alone, which is crucial for creating policies that precisely address the most relevant issues in a society. (Dittmar et al., 2008; Zu Ermgassen et al., 2022)

With well-being broadly defined, it is also important to determine what qualifies as a basic need and when does consumption become excessive. The concept of consumption corridors (CCs) can be helpful in this regard (Kalke et al., 2024). CCs are figurative corridors within which general well-being-providing consumption takes place. It introduces both lower and upper thresholds of consumption: enough to secure basic needs, but not so much that it leads to environmental or social harm. These corridors aim to distinguish between need-driven consumption and desire-driven consumption, the latter often influenced by social norms, advertising, and aspirations. (Kalke et al., 2024)

To better understand the psychological complexities of this task, the "good life" concept of "material ideal" is introduced. In "Consumer Culture, Identity and Well-Being", Dittmar (2008b) describes the "material ideal" as luxurious and excessive consumption. These ideals are widely amplified by media and advertising, encouraging people to equate consumption with success. This creates an illusion that the "good life" depends on reaching ever-higher material standards - standards that are unattainable for many and unsustainable for all. (Dittmar, 2008b)

Here, Thorstein Veblen's (1899) theory of conspicuous consumption is highly relevant. Veblen argued that people consume not only to satisfy needs but also to signal status. In modern housing, this can be seen in preferences for oversized homes, luxury materials, or prestigious locations - choices often motivated more by visibility and comparison than by actual need. Veblen's insights help explain how consumption exceeds sufficiency, even in societies with widespread material security.

Consequently, the question arises: how will citizens distinguish between needs and desires if they are constantly influenced by status competition and marketing? Can they realistically make decisions that align with sustainable well-being? Even some supporters of consumption corridors express concern about their practical implications. Kalke et al. (2024) warn that in liberal democracies, consumption plays a critical role not only economically but also socially. Consumption has historically helped stabilise societies during periods of transition and insecurity. Moreover, it is often framed as essential to personal autonomy and identity-building. As Kalke et al. (2024, p. 246) put it: “Consumption is a vital tool for the constant self-development and self-invention needed to perform and compete as a unique commodity under the condition of dynamic markets.” Dittmar (2008a) concurs, noting that consumption helps individuals form identity, but cautions that when it becomes excessive, it may actually undermine well-being.

Understanding the balance between well-being needs and luxury consumption is crucial for analysing social values around housing in Estonia. The historical context, from the Soviet era to post-COVID market dynamics, provides a unique backdrop for exploring societal values and their ties to housing trends. By examining the interplay between well-being, consumption, and identity, this thesis aims to shed light on the challenges and opportunities for promoting sustainable housing practices that align with the "good life" in Estonia.

1.2. From Collectivism to Commodification: Housing Values in Estonia (1944-2024)

Housing in Soviet Estonia

Fuchs et al. (2021) define a useful framework for studying housing sufficiency. However, in this thesis, the specific context of Estonia must also be considered. Historical experiences and societal values may influence perceptions of the “good home” (TGH). The legacy of Soviet-era restrictions and forced conformity ideals may have a lasting impact on how housing is valued and its perceived role in individual well-being. (Ruudi, 2023) Additionally, the emphasis on material belongings and identity, as discussed by (Dittmar, 2008a), highlights the potential conflict between sustainable housing practices and societal desires for larger, more luxurious living spaces.

While Estonia experienced three periods of Soviet occupation, this thesis refers specifically to the last and longest one (1944-1991). During the Soviet period, the nature of housing and its associated values were closely tied to the prevailing ideology and social norms. Communal living, state housing, and collective ideals were the cornerstones of

society, promoted both in political rhetoric and spatial practices (Ingerpuu, 2018; Nugin & Pikner, 2023; Ruudi, 2023). While communal living, state housing and collective ideals are often thought of as positive elements of sustainable and degrowth housing futures (e.g., Nelson & Schneider, 2018), the history of social and state-provided housing construction in Central and Eastern Europe was tightly entwined with occupation, colonisation, productivism and environmental destruction. In the Former Soviet Union, housing estates became associated with “inhumane architecture and unwelcoming public space”, resulting from rigidly centralised planning and inflexible design mandates. (Metspalu & Hess, 2018).

The Soviet occupation in 1940 dismantled private land ownership, expropriated farms, and replaced them with state-controlled land use. Mass deportations followed, targeting Estonia’s elite and rural population, with over 20,000 people sent to Siberia by 1949. Fear of repression forced farmers into collective farms, eradicating independent farming. These policies, combined with systematic violence and displacement, left deep scars, fostering lasting trauma and resentment toward the Soviet regime (Kukk, 2020).

During the Soviet occupation of Estonia, the confiscation of farms and the subsequent urbanization marked a period of profound social upheaval. The construction of mass housing, which could be perceived as a neutral symbol of progress, served broader ideological purposes in the Baltic region. In addition to addressing housing needs, these developments served as tools of effective colonisation or Soviet Russification, facilitating the influx of Russian-speaking workers and diluting (and attempting to eradicate) the native population's cultural and linguistic identity (Kalm, 2012). The occupiers, imbued with the belief that Soviet rule was liberating Estonia, disregarded the locals’ perception of being overrun by more privileged colonisers and forced to adopt the Russian language. This migration transformed cities like Tallinn, where the Estonian population dropped from over 90% before the war to less than half by the late 1980s, reflecting the broader socio-political consequences of Soviet housing policies (Kalm, 2012).

The Soviet Union thus emphasized collectivism and social welfare while marginalizing those who did not fit the norm (Ruudi, 2023). The state controlled the distribution of housing, providing standard apartments “according to need”, which were nevertheless meted out according to political priorities, especially to Russian-speaking workers, and encouraging regime-conformist behaviour (Nugin & Pikner, 2023; Ruudi, 2023). Soviet-era housing policy was characterized by the construction of multi-family dwellings and communal spaces, aimed at providing equal living space for all citizens.

However, this led to a lack of privacy and restriction of individualism, which in turn may have hindered personal development and promoted passivity. (Ruudi, 2023)

The “good life” as well as “good housing” during the Soviet period was officially nevertheless framed through the lens of equality, sufficiency, and shared resources (Raisma, n.d.; Ventsel, 2007). The idealization of a healthy and functional body supported the narrative of social progress and industriousness. Collective welfare was prioritized, while social problems were hidden, and those deviating from the norm were marginalized. (Ruudi, 2023)

Soviet-era housing policy left a lasting mark on both the physical and social environment. Standard apartments and communal spaces limited personal development and encouraged conformist behaviour (Ruudi, 2023). These effects are still partially felt today, with many people feeling averse to Soviet-era housing. While urban lifestyles were promoted in collective farm centres, they may not have reflected the actual values and preferences of Estonians regarding housing. After the restoration of independence, Soviet-era settlement forms and buildings, which symbolized the regime and its ideology, were abandoned. This suggests that Estonian ideals regarding housing differed from those promoted in the Soviet Union. (Nugin & Pikner, 2023)

Post Independence Privatisation of the Housing Market

Following Estonia’s independence and the collapse of the Soviet Union, housing policy underwent a fundamental transformation. The large-scale privatisation of the housing stock, together with a rapid transition to neoliberal economic policies, dramatically reshaped the country’s urban landscape (Kährik, 2000). Between 1994 and 1998, public ownership of housing fell sharply from 71% to 10%, stabilising at just 4% by 2001 (Figure 1).

While privatisation was initially presented as a means of economic empowerment, its structure disproportionately favoured those already in relatively advantageous positions, such as tenants in desirable urban areas, thereby reinforcing existing social stratification (Kährik & Pastak, 2023). This shift also marked the beginning of housing’s commodification, turning it from a basic need into a speculative asset. As Heindl (2022) warns, this global trend undermines housing’s role as a human right and instead frames it as a vehicle for financial gain, often at the expense of social equity.

The effects of this commodification are most visible in the growing inaccessibility of homeownership, particularly for younger generations. Rising prices have pushed many into the rental sector and even forced reliance on parental support, sometimes well into adulthood (Kährik & Pastak, 2023). Moreover, post-privatisation rental housing was generally of lower

quality and more likely to be concentrated in socioeconomically disadvantaged neighbourhoods. This spatial clustering of disadvantage has exacerbated inequality by reinforcing physical and social separation between income groups. As Kährik (2000) notes, lack of access to the networks, education, and infrastructure typically found in wealthier areas can severely hinder upward mobility for lower-income residents.

