

Lithuania

An
Economic
Profile



September 1992

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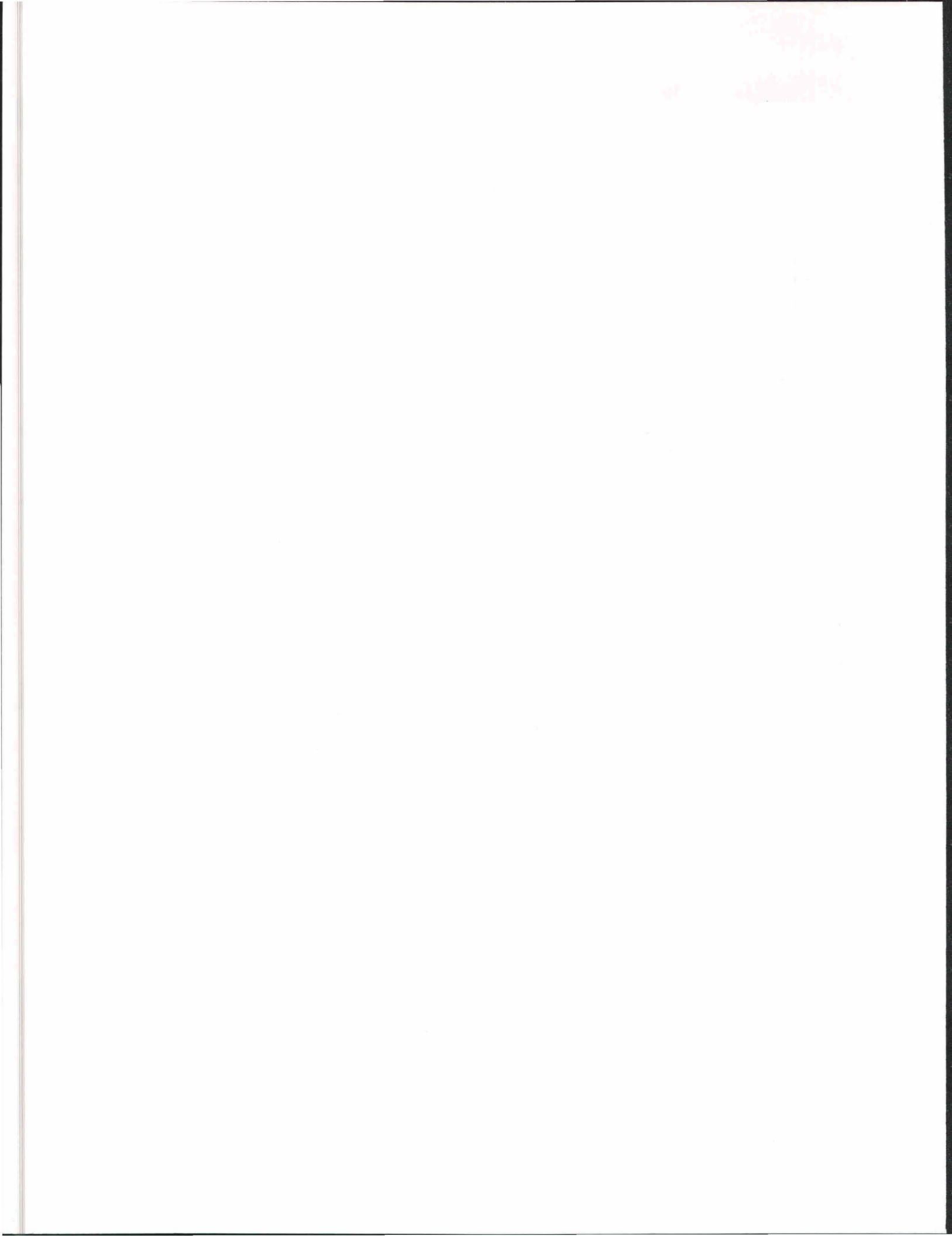
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Lithuania: An Economic Profile

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Preface

This is one of a series of profiles on the republics of the former Soviet Union that are intended to provide basic reference material as a backdrop for assessing future developments in these new states. The profile provides a description of the geography, population, and economy of Lithuania and compares its level of development, growth, and social welfare to that in Finland and Sweden.