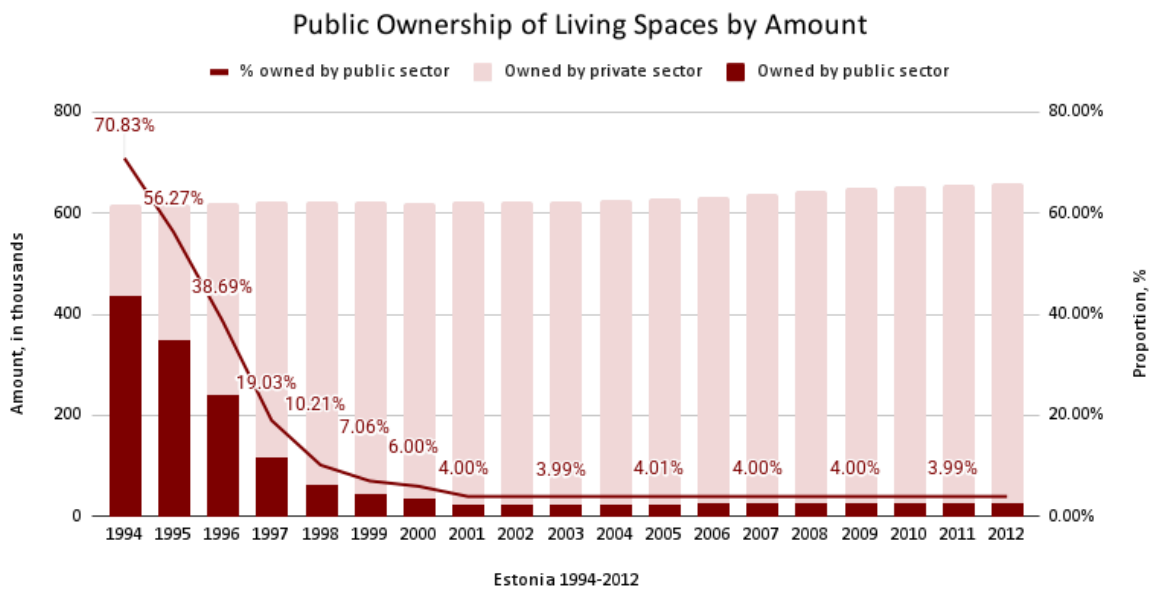


Figure 1. The Decrease in Public Ownership of Living Spaces Over 19 Years

Source: compiled by the author, based on Statistics Estonia databases KVE2 (2012) and KVE21 (2002)

In recent years, formerly neglected rental areas, particularly in Tallinn's Telliskivi and Kalamaja and Tartu's Supilinn, have undergone extensive renovation. However, these improvements have been primarily profit-driven, carried out by real estate investors rather than through public initiatives. As a result, these areas have experienced rapid gentrification: property values have soared, homeowners have gained substantially, but long-term renters have often been displaced due to rising rents and the commercial transformation of their neighbourhoods.

Home and Space in Post-Covid Estonia

The COVID-19 pandemic was a pivotal event in the 21st century, having a transforming impact on how people value the built environment, particularly in terms of the work environment and home life. The role of housing evolved due to prolonged movement

restrictions, with homes becoming multifunctional spaces serving as workplaces, schools, kindergartens, gyms, and more.

During the pandemic, there was a notable shift in housing demand, with an increased preference for larger homes and properties with outdoor spaces. This shift was driven by the need for more comfortable living environments that could accommodate remote work and provide a sense of security and well-being (Battistini et al., 2021). This shift in priorities highlighted the importance of having dedicated workspaces within homes as well as good natural light, ventilation, and access to outdoor areas. The meaning and role of housing was largely reassessed, whereas the sufficiency of housing size became more relevant. (Alonso & Jacoby, 2023) Bigger housing with more rooms per person provided more privacy for work and studies.

During and after the initial COVID-19 lockdowns, a novel phenomenon of counter-urbanisation emerged. This became prominent in countries of the Global North (Halfacree, 2024), and was also detected by mobile operators in Estonia (Eilat, 2020). Reasons for this ranged from economic factors, such as job loss, to health concerns, including the need to isolate from large crowds as directed by national health authorities.

The changes in housing preferences bring up a new perspective on housing sufficiency. The concept of well-being was under a lot of discussion during the initial lockdown periods (Alonso & Jacoby, 2023), as it created social isolation, which can be damaging for mental health, and caused a heightened risk for people living in danger of domestic violence. (Olson et al., 2023) Balancing work and private life proved an additional challenge, with boundaries between different aspects of life blending together. Another aspect that gained importance was proximity to greenery (Halfacree, 2024; Mariotti et al., 2022). With people confined to their homes, having access to nature was limited and having nature nearby became advantageous for mental health.

These changing attitudes toward space, privacy, and well-being during the pandemic resonate with longer-term structural trends, which are examined in the following contextual overview of housing in Estonia.

Contextual Overview of the Housing Trends in Estonia

Over the past three decades, Estonia has undergone significant structural changes in terms of living space distribution, tenure types, and average housing size. These developments reflect both economic growth and emerging social inequalities.

Figure 2 illustrates a steady increase in average living space per person in Estonia from the early post-independence years to the 2010s, reflecting improving material living standards and a shift towards more individualised housing arrangements. This development aligns with the broader liberalisation of the housing market in the early 2000s. Figure 3 complements this trend, showing a rise in floor area and number of rooms in a household per capita between 2000 and 2021. The main growth in housing sizes happened between 2000 and 2011, while the changes since then have stayed stable. This development suggests that housing in Estonia has increasingly aligned with Western-European norms of comfort and privacy. However, this material expansion also brings challenges from a sustainability perspective, as larger dwellings require higher resource use for construction, heating, and maintenance. Additionally, although average living space has increased, such expansion may conceal underlying spatial inequalities and rising barriers to housing access among low-income groups.

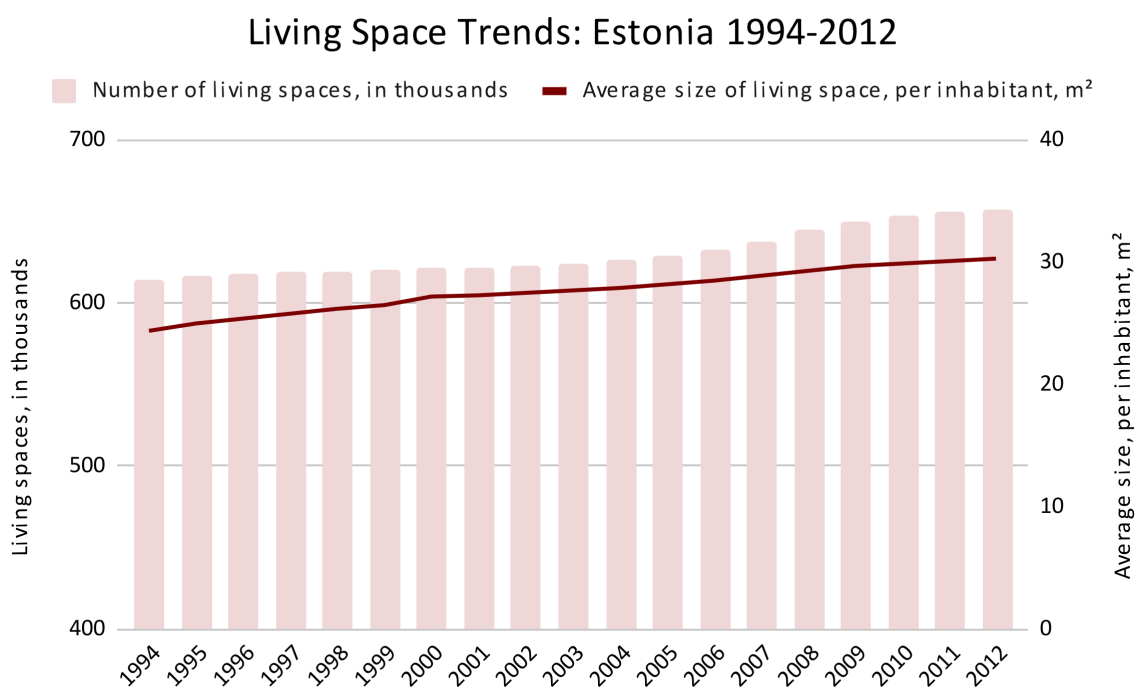


Figure 2. Living Space Trends in Estonia (1994-2012)

Source: compiled by the author, based on Statistics Estonia database KVE1 (2012)

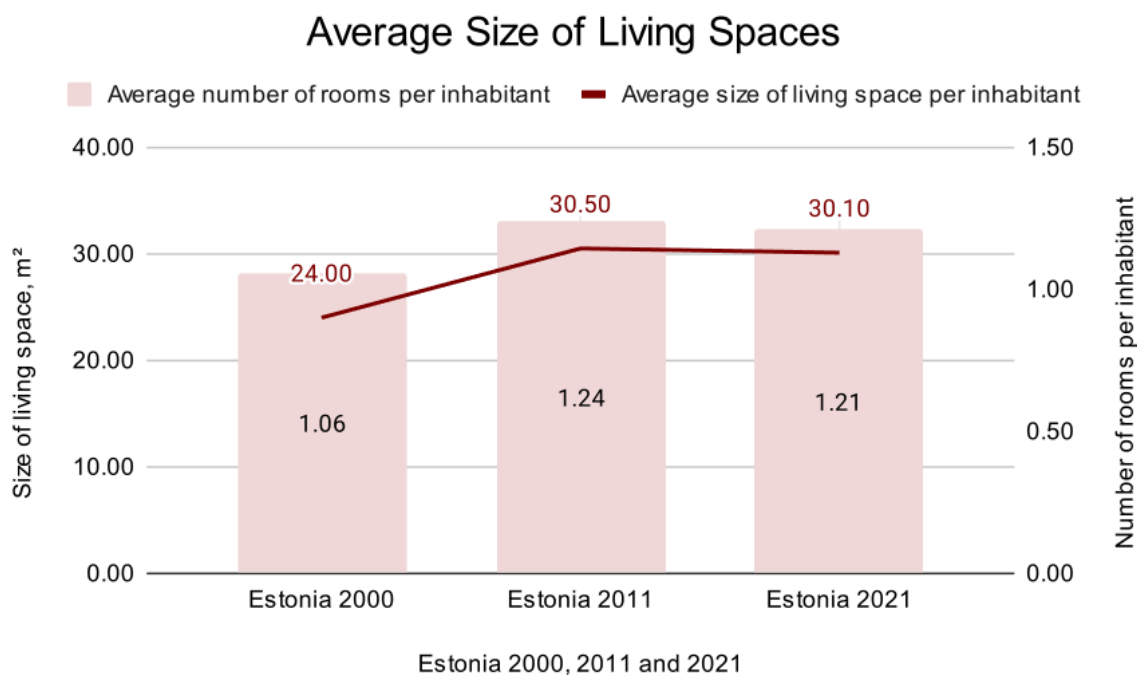


Figure 3. Average Size of Living Spaces by Area and Number of Rooms per Inhabitant (Estonia 2000, 2011 and 2021)

Source: compiled by the author, based on Statistics Estonia databases RLV2052 (2022) and LER19 (2021)

Alongside changes in size, the structure of ownership has also shifted significantly, as shown previously on Figure 1. While the early post-Soviet years were characterised by large-scale privatisation, recent decades have seen a steadily low level of public or municipal housing stock. This transition means an increased individual responsibility for housing, reinforcing liberal values and market-based access. At the same time, it has constrained access to affordable housing for lower-income groups and reduced state influence on housing sufficiency.