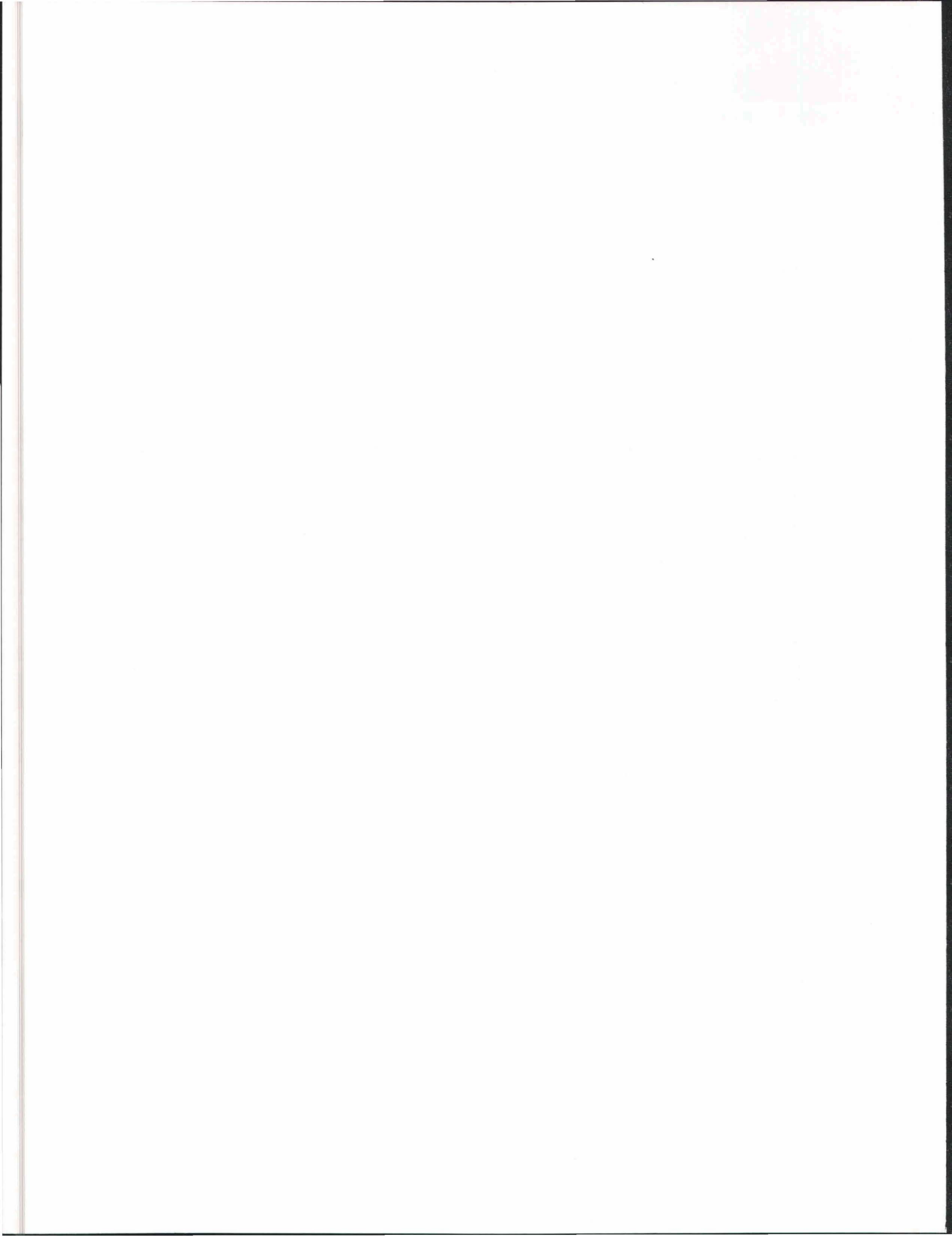
International comparisons, particularly for aggregate measures such as GNP, are difficult to make because of differences in definitions and methods used by various countries in compiling statistics. International currency exchange rates are deficient for this purpose because they do not reflect relative purchasing power of different currencies over the whole range of output of goods and services included in GNP. Because of the lack of these parities, alternative measures have been selected. These measures include primarily data for which comparable international statistics were available.

For the most part, official statistics in the public domain provided the data used in this profile. The Lithuanian statistical abstract (*National Economy of Lithuania SSR*) was the most important source of data. Extensive use was also made of *Trud v SSSR (Labor in the USSR)*, *Sotsial'noye razvitiye v SSSR (Social Development in the USSR)*, and the *Perepis' naseleniya (Population Census)*. Reference country comparisons relied on the information found in those countries' statistical abstracts and in various OECD publications covering national accounts, food production, and the like. More detailed statistics are included in the appendix.

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Lithuania: An Economic Profile

Geography and Climate

Lithuania is the largest, southernmost, and most populous of the three Baltic states. With a land area of 65.2 thousand square kilometers (about the size of West Virginia), it is just slightly larger than Latvia and ranks 11th of the 15 former Soviet republics in both size and population. Like Latvia and Estonia, Lithuania is a maritime country. But, despite its proximity to the sea, Lithuania has a functional coastal window of only 40 kilometers (of 99 kilometers of total shoreline). Within this circumscribed space, economic activity centers around the port area of Klaipeda (formerly German Memel) at the entrance to the Kursiu Marios (Gulf), a shallow lagoon of the Baltic Sea.

The Baltic region is characterized by a lowland postglacial topography that is generally quite flat. To the extent that there is elevated terrain in Lithuania, it is associated with the morainic hills in the western Zemaiciu (Zemaitian) Uplands and the eastern Baltic Ridge (which, at heights of nearly 300 meters, is the highest landform in the Baltic region). Because the land is flat, existing water resources have become important for internal transportation. Thousands of lake-filled basins and numerous swamps are drained by the Nemunas River and its tributaries, such as the Neris, the Dubysa, and the Nevezis. Lithuania's major inland cities of Kaunas, Vilnius, Siauliai, and Panevezys are connected by this dense river network, which is generally navigable. As a result, rivers carry a substantial share of Lithuania's internal shipping, although the bulk of interregional freight and passenger traffic is by rail.

Lithuania has a mixed humid maritime and moderate continental climate. The range in temperature extremes is narrow; winds are generally from the west, and precipitation peaks in the summer months. The weather is typically less variable than in the other Baltic states with fewer cloudy days and less frequent cyclonic activity. The mean annual temperature is approximately 43 degrees Fahrenheit (6 degrees Centigrade), ranging from a low of 24 degrees F



Vilnius street scene

(-4.5°C) in January to a high of 63°F (17°C) in July. Total annual precipitation, 75 percent of which is rain, varies from 21 inches (540 mm) in the Middle Lowland to 37 inches (930 mm) southwest of the Zemaiciu Upland, near the Kaliningrad border.

Historically, these precipitation and temperature patterns supported the growth of vast mixed conifer and broadleaf forests. Because of clearing, such woodlands currently occupy only 25 percent of Lithuania's territory. About two-fifths of the forested area is pine, one-fifth spruce, one-fifth birch, and the rest primarily alder and aspen trees. Most of the forested area is underlain by acidic podzols, while the meadow and farmland soils are predominantly clayey and sandy loams.



Vilnius' Old Town

History and Government

During the 14th century, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania dominated most of the region that comprised the western part of the former Soviet Union—from the Baltic coast in the north to Ukraine in the south, and from the environs of Warsaw in the west to the central Russian city of Tula in the east. By the end of the 16th century, however, the Lithuanians, then allied with the Poles, faced significant challenges to their power. Although they still maintained control over a large portion of the area between the Baltic and the Black Seas, the state of Muscovy was emerging as a threat in the east. In a relatively short period of time, Moscow's ascendancy led to the political and geographic diminution of Lithuania, which eventually became a small coastal Baltic state wedged between the Poles (allies no longer) and Germans to the south and west, the Latvians to the north, and the Byelorussians to the east.

Over the centuries, the region has undergone numerous administrative changes tied closely to the fate of Poland's partitions. The long-contested capital region

of Vilnius was taken over by Poland in 1920. Kaunas was the capital during Lithuania's period of independence between 1920 and 1939. Vilnius was returned to Lithuania following the partition of Poland in 1939. In 1940, when Lithuania became a union republic of the USSR, it annexed a narrow strip of territory with a predominantly Lithuanian population from the then Belorussian SSR. Its present territorial configuration was completed in January 1945, when it reacquired the Memelland (Klaipeda), which had been ceded to Germany in 1939. As of 1 January 1990, Lithuania was administratively divided into 44 rural districts and 11 cities, which come under direct jurisdiction of the republic. Lithuania was recognized as an independent state by the Soviet leadership on 6 September 1991 and admitted to the United Nations on 17 September 1991.