These visual data trends provide a necessary empirical context to understand current societal attitudes towards housing. The increasing average space per person, coupled with the erosion of public housing stock, emphasizes a shift toward privatized and consumption-oriented housing norms. Such developments may act as structural barriers to adopting smaller, shared, or more sustainable housing options - central issues addressed in the following empirical analysis.

2. Data and Methodology

2.1. Model Specifications, Dependent and Explanatory Variables

For the purposes of this research, a multiple regression analysis is conducted using data from the European Values Study (EVS) Trend File 1981-2017. EVS is a large-scale, cross-national survey programme conducted in repeated cross-sections to examine fundamental human values. It provides comprehensive data on the beliefs, attitudes, preferences and opinions of individuals across Europe, covering themes such as family, work, the environment, life perceptions, politics and more. This dataset was selected for its extensive time coverage, large sample size, and reliable methodology in capturing value-related data across Europe. Value-based data is central to this thesis, which investigates the relationship between societal values and the housing landscape.

During the initial data preparation, however, some limitations became apparent. Specifically, the rotating thematic modules of the EVS mean that housing-related questions are not consistently included across all study waves. Another key limitation is the lack of housing-specific microdata, which prevents direct testing of how subjective satisfaction aligns with objective housing conditions - a central issue when examining housing sufficiency and the concept of the “Good Home.” The most complete data on Estonia was available from the year 1990. Accordingly, the analysis focuses on this wave, which includes a sample of 1,008 Estonian respondents.

The decision to apply regression analysis in this thesis is based on both the nature of the research questions and the characteristics of the EVS dataset. Regression models are well-suited for examining how multiple social, economic, and attitudinal factors jointly shape individuals' value orientations and perceptions. Since many of the key concepts are measured on ordinal or continuous scales, regression analysis allows for quantitative exploration of these relationships. Moreover, previous scholarly work has successfully employed regression methods to study values and attitudes in large-scale survey data. For example, Inglehart (1997) used regression techniques to investigate the cultural impact of modernization, while Givens and Jorgenson (2013) applied similar methods to explore global environmental concern. Kulin et al. (2021) also demonstrated how welfare institutions and political ideology affect environmental values through multivariate regression.

Using regression analysis enables this thesis to analyse the complex interplay between individual characteristics and value preferences, and to identify possible contradictions. Therefore, regression analysis not only aligns with established research practice but is suitable for uncovering meaningful patterns in the context of this thesis.

The multiple regression analysis is conducted using four separate models. These models examine the relationships between a set of explanatory variables and four distinct dependent variables. All data processing and statistical computations were performed in Stata, where the analysis was conducted through custom-written code.

The dependent variables in models 1 (“A More Simple and Natural Lifestyle in the Future”) and 2 (“Satisfaction with Home Life”) are ordinal and are modelled using an ordinal regression specification. The dependent variables in models 3 (“Attitude towards Environmental Protection”) and 4 (“Real Actions for Environmental Protection”) are continuous principal component scores and are modelled using a linear regression specification. The independent variables included in the models are satisfaction with the financial situation of the household (X_{1i}), approval of the ecological movement or nature protection (X_{2i}), support for allowing more individual freedom (X_{3i}), whether good pay is important in a job (X_{4i}), age (X_{5i}), sex (X_{6i}), and income level (X_{7i}).

The econometric model is specified as:

$$Y_{mi} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i, \text{ where}$$

Y_{1i} – dependent variable for model 1, “Attitude towards a more simple and natural lifestyle in the future” (ordinal variable on a scale of 1-3, where 1=a bad thing, 2=don’t mind either way, 3=a good thing);

Y_{2i} – dependent variable for model 2, “Satisfaction with home life” (ordinal variable on a scale of 1-10, where 1=dissatisfied, 10=satisfied);

Y_{3i} – dependent variable for model 3, “Attitude towards environmental protection” (continuous variable, principal component score);

Y_{4i} – dependent variable for model 4, “Real actions for environmental protection” (continuous variable, principal component score);

X_{1i} – independent variable, “Satisfaction with financial situation of household” (ordinal variable on a scale of 1-10, where 1=dissatisfied, 10=satisfied);

X_{2i} – independent variable, “Approval of the ecology movement or nature protection” (ordinal variable on a scale of 1-4, where 1=don’t approve, 2=somewhat don’t approve, 3=somewhat approve, 4=approve);

X_{3i} – independent variable, “Support for allowing more individual freedom” (ordinal variable on a scale of 1-5, where 1=disagree completely and 5=agree completely);

X_{4i} – independent variable, “Whether good pay is important in a job” (binary variable, where 0=no, 1=yes);

X_{5i} – independent variable, “Age” (continuous variable, in years);

X_{6i} – independent variable, “Sex” (binary variable, where 0=man, 1=woman);

X_{7i} – independent variable, “Scale of incomes” (nominal variable on a scale of 1-10, where 1=lowest income step and 10=highest income step);

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6, \beta_7$ – model parameters (regression coefficients);

u_i – stochastic component;

i – index of the respondent ($i=1, 2, 3, \dots, n$);

n – sample size ($n=778$);

j – index of the independent variable ($j=1, 2, \dots, k$);

k – total number of independent variables ($k=7$);

m – index of the dependent variable ($m=1, 2, \dots, M$);

M – total number of dependent variables ($M=4$).

Variables Y_{3i} and Y_{4i} , which were constructed as principal component scores, require further explanation. The principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to five items from the EVS dataset: three related to environmental attitudes and two representing pro-environmental behaviour (see more: Appendix B). Sampling adequacy was assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, which returned an overall value of 0.573. While two items (“Voluntary work: Unpaid work environment, conservation, ecology” and “Member: Belong to conservation, the environment, ecology”) had KMO values below 0.5, they were retained due to their strong internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha=0.78$) and theoretical relevance. Bartlett’s test of sphericity confirmed sufficient inter-item correlations for component extraction ($\chi^2(10)=829.48, p<0.001$).

PCA extracted two components with eigenvalues greater than 1, jointly explaining 69.9% of the total variance. A varimax rotation was applied to aid interpretability, but it did not improve the total variance explained and reduced the explanatory power of the first component (Appendix C). Since the goal was to construct component scores for use in regression models, the unrotated PCA solution was retained for score generation. The first component reflected environmental attitudes, and the second captured environmental actions. Further details, including eigenvalues, rotated loadings, and reliability statistics, are presented in Appendix C.

Justification for Variable Selection

The independent variables included in the four models were selected based on their relevance to the theoretical framework of this thesis, which integrates degrowth thinking, value theory, and the role of material conditions in shaping attitudes toward housing and

sustainability. Y_{1i} captures preferences for lifestyle change and is conceptually linked to ecological and value-based variables. Y_{2i} reflects subjective well-being and is relevant for comparing personal and social influences. Y_{3i} is a principal component score, based on agreement with three pro-environmental statements. It captures general attitudes toward passive environmental attitudes. Y_{4i} is also a principal component score but based on self-reported participation in environmental organisations or volunteering. The score measures active involvement, distinguishing real behaviour from hypothetical attitudes.

The focus variables are X_{2i} , X_{3i} and X_{4i} , which capture key ideological dimensions: pro-environmental identity, liberal individualism, and materialist orientations. X_{2i} reflects environmental values and potential ideological alignment or identity (Dietz et al., 2007). X_{3i} reflects emancipative values, which are often associated with higher environmental awareness but also potential resistance to collective or regulatory sustainability initiatives. It is theoretically based on cultural value frameworks. (Inglehart, 1997) X_{4i} reflects materialist and liberal values, which have been negatively associated with sustainable consumption and ecological concern (Kasser, 2005).

The theoretically important variables are X_{1i} and X_{7i} . These indicators reflect the material foundation on which housing preferences and environmental action rest. Prior research shows that both subjective and objective economic well-being influence willingness to adopt less resource-intensive lifestyles (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017), and shape expectations about home size, quality, and autonomy (Givens & Jorgenson, 2013).

The model also includes two control variables: X_{5i} and X_{6i} . These are commonly used to account for systematic variation in value orientations due to life-cycle stage and gendered socialization. Age is relevant given generational shifts in environmental concern and post-materialist values (Franzen & Vogl, 2013), while sex is included due to consistent findings that women tend to report higher pro-environmental concern and well-being sensitivity in the domestic sphere (McCright, 2010). Including these controls ensures that observed relationships are not confounded by demographic composition.

Taken together, the variable set enables this study to assess the joint influence of ideology, material conditions, and sociodemographics on housing-related and environmental values in Estonia. This aligns with the thesis's aim to explore why societal uptake of more sustainable housing ideals may be constrained or enabled by deeper cultural and structural factors.

2.2. Data Description and Descriptive Analysis

The data used in the analysis is drawn from the integrated dataset “European Values Study Trend File 1981-2017.” The dataset contains cross-sectional, microlevel data collected across multiple waves and countries. For the purpose of this thesis, only observations for Estonia from the 1990 wave have been retained. This subset was selected due to its comprehensive coverage of the variables relevant to the research questions, as well as limitations of the data as explained in chapter 2.1. The original data has been cleaned and filtered to remove anomalies, retaining a final sample of 778 observations.

The preliminary analysis (Table 1) presents descriptive statistics for 778 valid observations across all variables. Most variables display expected levels of central tendency and dispersion. High coefficients of variation for variables like Y_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4 , X_6 are expected due to limited scale ranges and binary coding. Minimum and maximum values confirm full scale use, indicating variability in the dataset.