Lithuania is a parliamentary democracy, the highest organ of state power being the Supreme Council (parliament). The Council consists of 141 popularly



Parliament building

elected deputies, half of whom are elected according to the majority district system and half according to proportional party representation. The unicameral parliament passes legislation, adopts and amends the constitution, elects the supreme court and judges of city and district courts, elects a parliamentary chairman who serves as the nation's president, and appoints and can remove the prime minister. Deputies serve five-year terms of office.

The government is the highest executive power, including the prime minister, deputy prime ministers, and government ministers. The prime minister is appointed by the parliament on the recommendation of the president, while deputy prime ministers and ministers are approved on the prime minister's recommendation. The government comprises approximately nine ministries including several with an economic

focus: economic relations, agriculture, forestry, communications, and social security.

Population and Labor Force

Lithuania was the fifth least populated Soviet republic with 3.75 million people (1 January 1992). Its population is smaller than that of Finland (4.97 million) and Sweden (8.53 million). Over the past decade, Lithuania's population has grown more rapidly than that of Finland or Sweden, but all three are considered "low growth" areas. Underlying this growth is the fact that Lithuania's higher fertility level more than offsets longer life expectancy in the Nordic countries. As a result, relative to the able-bodied population in 1989, there are more children

Figure 1
Lithuania



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Table 1
Selected Demographic Statistics, Selected Years

	Lithuania		Finland ^a		Sweden ^a	
	1979	1992	1979	1990	1979	1990
Population						
Total (thousands)	3,392	3,746	4,788	4,974	8,318	8,527
Male	1,599	1,774	2,315	2,413	4,120	4,212
Female	1,792	1,972	2,473	2,561	4,198	4,315
Average annual growth rate (percent)	0.8		0.4		0.2	
Age dependency ratios (per 100 persons, ages 15 to 64) ^b						
Total	54	50	48	48	56	55
Young (0-15)	36	34	30	29	31	28
Old (over 64)	18	16	18	20	25	28
Percent urban	61	68	60	62	83	NA
Total fertility rate ^c (births per woman)	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0
Life expectancy (years)	71	72	73	76	76	77
Largest cities (thousands)	Vilnius	597	Helsinki	491	Stockholm	672
	Kaunas	434	Tampere	172	Goteborg	432

^a Although the years 1979 and 1990 are indicated, the data for Nordic countries refer to a range of different dates depending on the country and measure in question.

^b Age dependency is the percent of the population that is younger or older than the working ages (15 to 64).

^c Total fertility rate represents the number of children a woman would bear in her life if she survived to the end of the reproductive ages and was subject over this period to the regime of age-specific fertility rates observed in the given country and year.

and fewer senior citizens in Lithuania than in either of the reference countries. Women make up nearly 53 percent of Lithuania's population, a somewhat higher share than in the Nordic countries. Table 1 presents a selection of key population characteristics.

Lithuania's population lags well behind the two Nordic countries in terms of mortality and life expectancy.¹ Infant mortality, a major component of overall mortality in Lithuania, was 14.3 per 1,000 births in 1991.² Even without taking into account the understatement in the official rate, infant mortality is twice as high as rates for Sweden and Finland.

¹ Due to past Soviet statistical practices, the official figures for Lithuanian life expectancy probably understate the true magnitude of the difference in mortality levels.

² Because of definitional differences, the official Lithuanian infant mortality rate cannot be directly compared with other countries' rates. The reported infant mortality rates are understated in part because they do not reflect deaths in the first seven days after birth. Estimates for the former USSR suggest that the true rate was about twice as high as the reported rate. At present, such factors have not been estimated for individual republics.

Lithuania's population is more highly urbanized than Finland's but less urbanized than Sweden's. A greater share of the population, however, lives in Vilnius than in either of the Nordic countries' largest cities.

In 1979, ethnic Lithuanians comprised 80 percent of the population, and 9 percent were Russians. Ten years later, the Lithuanian and Russian shares remained essentially the same.³ Russian colonization began in the 18th century, but the greatest migration of ethnic Russians followed World War II.

³ Poles (7 percent), Belorussians (1.7 percent), and Ukrainians (1.2 percent) constitute the next largest ethnic groups with Jews, Tatars, Latvians, and Germans comprising the balance of the population.

The Lithuanian language, whose written alphabet uses Latin characters, belongs to the Baltic group of Indo-European languages and is one of only two surviving Baltic languages (Latvian being the other). In 1989, a law designating Lithuanian as the official state language of the republic was passed. Currently, the proportion of Russians who speak Lithuanian is nearly equal to the proportion of Lithuanians who speak Russian. The share of Russian speakers in the total population decreased from 59 to 47 percent between 1979 and 1989, while the share of Lithuanian speakers remained at roughly the 85-percent level. Literacy is near universal, and the population is considered to have an average level of education relative to the rest of the former Soviet Union. As of the 1989 census, 57 percent of the population age 15 and over had completed secondary school, up from 36 percent in 1979. The share with completed higher education rose from 7 to nearly 11 percent in the same period.

Despite the similarities in geography and climate, the distribution of the labor force in Lithuania differs substantially from those in Finland and Sweden (table 2). The differences reflect not only the lower level of economic development in Lithuania, but also the impact of Soviet development policy. Thus, nearly 30 percent of Lithuanian workers are employed in the industrial sector compared with less than one-fourth in the other countries. The share of agriculture also is relatively high. The small shares employed in trade and public dining, financial institutions, and the service sector stem largely from such development policies.

In all three countries, the size of the labor force as a percent of the total population is roughly the same (table 2). This similarity, however, is coincidental and rests on conditions in Lithuania that are not fully reproduced in either Finland or Sweden. First, previous Soviet policy relied on large annual infusions of labor as a means of stimulating economic growth. This contributed to high labor force participation rates, especially of females, relative to Finland and Sweden. In 1989, 52 percent of the state-sector work force was female. Second, Lithuania has a younger population than the reference countries with 34 percent of its population below age 15 versus 29 and 28 percent for Finland and Sweden, respectively.

Table 2
Distribution of Labor Force by Sector

	Lithuania 1991	Finland 1989	Sweden 1988
Total, national economy (thousands)	1,676.5	2,470.0	4,466.0
Total, national economy (percent share)	100.0	100.0	100.0
Industry	29.9	22.7	23.0
Agriculture and forestry	17.8 ^a	8.8	3.6
Transportation and communications	4.0	7.2	7.0
Construction	9.6	8.1	6.5
Trade and public dining	10.0	14.9	14.6
Credit and insurance	0.6	7.9	8.3
Other services and miscellaneous ^b	28.1	30.4	37.0

^a Includes collective farms and private agriculture. The share is probably understated because of undercounting labor used on private plots.

^b For Lithuania, this category includes administrative activities, health and physical culture, social security, education, culture, art, science, and small unclassified enterprises. For Finland and Sweden, it includes public administration and defense, recreational and cultural services, and branches not elsewhere classified.

Another noteworthy feature of the labor force is that Russians are disproportionately represented in the traditionally higher-paying sectors such as industry and transport, while Lithuanian presence in the lower-paying sectors such as culture, art, education, and government exceeds their population share. This pattern is repeated in most non-Russian republics of the former Soviet Union, reflecting earlier Soviet policy of dispatching skilled Russians to the republics to staff new industrial enterprises (table 3).

Structure and Performance of the Economy

Aggregate Measures. Gross National Product (GNP) accounts comparable to those of the West are not yet available for Lithuania. Preliminary estimates suggest, however, that industrial, agricultural, and construction activity probably contribute about three-fourths of total GNP compared with roughly one-third in Finland and Sweden. Trade and services

Table 3
Ethnic Lithuanians' Share in
State Sector Employment, 1987

Percent

Total	80
Sector	
Industry	71
Agriculture ^a	84
Transport and communications	67
Construction	81
Trade and public dining	79
Health and physical culture	80
Education	84
Culture and art	83
Government administration	86

^a Excludes collective farms.

make up one-fifth of Lithuanian GDP, compared to over two-thirds in the Scandinavian countries. Such a relatively backward and distorted structure of the Lithuanian economy was also reflected in the labor force distribution.