Table 1

Descriptive Analytics

Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max	Coef.Var.
Future changes: A simple and more natural lifestyle (Y_1)	778	1.263	0.655	1	3	51.81%
Satisfaction with home life (Y_2)	778	6.082	2.224	1	10	36.57%
Attitudes towards the environment (Y_3)	778	0.040	1.349	-3.480	4.435	N/A
Real actions in environment protection (Y_4)	778	0.022	1.359	-0.648	9.513	N/A
Satisfaction with financial situation of household (X_1)	778	5.078	2.575	1	10	50.70%
Approval: Ecology movement or nature protection (X_2)	778	1.595	0.690	1	4	43.23%
Allow more freedom for individuals (X_3)	778	2.312	1.095	1	5	47.34%
Important in a job: good pay (X_4)	778	0.866	0.341	0	1	39.31%
Age (X_5)	778	39.748	14.242	16	83	35.83%
Sex (X_6)	778	0.526	0.500	0	1	95.05%
Scale of Incomes (X_7)	778	3.829	1.436	1	10	37.50%

Source: compiled by the author, based on the data of the European Values Study (2022)

Y_1 has a mean of 1.26 and a coefficient of variation of 51.81%, indicating a moderately skewed distribution toward the lower end of the scale. Y_2 shows a mean of 6.08 in the range of 1-10 and moderate dispersion (CV = 36.57%), suggesting above average

satisfaction levels. Y_3 and Y_4 are principal component scores, which means they are standardized and centred around zero. Due to their dimensionless nature, they reflect relative positioning rather than raw survey responses. Y_3 captures policy support and willingness to sacrifice, while Y_4 reflects self-reported actual participation. In both cases, scores exceed original response scales, which is typical for principal component scores and reflects variance explained across the selected items.

X_1 has a mean of 5.08 out of 10. The standard deviation (2.58) and coefficient of variation (50.70%) indicate high variation in how respondents perceive their financial well-being. X_2 shows a mean of 1.60 on a 4-point scale, which indicates low average support for ecological causes. The high coefficient of variation (43.23%) however suggests that opinions are moderately dispersed across the scale. X_3 has a mean of 2.31 on a 5-point scale, indicating that responses are centred near the midpoint. The coefficient of variation (47.34%) reflects moderate-to-high relative variability, suggesting that the variable captures a meaningful spread of views across the ideological spectrum. X_4 is a binary variable, with a high mean of 0.87 and a standard deviation of 0.34, which reflects some variation in responses but also a clear concentration toward the “yes” category.

X_5 has a wide distribution, showing that the youngest respondents are 16 and the oldest 83. The mean is 39.75 years, with a standard deviation of 14.24. This shows a broad age variability in the sample, enabling the analysis to capture both generational and life-cycle differences. X_6 is binary, with a mean of 0.53 and a standard deviation of 0.50. This indicates a nearly balanced gender distribution in the sample. X_7 has a mean of 3.83, which is relatively low on a scale of 1-10. The standard deviation (1.44), and the coefficient of variation (37.50%) suggest a low variability, with most responses clustering in the lower-middle range of the income distribution.

2.3. Correlation Analysis and Cuzick’s Non-parametric Trend Test

All the variables in the constructed models are quantitative, among them are continuous, ordinal, binary and nominal variables. In models 3 and 4 the relationships are linear, but in models 1 and 2 non-linear. As the nominal variable cannot be analysed with a correlation test, it is left out and will be tested with Cuzick’s non-parametric trend test. The correlation analysis estimates the relationships of variables. Therefore, Spearman’s rank correlation is used to assess the strength and direction of associations between the variables (Table 2).

Table 2

Correlation Matrix

M1-4	Y ₁	Y ₂	Y ₃	Y ₄	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅	X ₆
Y ₁	1									
Y ₂	-0.081 *	1								
Y ₃	0.033	0.034	1							
Y ₄	-0.038	-0.023	-0.889 ***	1						
X ₁	-0.014	0.411 ***	0.078 *	-0.063	1					
X ₂	0.136 ***	-0.055	-0.183 ***	0.142 ***	0.022	1				
X ₃	-0.026	0.030	-0.090 *	0.080 *	0.028	0.027	1			
X ₄	-0.021	-0.004	-0.045	0.044	-0.092 **	0.002	-0.0001	1		
X ₅	-0.036	-0.011	0.020	0.012	0.127 ***	-0.004	0.035	-0.119 ***	1	
X ₆	-0.081 *	-0.091 *	0.034	-0.056	-0.036	-0.031	0.029	-0.078 **	0.065	1

Notes. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001; sample size: n=778. Correlation strength (absolute values): very weak <0.1, weak 0.1-0.3, moderate 0.3-0.5, strong >0.5

Source: compiled by the author

The results in Table 2 show that a majority of observed correlations are weak or very weak. An unexpected but theoretically interesting finding is the strong significant negative correlation ($\rho = -0.889$, $p < 0.001$) between two dependent variables: attitudes towards the environment (Y_3) and real actions in environment protection (Y_4). Although based on theory they were assumed to be linked in a similar direction and therefore only used as dependent variables, they present an interesting association. A moderate and statistically significant correlation ($\rho = 0.411$, $p < 0.001$) appears between satisfaction with home life (Y_2) and satisfaction with household financial situation (X_1). This is logically consistent, as financial well-being contributes significantly to overall home life satisfaction.

A weak, but statistically significant positive correlation ($\rho = 0.136$, $p < 0.001$) appears between higher approval of environmental movements (X_2) and more favourable views

toward a simple and natural lifestyle (Y_1). Similarly, approval of environmental movements (X_2) has a weak positive link ($\rho=0.142$, $p<0.001$) to taking action for the environment (Y_4). Yet, approval of environmental movements (X_2) has a weak negative link ($\rho=0.183$, $p<0.001$) to environmental attitudes (Y_3). A very weak positive association ($\rho=0.078$, $p<0.05$) is present between financial satisfaction (X_1) and environmental attitudes (Y_3 , which includes the willingness to contribute financially).

Valuing more freedom for individuals (X_3) has very weak associations in different directions with environmental attitudes ($\rho= -0.09$, $p<0.05$) and environmental actions ($\rho=0.08$, $p<0.05$). A negative association between support for individual freedom and pro-environmental attitudes suggests that people who highly value individual autonomy may be slightly less likely to support collective or regulatory environmental policies. Very weak negative associations with the sex of the respondent seem to suggest a slight gender-based difference in attitudes about a simpler lifestyle ($\rho= -0.081$, $p<0.05$) and also in satisfaction in home life ($\rho= -0.091$, $p<0.05$).

Since the variable Scale of Incomes (X_7) is nominal and not suitable for standard correlation analysis, it is instead assessed using Cuzick's non-parametric trend test (Table 3). The test shows no significant trends of lifestyle preference or environmental activity across incomes. A marginal positive trend ($z=1.886$, $p=0.059$), significant at a 10% level, appears between life satisfaction (Y_2) and income groups, and a significant positive trend ($z=2.176$, $p=0.030$) is identified between environmentally friendly attitudes (Y_3) and income groups. There are no significant trends in lifestyle preferences (Y_1) or environmental activities (Y_4) across income groups.

The preliminary analysis shows only one significant and moderate correlation between dependent and independent variables, with a majority of weak or very weak, but significant correlations. The strongest correlation appears instead between two independent variables, with a negative association between attitudes toward environment protection, and actions toward environment protection. This discrepancy can be explained by examining the underlying constructs of the environmental attitudes and environmental actions PCA scores. The attitude score includes hypothetical opinions about the respondents' attitude about passive contribution, which does not mean that the respondents would really act the way they have reported. The action score includes self-reported real activities, which suggest a very active way of participation in environment protection.

Table 3

Cuzick's Trend Test Results

Variables	z-value	p-value	Interpretation
Y ₁ and X ₇	1.352	0.176	No statistically significant trend of simple lifestyle preference across income groups.
Y ₂ and X ₇	1.886	0.059	Marginal trend (not statistically significant at 5% level, but significant at 10% level), suggesting an association between life satisfaction and income groups.
Y ₃ and X ₇	2.176*	0.030	Significant positive trend between environmentally friendly attitudes and income.
Y ₄ and X ₇	-0.558	0.577	No trend, income and environmental activities are not associated.

Notes. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001; sample size: n=778

Source: compiled by the author

A moderate correlation was established between satisfaction with home life and satisfaction with household financial situation, which is consistent with the assumption that financial welfare provides people with a sufficient lifestyle, which contributes to a higher satisfaction with home life. The significant, but weak ties between different environment variables give room for further research and discussion, because although approval of ecological and environmental movements has weak positive ties with favourable views toward a simple lifestyle and with taking an active role in environment protection, it has a negative link with environmental attitudes. This can at first raise questions. However, a closer look into the contents of the variables may help explain this inconsistency. The principal score for environmental attitudes includes opinions about financial contributions and policy views regarding environmental activities - these are passive options, which don't expect much dedication. The principal score for environmental actions includes responses on active contributions, such as being a member of and working voluntarily for an environmental organisation. Therefore, environmental movements might be perceived more negatively by outsiders, whose attitudes are supportive only in principle. As ecological and environmental movements are often activism based, their activities can cause inconveniences to the general public. For example, a common way of bringing attention to important issues is civil

disobedience. Although “conscientious” and peaceful, it is usually unlawful and thus frowned upon (Rawls, 1999).

Environmental attitudes are very weakly positively linked with financial satisfaction, which could suggest that respondents that are more happy with their financial situation, are more happy to contribute passively, e.g. financially. As the cause and effect direction is not clear based on this analysis, it could also indicate that respondents who do not support financial and policy-based solutions are contributing in other ways, which affect their financial situation negatively. For example, they may take on more voluntary work, live a simpler lifestyle and thus earn less.