Nearly 60 percent of Lithuanian GNP is used for purchases of goods and services by consumers. This figure includes the value of health, education, and social services provided at no cost to consumers by the government. Sweden and Finland spend more on consumption (table 4). Lithuania devotes about one-third of GNP to investment as a result of the long-standing emphasis on industrial development in the former Soviet Union. The investment shares for Sweden and Finland are much lower. Lithuania devotes a much smaller share of GNP to government services than do Sweden and Finland, where public services and defense expenditures are considerably greater.

Growth rates for GNP comparable with those in the West have not yet been calculated for the former Soviet republics. Preliminary estimates for Lithuania suggest, however, that Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in Lithuania increased at less than 2.9 percent annually during 1981-88. This was clearly more than the 1.9 percent annual growth registered by Sweden but perhaps somewhat below the 3.1 percent achieved by

Table 4
Gross Domestic Product by
End Use, 1989

Percent

Consumption	
Lithuania	59
Finland	64
Sweden	69
Gross fixed investment	
Lithuania	34
Finland	28
Sweden	21
Government and other ^a	
Lithuania	7
Finland	8
Sweden	10

^a Includes government services, change in inventories, depreciation, net trade, and statistical discrepancy.

Finland. Despite the overall expansion of the economy, it appears that the productivity of labor and capital stagnated or declined in Lithuania during the 1980s compared with substantial improvement in the Nordic countries.

Industry. Lithuania lagged behind the other Baltic republics in its level of industrialization. Nevertheless, per capita industrial output during the mid-1980s was still nearly 30 percent above the level for the former Soviet Union as a whole. As in the other Baltic republics, rapid industrial growth marked the period 1950-80, followed by a noticeable slowdown. The latter, however, was not as pronounced as in Estonia and Latvia. Despite this deceleration, the average annual rate of increase of 3.5 percent in the 1980s was above those registered in Finland and Sweden:

	Average Annual Industrial Growth 1981-89 (percent)
Lithuania	3.5 ^a
Finland	3.0
Sweden	1.7

^a Estimated. The official average annual rate of growth for 1981-89 of 4.8 percent is believed to be biased upward mostly because of disguised price inflation.

Figure 2
Industrial Activity



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Table 5
Production of Selected Industrial Products

	Lithuania			Finland			Sweden		
	1985	1987	1989	1985	1987	1989	1985	1987	1989
Primary energy									
Electric power (<i>billion kWh</i>)	21	23	29	49	53	57	114	119	118
Chemicals									
Mineral fertilizers (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	747	819	632	214	1,752	1,929	1,744	NA	NA
Sulfuric acid (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	440	440	512	NA	NA	NA	170	177	NA
Forestry products									
Timber production (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	2,737	2,843	2,715	43,611	42,000	47,113	NA	NA	NA
Sawn timber (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	934	985	938	6,896	6,935	7,189	11,006	10,624	NA
Plywood (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	140	186	184	591	663	602	NA	NA	NA
Paper (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	120	120	117	4,419	4,407	4,606	3,025	3,590	NA
Construction materials									
Construction bricks (<i>million units</i>)	1,028	1,040	1,121	107	134	72	74	NA	NA
Processed foods									
Meat (indust. prod.) (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	397	420	447	321	326	321	76	83	NA
Butter (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	72	77	78	73	61	62	51	43	NA
Cheese (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	23	26	27	NA	NA	NA	125	124	NA
Confectionery goods (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	79	87	91	NA	NA	NA	43	45	NA
Macaroni (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	13	14	14	NA	NA	NA	18	18	NA
Soft goods									
Shoes (<i>million pairs</i>)	11	11	12	NA	NA	NA	4	5	NA

Notes: Finland: Sawn timber production for 1987 and 1989 includes only that from large sawmills. Paper includes printing, writing, and newsprint only. Bricks exclude refractory and acid-resistant bricks.

Sweden: Confectionery goods do not include chocolates. Paper includes printing, writing, and newsprint only.

The only significant industrial raw materials found in Lithuania are certain construction materials such as limestone, clay, gravel, and sand. Lumbering also furnishes materials for the construction industry.

As in the other Baltic states, industrial production in Lithuania is dominated by the light and food-processing industries, which accounted for over half of total output in 1991 (appendix table A-4), and 30 percent of industrial employment. Textiles and footwear are important soft goods, while meat and dairy products are the principal processed foods. Machinery branches accounted for close to one-fifth of the value of

industrial production, but employed 36 percent of the total industrial work force. Computers, motors, machine tools, and consumer durables are important machinery products. Of lesser importance are branches dependent on imported energy (chemicals) and on the country's inadequate forest resources (paper, lumber).

Primary energy production comes almost exclusively from the Ignalina nuclear power plant, which generates more than half the electricity produced in Lithuania. About half this amount is exported to Belarus, Latvia, and Kaliningrad Oblast in Russia. Electricity

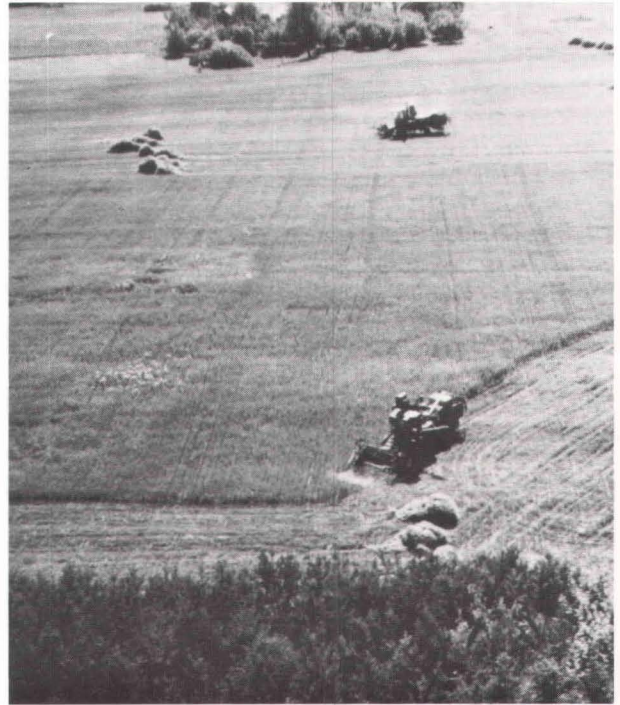
Figure 3
Major Energy Facilities



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Timber processing plant



Harvesting grain

is also generated by thermal power plants. The republic's principal thermal power plant burns oil and gas. Lithuania's Mazeikiai oil refinery processes crude oil shipped from Belarus and traditionally has supplied refined petroleum products to other Baltic countries, Belarus, and parts of Russia.

Agriculture. The collectivization of Lithuanian agriculture after World War II divided farm organizations into two sectors: the socialized sector, which consists of state and collective farms and accounts for roughly 70 percent of agricultural production, and the private sector, which consists of small plots and animal holdings and accounts for the remainder of farm output. Practically no individual peasant holdings were left. State and collective farm households were permitted to cultivate private plots of one-half to 1 acre (0.5 hectare) and maintain one or two head of livestock. In addition, nonagricultural households had, and still have, very small "garden-size" plots for cultivation. Thus, Lithuanian agriculture before independence was dominated by 1,135 collective and state farms, more than two-thirds being collective farms. In

contrast, Sweden and Finland have nearly 96,000 and 173,000 privately operated farming units, respectively, that produce all farm output.

Lithuania's collective farms were organized nominally as producers' cooperatives, and state farms were organized along the lines of state-operated industrial enterprises. The data shown in table 6 suggest the immense size of these enterprises.

As in the case of Sweden and Finland, Lithuania's poor soils and drainage, combined with a relatively short growing season, have resulted in emphasis on livestock raising. The share of livestock output in gross farm production in all three countries is in the two-thirds to three-fourths range with primary emphasis on dairy farming, hogs, and poultry.

Although not sufficient to meet the needs for feed-stuffs, much of the acreage devoted to crop production in Lithuania and the Nordic countries is used to grow

Table 6
Selected Characteristics of
Agricultural Enterprises, 1988

	Lithuania ^a	Sweden	Finland
Number of farms	1,135	95,553	172,687
Agricultural land per farm (hectares)	2,687	29	14
Cattle (per farm)	1,559	17	8
Hogs (per farm)	1,732	23	8
Poultry (per farm)	9,684	113	37
Number of workers (per farm) ^b	284 ^c	1.8	1.1

^a State and collective farms only for 1990.

^b Annual average per farm.

^c Includes forestry, hunting, and fishing.