Another difference comes forth when comparing the environmental attitudes and environmental actions in their ties with individual freedom values. The ties are very weak in both cases, but in opposing directions. One possible explanation for the negative association between pro-environmental attitudes and support for individual freedom is that people who value autonomy may be less likely to support collective or regulatory environmental policies (tax changes, governments controlling businesses by regulating pollution etc). A positive association with real environmental actions may indicate that even those who prioritize individual freedom can still take personal, voluntary actions for the environment - possibly because those actions align with self-determined values rather than imposed duties.

The very weak negative associations of the respondents’ gender and valuing a simple future lifestyle or being satisfied with home life indicates a slightly higher dissatisfaction among women. It is possible that this is related to the many aspects of gender inequality, which cause women to have a higher unpaid workload at home, while also working outside of the home (International Labour Organization, 2024). Many technological advances, e.g. home appliances like washing machines, dishwashers and dryers, have freed up women’s time from homework. A return to a more simple and natural lifestyle could endanger this achieved freedom if it means a decrease in energy and technology use. These aspects could be part of the explanation as to why women are less happy with their home life and don’t have a positive attitude towards a more simple and natural lifestyle. These associations merit further investigation using additional covariates and more nuanced methodological approaches.

The Cuzick’s trend test suggests that respondents in higher income groups hold more environmentally friendly attitudes than respondents in lower income groups. While statistically significant on the 10% level instead of the conventional 5%, the test shows a

weak to moderate trend, suggesting that higher income is potentially also linked to greater life satisfaction.

In conclusion, the preliminary analysis reveals mostly weak associations between variables, with only one moderate correlation observed between financial satisfaction and home life satisfaction. A strong negative correlation between environmental attitudes and actions suggests a gap between values and behaviour, likely due to differences in how these constructs are measured. Other weak associations, particularly those involving income, gender, and freedom values, indicate nuanced patterns that merit further analysis. These initial findings provide a basis for specifying the regression models presented in the following section.

2.4. Regression Analysis of the Preliminary and Final Models

The first model is an ordered logistic regression model, used to analyse the independent variables' effect on the dependent variable Y_{1i} . The general specification of the model is as follows:

$$Y_{1i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i.$$

The coefficient estimations and their significance are presented in Table 4 (See also Appendix D). The ordered logistic regression model shows a general lack of statistical significance between the explanatory variables and the outcome, with two exceptions. The explanatory variable X_2 (Approval of ecology movement or nature protection) shows a strong positive effect ($\beta=0.567$) on Y_1 (Attitude towards a more simple and natural lifestyle) and is statistically very significant ($p<0.001$). Additionally, the variable X_6 (Sex, coded 0=male, 1=female) has a moderate negative effect ($\beta= -0.432$) that is statistically significant at the 5% level. None of the other variables in this model show strong effects or statistical significance.

The model's likelihood ratio shows that the set of explanatory variables significantly improves model fit compared to a model with no explanatory variables (LR $\chi^2(7)=26.16$, $p<0.001$). However, it explains only a very small part of the variation (3.4%) compared to a model with no predictors. This indicates that while some factors are associated with simple lifestyle preferences, much of the variation in the outcome remains unexplained by the included variables. Although the proportional odds assumption was found to be violated for some covariates, these variables were not statistically significant in the model and were not included in the interpretation of results (Appendix H). Therefore, the assumption violation is unlikely to have affected the substantive conclusions of the study.

Based on these results, statistically insignificant variables are excluded from the final specification of Model 1. The final specification will focus on the variables X_{2i} and X_{6i} and their associations with the dependent variable Y_{1i} .

The second model is also an ordered logistic regression model but used to analyse the independent variables' effect on the dependent variable Y_{2i} (Satisfaction with home life on a scale of 1-10). The general specification of the model is as follows:

$$Y_{2i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i.$$

The coefficient estimations and their significance are presented in Table 4 (See also Appendix E).

Table 4

Regression Results: Preliminary Models

	Preliminary Model 1	Preliminary Model 2	Preliminary Model 3	Preliminary Model 4
Intercept	-	-	0.421	0.220
X_{1i} (finance)	-0.027	0.385***	0.043 .	-0.026
X_{2i} (ecology approval)	0.567***	-0.143	-0.381***	-0.084
X_{3i} individual freedom)	-0.039	0.019	-0.070	-0.025
X_{4i} (good pay important)	-0.275	0.120	-0.129	-0.102
X_{5i} age	-0.008	-0.008	0.000	-0.002
X_{6i} sex	-0.432 .	-0.304 .	0.126	-0.162
X_{7i} income scale	0.085	-0.155*	0.062	0.096*
Residual std. error	-	-	1.315	1.353
Degrees of freedom	-	-	770	770
Multiple coefficient of determination R^2	-	-	0.059	0.017
Adjusted R^2	-	-	0.050	0.008
F-statistic	-	-	6.880	1.910
P-value	-	-	0.000	0.065
Log likelihood	-368.388	-1567.801	-	-
Pseudo R^2	0.034	0.055	-	-
LR χ^2	26.160	181.140	-	-
Probability > χ^2	0.001	0.000	-	-

Significance markers:

0'***'

0.001'***'

0.01'***'

Notes. Independent variables are Y_{1i} (Model 1), Y_{2i} (Model 2), Y_{3i} (Model 3), Y_{4i} (Model 4), sample size: n=778.

Source: compiled by the author

This ordered logistic regression model identifies three statistically significant associations between satisfaction with home life and the explanatory variables. The most notable effect is between Y_{2i} (Satisfaction with home life) and X_1 (Satisfaction with the financial situation of the household). Although this effect is the highest in the model and statistically very significant, it is relatively moderate ($\beta=0.385$, $p<0.001$). Additionally, X_7 (Scale of incomes) and X_6 (Sex) show significant negative effects. X_7 indicates a slight negative change that is significant at a 1% level. X_6 indicates a slightly stronger negative effect that is significant at a 5% level ($\beta= -304$, $p<0.05$).

The model's likelihood ratio (LR χ^2 (7)=181.14, $p<0.001$) shows a statistically significant improvement in model fit, compared to a model with only an intercept. Although the model's explanatory power is higher than in Model 1, it is still very limited, explaining only 5.46% of the variation (Pseudo $R^2=0.0546$). This suggests that in this model, similarly to the first model, some unobserved factors remain very important. While the ordered logit model indicated that gender has a statistically significant effect, a post-estimation test showed that the proportional odds assumption was violated for this variable (Appendix H). As such, the effect of gender may vary across satisfaction levels and should be interpreted with caution.

Statistically insignificant variables are removed from the final model specification, with only X_{1i} , X_{6i} and X_{7i} retained.

The third model is an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression used to analyse the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable Y_{3i} , which measures attitudes towards environmental protection. The general specification of the model is as follows:

$$Y_{3i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i.$$

The coefficient estimations and their significance are presented in Table 4 (See also Appendix F). This linear regression model shows a statistically very significant negative association ($\beta= -0.381$, $p<0.001$) between Y_{3i} (Attitudes toward the environment) and X_{2i} (Approval of ecology movement or nature protection). There is also a weak positive association between Y_{3i} and X_{1i} (Satisfaction with the financial situation of the household), significant at the 5% level ($\beta=0.043$, $p<0.05$). All other variables, including the control variables X_{5i} (Age), X_{6i} (Sex) and X_{7i} (Scales of income), are statistically not significant.

The model itself is statistically significant ((F(7, 770)=6.88, $p<0.001$), but with $R^2 = 0.0588$ and adjusted $R^2 = 0.0503$ the model fit is very weak. Only 5% of the variation Y_{3i} is explained by this model, which means that additional important factors should be added to make the model stronger. The current model leaves a big part of the variation in the outcome

unexplained. Based on these results, variables X_{3i} , X_{4i} , X_{5i} , X_{6i} , and X_{7i} are dropped from the final model specification.

The fourth model is an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression used to analyse the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable Y_{4i} which measures real activities in support of environmental protection. The general specification of the model is as follows:

$$Y_{4i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \beta_5 X_{5i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i.$$

The coefficient estimations and their significance are presented in Table 4 (See also Appendix G). In this linear regression the only statistically significant variable is X_{7i} (Scale of incomes), but its positive effect on Y_{4i} (Real actions in support of environmental protection) is very weak ($\beta=0.096$, $p<0.01$). None of the other variables were statistically significant.

The model has a p-value > 0.05 and is therefore not statistically significant. The multiple coefficient of determination R^2 and adjusted R^2 are also very low, 0.0171 and 0.0082 respectively, which suggests a poor model fit. As almost none of the determinants of Y_{4i} are observed in this specification, and the model is statistically not significant, it will not be retained as a final model. Diagnostic tests for the OLS models (3 and 4) were also conducted, the results are presented in Appendix I.

After estimating the initial specifications of the four models, statistically insignificant variables are removed. The changes are made according to the estimations of the preliminary models, which were described in the previous sub-chapter. The final model specifications are as follows:

1. Model 1: $Y_{1i} = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + u_i$
2. Model 2: $Y_{2i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_6 X_{6i} + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i$
3. Model 3: $Y_{3i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$
4. Model 4: $Y_{4i} = \beta_0 + \beta_7 X_{7i} + u_i$

An overview of both specifications of all four models are provided in Table 5.

In Model 1 (Attitude towards a more simple and natural lifestyle), the number of independent variables decreased from seven to two. The model's final specification can now be used to analyse the effect of X_{2i} and X_{6i} on the dependent variable Y_{1i} . The model's log likelihood improved slightly (from -368.388 to -370.133), while the pseudo R^2 decreased marginally (from 0.034 to 0.030).

In Model 2 (Satisfaction with home life), the number of predictors was reduced from seven to three, with X_{1i} , X_{6i} and X_{7i} remaining. With this specification, the model worsened a little bit - the log likelihood decreased (from -1567.801 to -1570.893), indicating a decline in

model fit and the pseudo R^2 decreased as well (from 0.055 to 0.053). This indicates a decline in model fit and a decline in the explained variation.

Table 5

Regression Results: Preliminary vs. Final Models

	Preliminary Model 1	Final Model 1	Preliminary Model 2	Final Model 2	Preliminary Model 3	Final Model 3	Preliminary Model 4	Final Model 4
Intercept	-	-	-	-	0.421	0.374	0.220	-0.308
X_{1i} (finance)	-0.027	-	0.385***	0.379***	0.043	0.054*	-0.026	-
X_{2i} (ecology approval)	0.567***	0.571***	-0.143	-	-0.381***	-0.382** *	-0.084	-
X_{3i} individual freedom)	-0.039	-	0.019	-	-0.070	-	-0.025	-
X_{4i} (good pay important)	-0.275	-	0.120	-	-0.129	-	-0.102	-
X_{5i} age	-0.008	-	-0.008	-	0.000	-	-0.002	-
X_{6i} sex	-0.432	-0.462	-0.304	-0.332*	0.126	-	-0.162	-
X_{7i} income scale	0.085	-	-0.155*	-0.165**	0.062	-	0.096*	0.086
Residual std. error	-	-	-	-	1.315	1.318	1.353	1.354
Degrees of freedom	-	-	-	-	770	775	770	776
Multiple coefficient of determination R^2	-	-	-	-	0.059	0.049	0.017	0.008
Adjusted R^2	-	-	-	-	0.050	0.046	0.008	0.007
F-statistic	-	-	-	-	6.880	19.82	1.910	6.47
P-value	-	-	-	-	0.000	0	0.065	0.011
Log likelyhood	-368.388	-370.133	-1567.801	-1570.893	-	-	-	-
Pseudo R^2	0.034	0.030	0.055	0.053	-	-	-	-
LR χ^2	26.160	22.670	181.140	174.960	-	-	-	-
Probability > χ^2	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	-	-	-	-

Significance markers:

0****

0.001***

0.01**

0.05*

Notes. Independent variables are Y_{1i} (Model 1), Y_{2i} (Model 2), Y_{3i} (Model 3), Y_{4i} (Model 4), sample size: $n=778$

Source: compiled by the author

Model 3 (Attitude towards environmental protection) was simplified from seven to two variables (X_{1i} and X_{2i}), with a slight drop in R^2 (from 0.0588 to 0.0487) and adjusted R^2 (from 0.0503 to 0.0462). This means that the model's final specification explains 1% less of the variation, which is a marginal loss. However, the F-statistic increased substantially (from 6.88 to 19.82), which shows that the remaining variables contribute significantly more to the model's explanatory strength than the preliminary set of predictors did.

In Model 4, only one explanatory variable (X_{7i}) was retained from the original seven. Although both R^2 and adjusted R^2 remained low (0.0083 and 0.0070, respectively), the F-statistic increased (from 1.91 to 6.47), and the p-value improved from 0.065 to 0.0112. Due to the poor explanatory power of the model and no significant improvement by the removal of insignificant variables, in addition to its several weaknesses discovered during diagnostic tests, this model is not analysed further.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Summary of Key Findings

The regression models revealed several significant associations between social values and housing-related attitudes in Estonia. Overall, the results were mixed: some findings aligned well with the theoretical expectations established in the literature review, while others revealed surprising contradictions or patterns that remained only partially explained.

First, a positive association was found between support for environmental movements and a preference for a simpler and more natural lifestyle. Although other studies have found women to have more environmentally friendly attitudes (e.g. McCright, 2010), in this analysis men were more likely to favour a simpler and more natural lifestyle in the future. Second, the results indicated a moderate link between satisfaction with home life and satisfaction with the household's financial situation. Interestingly, both gender and income level showed a negative association, with women and higher earners reporting slightly lower home life satisfaction than men and lower earners.

Third, a negative association was detected between higher approval of ecological movements and pro-environmental attitudes, while financial satisfaction has a weak positive link with pro-environmental attitudes. This may reflect a dissonance between activist identity and mainstream environmental views. The assessment of real environmental actions and its ties with other variables turned out to be limited by the model. Only income level had a weak positive association, but due to very limited explanatory power, the model was set aside from further analysis.

3.2. Discussion

This section interprets each model's results in relation to existing theoretical frameworks and contextualises them within Estonia's socio-historical background. The finding that support for ecological movements is positively associated with the preference for a simpler, more natural lifestyle, is consistent with the degrowth literature that calls for

behavioural and cultural shifts away from high-impact consumption (Alexander & Yacoumis, 2018). The idea of “low-tech living” as a resilient alternative aligns with respondents’ expressed desire for simplicity. However, an unexpected gender effect was also revealed: based on the sample used in this thesis, men were more likely than women to support a simple lifestyle. This contradicts much of the existing literature, where women typically express stronger pro-environmental attitudes (Dittmar, 2008b; McCright, 2010). One potential explanation is the gendered burden of household labour: adopting a “simpler” lifestyle may be perceived as increasing unpaid domestic work, which often falls disproportionately on women (International Labour Organization, 2024). For instance, Dittmar (2008a) discusses how material and lifestyle choices are deeply embedded in identity and social expectations, particularly regarding femininity and family roles. In this light, men’s greater preference for simplicity may reflect an ideological stance rather than a readiness to take on its practical consequences. This contradiction underlines the importance of examining values not just as abstract attitudes but as lived, socially embedded positions.

Financial satisfaction being positively associated with home life satisfaction reinforces the needs-based perspective on well-being (Doyal & Gough, 1991). Housing fulfils both physical and psychological needs, and when individuals feel financially secure, their capacity to achieve a stable and satisfying home environment improves. Yet, the second model also produced a puzzling result: income is negatively associated with satisfaction with home life. This contradicts standard economic assumptions that higher income leads to improved subjective well-being. However, Dittmar (2008b) and Kalke et al. (2024) offer useful insights. They argue that beyond a certain point, rising income contributes to higher expectations and status comparisons, which may in turn lower subjective satisfaction. Within the post-socialist Estonian context, where aspirations may be shaped by a desire to “catch up” with Western standards, those with higher incomes might feel more acutely the gap between their current living situation and their imagined ideal. Overall, this find offers interesting propositions and requires further research for concrete conclusions to be made.

Another surprising and contradictory result appeared in model 3: support for ecological movements is negatively associated with general pro-environmental attitudes. One possible explanation lies in the symbolic and political nature of “support for ecological movements” as an item. Rather than reflecting genuine environmental concern, it may signal ideological or political alignment. Conversely, those with strong environmental attitudes may avoid associating themselves with activist movements, perhaps due to perceived radicalism, ineffectiveness, or mistrust. This tension may be particularly acute in the Estonian context,

where the legacy of Soviet-era collectivism has led to a preference for individual action and scepticism towards organised movements (Ingerpuu, 2018; Ruudi, 2023). In this view, environmental concern can exist without corresponding political engagement, especially when that engagement is framed in collectivist or ideological terms. Unfortunately, the EVS dataset lacks sufficient observations where environmental and well-being attitudes are available with variables on political trust or institutional perceptions. This somewhat limits the explanatory power of this model.

The model estimating environmental values' ties to real-world environmental actions showed the weakest explanatory power, showing only one weak positive effect from income. This may suggest that real environmental action in Estonia is not easily predictable by socio-demographics or values alone. Additionally, it reflects a broader trend in sustainability research, where behavior often diverges from expressed concern, also described by Dittmar (2008b) and Zu Ermgassen et al. (2022). Multiple barriers can explain this value-action gap. First, participation in organised environmental action requires resources, time, and awareness - factors that are not captured in the dataset. Second, the form of action measured (i.e., formal participation) may not reflect more common or informal behaviours, such as recycling or reduced consumption.

Overall, the results reveal that value-driven behaviour is complex and often contradictory. While some findings supported theoretical expectations, others highlighted the importance of context. The models' weak predictive power suggests that values alone are not sufficient. Factors like identity, institutional trust, and Estonia's post-socialist legacy must also be considered. These aspects could be better captured through qualitative analysis, as the current quantitative data does not account for them.

3.3. Limitations and Future Research

This thesis has several limitations. For instance, the models explain a small proportion of the variance, suggesting that many relevant factors have not been included. Some instances are housing tenure, type of dwelling, household composition, or neighbourhood characteristics, which could meaningfully influence perceptions of sufficiency and well-being.

Second, there are several data-related limitations. The EVS 1990 lacks weights for several surveyed countries, including Estonia. Additionally, it was not possible to analyse changes in time based on the microdata, due to uneven availability of thematic data over different study waves. Moreover, the current availability of data does not allow estimating

aspects like satisfaction with home life in the context of the respondents' housing situation. It is only possible to create a contextual description of the housing scene in the country during the time of the study. The lack of housing-specific microdata prevents the direct testing of how subjective satisfaction aligns with objective housing conditions - a key question when investigating sufficiency and the "Good Home" ideal.

Third, the negative correlation between approval of environmental movements and environmental attitudes warrants deeper qualitative or mixed-method exploration. This suggests a potential mismatch between identity-based alignment with activist movements and support for mainstream environmental policies, which cannot be disentangled through study data alone.

Future research should aim to incorporate more detailed and housing-specific variables, including objective indicators (e.g., floor area, heating type, household density) and attitudinal measures grounded in environmental psychology. Incorporating constructs such as autonomy, identity, and ideological belief systems would also help explain value-behaviour gaps observed in this thesis. To further investigate the legacy of Soviet and post-Soviet narratives, qualitative approaches, such as media discourse analysis or narrative interviews, could reveal how collective memory and historical trauma shape present-day housing values and aspirations.

Conclusion

This thesis has explored the societal attitudes towards sustainable housing in Estonia, examining how these attitudes align or conflict with historical narratives, particularly from the Soviet era. The research aimed to address the reasons behind the slow adoption of sustainable housing practices.

In the literature review, the theoretical foundations were laid out, highlighting the interconnectedness of environmental and social justice in housing. The concept of well-being was examined, with a focus on housing sufficiency and the balance between meeting essential needs and avoiding excessive, luxury-oriented consumption. The influence of consumer culture on well-being and identity was also explored, highlighting how societal norms and advertising shape perceptions of the "good life" - often in ways that conflict with ecological limits.

The historical evolution of the "good life" housing narrative in Estonia provided context for understanding current perceptions and barriers to sustainable living. During the Soviet era, housing policies emphasized collectivism and social welfare but also led to a lack

of privacy and restriction of individualism. The post-independence period saw the privatization of the housing market, resulting in growing material and social inequality. The COVID-19 pandemic further transformed housing preferences, with an increased demand for larger homes and properties with outdoor spaces.

The contextual housing data demonstrated a clear trend towards the expansion of living space and the decline of public housing in post-Soviet Estonia. These developments support the thesis's central argument: that material norms, such as the ideal of a large, private home, have become culturally embedded and may conflict with ecological sustainability goals.

Empirical analysis used a multiple regression analysis based on the 1990 European Values Study, to provide a broad insight into Estonians' values and attitudes regarding the environment and life satisfaction. First, individuals who support environmental movements tend to favour a simpler and more natural lifestyle, consistent with degrowth theory and critiques of materialist values. Second, satisfaction with home life is moderately influenced by financial satisfaction, while higher income and being female were linked to slightly lower satisfaction - pointing to the complex role of material well-being and social structure in shaping housing contentment. However, a surprising result emerged in the form of a negative association between approval of ecological movements and general environmental attitudes. This may reflect a tension between activist identity and the more passive, mainstream environmental views, highlighting the need for further qualitative inquiry.

The findings of this thesis support the main propositions. Housing trends in Estonia since re-independence show a clear shift towards larger, more private homes, which increases resource use and conflicts with environmental goals. These preferences are shaped by cultural norms, partly rooted in Soviet-era experiences, where collectivism and limited autonomy created a strong post-independence desire for ownership and personal space. Barriers to accepting more sustainable housing options appear to include individualism, a liberal worldview, and low levels of concern about climate change. A surprising finding was the negative link between general environmental concern and support for ecological movements, pointing to a possible disconnect between mainstream attitudes and activist identities.

In conclusion, this thesis has provided a theoretical and empirical framework for understanding the complex interplay between historical narratives, societal values, and sustainable housing practices in Estonia. It reflects how people think about what is enough, what is fair, and what makes life good. In the context of the environmental crisis, these cultural assumptions about housing deserve renewed attention and critical reflection.

Future research could look into how different measures to encourage sustainable living actually work in practice, and how they could be adapted to fit Estonia's specific cultural context. It would also be useful to study how memories and experiences from the Soviet and post-Soviet periods still shape people's views about housing today, especially by using qualitative methods like interviews or media discourse analysis. Such research could explain why many Estonians are hesitant to adopt more sustainable lifestyles and offer more effective, culturally grounded strategies in response.

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Appendix A

EBSCO Academic Article Search Results for Topic Popularity Comparison

Keywords	Results	Search specifications
carbon emission* construction	25,646	Peer reviewed, Date: all time
greenhouse gas* construction	13,913	Peer reviewed, Date: all time
carbon emission* housing	2,483	Peer reviewed, Date: all time
greenhouse gas* housing	1,798	Peer reviewed, Date: all time

Source: data provided by the author, based on EBSCO

Appendix B

Data Description: Values and Attitudes toward Aspects of Environmentalism and the Good Life,
with Respondents' Background Info

Variable	Question in EVS	EVS Scale	Recoded Scale for this Thesis
Attitude towards a more simple and natural lifestyle in the future, dependent variable Y_{1i}	Here is a list of various changes in our way of life that might take place in the near future. Please tell me for each one, if it were to happen whether you think it would be a good thing, a bad thing, or don't you mind? -A simple and more natural lifestyle	1-3 1=good thing 2=don't mind either way 3=bad thing	1-3 1=a bad thing 2=don't mind either way 3=a good thing
Satisfaction with home life, dependent variable Y_{2i}	Overall, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your home life?	1-10 1=dissatisfied 10=satisfied	Matches EVS database
Attitude towards environmental protection, dependent variable Y_{3i}	Includes the three following questions below:	-	principal component score*
<i>Would give part of my income for the environment (4-point scale)</i>	<i>I am now going to read out some statements about the environment. For each one read out, can you tell me whether you agree strongly, agree, disagree or strongly disagree? -I would give part of my income if I were certain that the money would be used to prevent environmental pollution</i>	1-4 1=strongly agree 4=strongly disagree	1-4 1=strongly disagree 4=strongly agree
<i>Increase in taxes if used to prevent environmental pollution</i>	<i>I am now going to read out some statements about the environment. For each one read out, can you tell me whether you agree strongly, agree, disagree or strongly disagree? -I would agree to an increase in taxes if the extra money is used to prevent environmental pollution</i>	1-4 1=strongly agree 4=strongly disagree	1-4 1=strongly disagree 4=strongly agree
<i>Government should reduce environmental pollution</i>	<i>I am now going to read out some statements about the environment. For each one read out, can you tell me whether you agree strongly, agree, disagree or strongly disagree? -The Government has to reduce environmental pollution but it should not cost me any money</i>	1-4 1=strongly agree 4=strongly disagree	1-4 1=strongly disagree 4=strongly agree
Real actions for environmental protection, dependent variable Y_{4i}	Includes the two following questions below:	-	principal component score*
<i>Member: Belong to conservation, the environment,</i>	<i>Please look carefully at the following list of voluntary organisations and activities and say ... a) which, if any, do you belong to?</i>	0=not mentioned 1=mentioned	Matches EVS database

<i>ecology</i>	<i>-Conservation, the environment, ecology</i>		
Voluntary work: Unpaid work environment, conservation, ecology	Please look carefully at the following list of voluntary organisations and activities and say ... b) which, if any, are you currently doing unpaid voluntary work for? <i>-Conservation, the environment, ecology</i>	0=not mentioned 1=mentioned	Matches EVS database
Satisfaction with financial situation of household, independent variable X_{1i}	How satisfied are you with the financial situation of your household?	1-10 1=dissatisfied 10=satisfied	Matches EVS database
Approval of the ecology movement or nature protection, independent variable X_{2i}	There are a number of groups and movements looking for public support. For each of the following movements, which I read out, can you tell me whether you approve or disapprove of this movement? <i>-Ecology movement or nature protection</i>	1-4 1=strongly approve 4=strongly disapprove	1-4 1=strongly disapprove 4=strongly approve
Support for allowing more individual freedom, independent variable X_{3i}	I am going to read out some statements about the government and the economy. For each one, could you tell me how much you agree or disagree? <i>-We are more likely to have a healthy economy if the government allows more freedom for individuals to do as they wish</i>	1-5 1=agree completely 5=disagree completely	1-5 1=disagree completely 5=agree completely
Whether good pay is important in a job, independent variable X_{4i}	Here are some aspects of a job that people say are important. Please look at them and tell me which ones you personally think are important in a job? <i>-Good pay</i>	0, 1 0=not mentioned 1=mentioned	Matches EVS database
Age, control variable X_{5i}	Age of respondent	Age - 16-83 years	Matches EVS database
Sex, control variable X_{6i}	Sex of respondent	1, 2 1=man 2=woman	0, 1 0=man 1=woman
Scale of incomes, control variable X_{7i}	Here is a scale of incomes and we would like to know in what group your family is, counting all wages, salaries, pensions, and other income that comes in. Just give me the number/letter of the group your household falls into before tax and other deductions.	1-10 1=lower step 10=10th step	Matches EVS database

Notes. *The author computed principal component scores after testing the components for suitability in factor analysis. Based on the extracted components, individual PCA scores were then predicted and used in further analysis.

Y_{3i} includes EVS questions: 1) Would give part of my income for the environment 2) Increase in taxes if used to prevent environmental pollution 3) Government should reduce environmental pollution. Y_{4i} includes EVS questions: 1) Member: Belong to conservation, the environment, ecology 2) Voluntary work: Unpaid work environment, conservation, ecology.

Source: compiled by the author, based on EVS 1981-2017 Trend File Questionnaire (2022)

Appendix C

Principal Component Analysis Results

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		0.5727
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	829.48
	df	10
	Sig.	0.000

Reliability Statistics

Component	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
1	0.7818	2
2	0.6855	3

Total Variance Explained

Comp.	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %
1	1.852	0.370	0.370	1.852	0.370	0.370	1.128	0.226	0.226
2	1.648	0.330	0.700	1.648	0.330	0.700	1.071	0.214	0.440
3	0.672	0.135	0.834						
4	0.479	0.096	0.930						
5	0.349	0.070	1.000						

Rotated Component Matrix

Variable	Component	
	1	2
Would give part of my income for the environment	0.6418	-0.0056
Increase in taxes if used to prevent environmental pollution	0.6658	0.0077
Government should reduce environmental pollution	-0.5221	-0.019
Voluntary work: Unpaid work environment, conservation, ecology	0.0011	0.7314
Member: Belong to conservation, the environment, ecology	0.0073	0.7319

Appendix D

Ordered Logistic Regression Estimates for the Preliminary Model: Attitude towards a
More Simple and Natural Lifestyle in the Future

	Coefficient	Std.error	z-value	p-value
Satisfaction with financial situation of household (X ₁)	-0.027	0.043	-0.632	0.527
Approval: Ecology movement or nature protection (X ₂)	0.567***	0.134	4.220	0.000
Allow more freedom for individuals (X ₃)	-0.039	0.096	-0.409	0.683
Important in a job: good pay (X ₄)	-0.275	0.296	-0.932	0.352
Age (X ₅)	-0.008	0.008	-1.070	0.285
Sex (X ₆)	-0.432 .	0.210	-2.061	0.039
Scale of Incomes (X ₇)	0.085	0.076	1.124	0.261
Significance markers:				
	0'***'	0.001'***'	0.01'*'	0.05'.'
				0.1' '

Log likelihood -368.388

Pseudo R²: 0.0343, LR chi² (7): 26.16

Probability > chi²: 0.0005

Notes. sample size: n=778

Source: compiled by the author

Appendix E

Ordered Logistic Regression Estimates for the Preliminary Model 2: Satisfaction with Home Life

	Coefficient	Std.error	z-value	p-value
Satisfaction with financial situation of household (X ₁)	0.385***	0.031	12.510	0.000
Approval: Ecology movement or nature protection (X ₂)	-0.143	0.092	-1.563	0.118
Allow more freedom for individuals (X ₃)	0.019	0.059	0.317	0.751
Important in a job: good pay (X ₄)	0.120	0.193	0.625	0.532
Age (X ₅)	-0.008	0.005	-1.770	0.077
Sex (X ₆)	-0.304 .	0.128	-2.378	0.017
Scale of Incomes (X ₇)	-0.155*	0.050	-3.122	0.002

Significance markers:

0‘***’	0.001‘**’	0.01‘*’	0.05‘.’	0.1‘ ’
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Log likelyhood -1567.801

Pseudo R²: 0.0546, LR chi² (7): 181.14Probability > chi²: 0.0000

Notes. sample size: n=778

Source: compiled by the author

Appendix F

OLS Regression Estimates for the Preliminary Model 3: Attitudes towards
Environmental Protection

	Coefficient	Std.error	t-value	p-value
Intercept	0.421	0.282	1.491	0.136
Satisfaction with financial situation of household (X ₁)	0.043 .	0.020	2.151	0.032
Approval: Ecology movement or nature protection (X ₂)	-0.381***	0.069	-5.553	0.000
Allow more freedom for individuals (X ₃)	-0.070	0.043	-1.604	0.109
Important in a job: good pay (X ₄)	-0.129	0.140	-0.919	0.359
Age (X ₅)	0.000	0.003	-0.140	0.889
Sex (X ₆)	0.126	0.096	1.311	0.190
Scale of Incomes (X ₇)	0.062	0.036	1.728	0.084

Significance markers:

0‘****’ 0.001‘***’ 0.01‘*’ 0.05‘.’ 0.1‘ ’

Residual standard error 1.3151, with 770 degrees of freedom

Multiple coefficient of determination R²: 0.0588, adjusted R²: 0.0503

F-statistic: 6.88 with 7 and 770 degrees of freedom, p-value: 0.0000

Notes. sample size: n=778

Source: compiled by the author

Appendix G

OLS Regression Estimates for the Preliminary Model 4: Real Actions in Support of
Environmental Protection

	Coefficient	Std.error	t-value	p-value
Intercept	0.220	0.290	0.759	0.448
Satisfaction with financial situation of household (X ₁)	-0.026	0.020	-1.289	0.198
Approval: Ecology movement or nature protection (X ₂)	-0.084	0.071	-1.191	0.234
Allow more freedom for individuals (X ₃)	-0.025	0.045	-0.566	0.572
Important in a job: good pay (X ₄)	-0.102	0.145	-0.708	0.479
Age (X ₅)	-0.002	0.003	-0.476	0.634
Sex (X ₆)	-0.162	0.099	-1.642	0.101
Scale of Incomes (X ₇)	0.096*	0.037	2.614	0.009

Significance markers:

0^{****} 0.001^{***} 0.01^{**} 0.05^{*} 0.1[']

Residual standard error 1.3532, with 770 degrees of freedom

Multiple coefficient of determination R²: 0.0171, adjusted R²: 0.0082

F-statistic: 1.91 with 7 and 770 degrees of freedom, p-value: 0.0645

Notes. sample size: n=778

Source: compiled by the author

Appendix H

Model Diagnostics - Ordered Logit Models (1 and 2)

Diagnostic aspect	Verified properties	Test	Model	Outcome	Conclusion
Proportional odds assumption	Equal coefficients across thresholds	gologit2, autofit	M1	Wald chi2(3)=1.45, p=0.694	Assumption holds sufficiently; ologit retained
			M2	Wald chi2(40)=46.53, p=0.221	Minor violations; ologit retained as core variables unaffected
Multi-collinearity	No strong correlation among predictors	VIF, via OLS	M1	All VIF<10	Multicollinearity does not occur
			M2	All VIF<11	Multicollinearity does not occur
Model fit	Overall explanatory power	Pseudo R2	M1	Pseudo R ² =0.0635	Modest explanatory power, but within expected range for ordinal models
			M2	Pseudo R ² =0.0646	Modest explanatory power, but within expected range for ordinal models

Source: compiled by the author

Appendix I

Model Diagnostics: OLS Models (3 and 4)

Diagnostic aspect	Verified properties	Test	Model	Outcome	Conclusion
Heteroskedasticity	Constant distribution of residual variance	Breusch-Pagan /Cook-Weisberg	M3	chi2(1)=0.04, Prob>chi2=0.842	The variance of residuals is constant, the homoskedasticity assumption holds.
			M4	chi2(1)=240.86, Prob>chi2=0.000	Heteroskedasticity occurs
Outlier analysis	Outliers	Cook distance, Leverage	M3	-	There are some influential observations, but not very strong ones.
			M4	-	There are some strong influential observations.
Model linearity	Linearity assumption	RESET	M3	F(3, 767)=0.97, Prob>F=0.406	No problems with non-linearity; the model structure is appropriate.
			M4	F(3, 767)=1.19, p=0.311	No problems with non-linearity; the model structure is appropriate.
Normal distribution of residuals	Checking the normal distribution of residuals	Shapiro-Wilk, histogram	M3	W=0.996, p=0.067	The normality assumption holds.
			M4	W=0.334, p=0.000	The normality assumption does not hold - normal residual distribution does not occur
Unusual observations	Standardized residuals and Cook's distances	Standardised residuals, Cook distance	M3	-	Unusual observations occur
			M4	-	Unusual observations occur
Multi-collinearity	No correlation among predictors	VIF	M3	All VIF<10	Multicollinearity does not occur
			M4	All VIF<10	Multicollinearity does not occur

Source: compiled by the author

Kokkuvõte**VÄÄRTUSED, RUUM JA JÄTKUSUUTLIKKUS: KVANTITATIIVNE UURING
ELUASEMETEST EESTIS**

Kärt Kalvet

Käesolev bakalaureusetöö uurib, kuidas Eesti ühiskondlikud väärtused on seotud eluasemetrendide ja keskkonnasäästlike hoiakutega. Töö teoreetiline raamistik tugineb vajaduspõhisele heaolukäsitlusele ning analüüsib eluaseme rolli inimeste füüsiliste ja psühholoogiliste vajaduste täitmisel. Empiiriline osa põhineb European Values Study (EVS) 1990. aasta Eesti valimi andmetel, mille valimi suuruseks on 778. Uuringu eesmärk on selgitada välja, kuidas indiviidide hoiakud ja väärtused on seotud eluaseme-eelistuste, rahulolu ja keskkonnateadlikkusega.

Andmeanalüüs viiakse läbi nelja regressioonimudeli abil, uurides seoseid rahulolu majandusliku olukorraga, individuaalvabaduse väärtustamise, ökoloogiliste liikumiste toetamise ja reaalse keskkonnategevuse vahel. Tulemused näitavad, et Eesti eluasemetrendid ei vasta säästva arengu põhimõtetele. Lisaks leitakse, et rahulolu majandusliku olukorraga on positiivselt seotud koduse rahuloluga, rõhutades materiaalsete tingimuste tähtsust heaolukogemuses. Mõõdukas seos ilmneb ökoloogiliste liikumiste toetamise ja lihtsama eluviisi eelistamise vahel. See on kooskõlas tasaarengu teooriaga, mis propageerib väiksema ressursikasutusega eluviise. Samas ilmneb tulemustes ka vastuolusid: keskkonnasõbralike hoiakute ja aktiivselt keskkonnakaitstes tegutsemise vahel ilmnes vastassuunaline seos, mis viitab võimalikule lõhele väärtuste ja tegeliku käitumise vahel. Tulemused näitasid ka, et mehed on lihtsamale eluviisile mõnevõrra avatumad kui naised - see on leid, mis erineb varasemas teaduskirjanduses tehtud järeldustest. Üks võimalik seletus võib olla sooline ebavõrdsus tasustamata töö jaotuses: lihtsustatud eluviis võib tähendada rohkem nähtamatut kodutööd naistele. Mudelite madal seletusvõime viitab sellele, et eluasemega seotud hoiakuid kujundavad ka muud, käesolevast uuringust välja jäetud tegurid. See toob esile kvantitatiivse analüüsimeetodi puudused, viidates sellele, et edasises uurimistöös on vajalik kasutada ka kvalitatiivseid meetodeid.

Käesolev bakalaureusetöö pakub teoreetilist ja empiirilist raamistikku keeruliste seoste mõtestamiseks sotsiaalsete väärtuste ja eluasemetrendide vahel. Analüüsi tulemused on osaliselt kooskõlas varasema teooriaga, kuid sisaldavad ka vastanduvaid järeldusi. Teema vajab edasist uurimist, võttes täiendavalt kasutusele kvalitatiivsed uurimismeetodid. Keskkonnakriisi ja suureneva ressursitarbimise kontekstis on eluasemega seotud väärtused ja

eelistused võtmetähtsusega: nende mõistmine aitab kujundada kestlikke eluasemelahendusi, mis arvestavad nii keskkonna kui inimeste tegelike vajadustega.

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