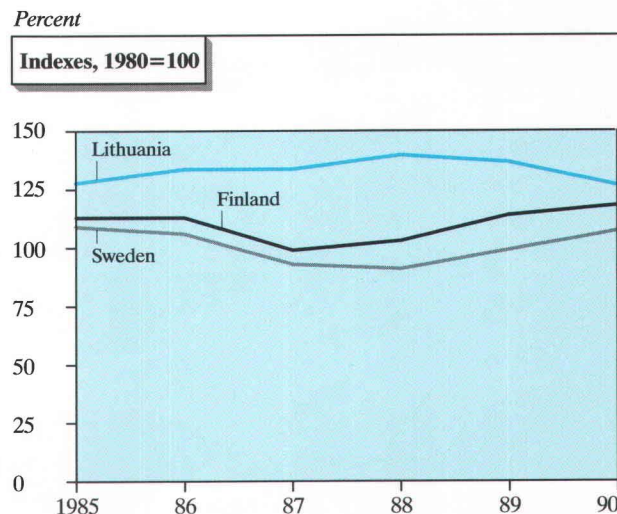
feedgrains and sown grasses in support of the livestock sector. Also, wheat and rye production falls short of the demand for breadmaking grains. As a result, all three countries are dependent on relatively large imports of grain as well as a wide array of other nonlivestock farm products.

Because of the fluctuations in growing conditions, agricultural production around the world is characterized by instability in annual output. As figure 4 shows, even in the countries bordering the Baltic Sea, where normally there is more than enough precipitation for successful growing of crops, there are relatively wide swings in output. The cool, short, and wet growing season, combined with poor soils, limit both crop and livestock production.

Overall, when production of crops and livestock products are priced in US dollars, Lithuania's output in 1988 (\$2,504 million) was 46 percent above Finland's (\$1,721 million) and 5 percent below that of Sweden's (\$2,629 million). Production of important commodities is given for a series of years in table 7.

Lithuania lags the Nordic countries in all farm productivity measures, despite the fact that all three countries are burdened with relatively unproductive podzolic soils that often require drainage and use of lime and fertilizer as soil additives. Even with the

Figure 4
Growth in Farm Output, 1985-90



usage of roughly three-fifths more mineral fertilizer per unit of cultivated land, crop yields fall far short of those in Finland and Sweden. When the yields per hectare of wheat, barley, oats, rye, and potatoes are weighted together, the Swedish and Finnish crop yield index is 106 percent and 30 percent, respectively, greater than Lithuania's (based on an average of 1988-89 harvests). There were also important differences in milk yields. Milk production per cow in Lithuania averaged 3,587 kilograms in 1990-91 compared to 6,548 kilograms in Finland and 7,011 kilograms in Sweden in 1988-89.

As indicated above, the private sector in the 1980s accounted for roughly 30 percent of the value of Lithuania's farm output. Meat accounted for 8 percent and egg production accounted for 28 percent. The limited data available indicate a moderate differential in favor of the private sector in land and livestock productivity when compared to the level achieved in collective and state farms.

Table 7 *Thousand metric tons*
Lithuania: Production of Major (except where noted)
Agricultural Products, Selected Years

	1980	1985	1988	1989	1990	1991
Meat	422	504	545	534	530	450
Milk	2,524	2,973	3,209	3,235	3,157	2,916
Eggs (<i>million</i>)	959	1,116	1,347	1,331	1,273	1,235
Wool (<i>tons</i>)	100	200	189	160	141	141
Potatoes	1,178	1,851	1,850	1,927	1,573	1,508
Vegetables	265	331	370	326	295	398
Grain	1,634	2,461	2,688	3,272	3,265	3,348

Transportation. Lithuania's transportation infrastructure was among the best in the former Soviet Union, composed of extensive road and rail networks. Similar to other former Soviet republics, Lithuania's system is primarily geared to cargo transport. Lithuania's major industrial cities (most prominently Kaunas, Vilnius, and Siauliai) are linked by rail, while smaller, less industrialized cities have road connections. The only major port, at Klaipeda, is currently linked only by a rail line to the Mazeikiai oil refinery, which in turn is linked to a heavy crude oil pipeline from Belarus. One of Lithuania's development priorities is the construction of an oil import/export terminal at Klaipeda and a pipeline link to Mazeikiai.

In some respects, Lithuania's transport network compares favorably with Finland and Sweden. It has far more paved roads and railroads, per unit of area, than either of the Nordic countries (table 8). However, in terms of domestic passenger miles, Lithuanians travel much less than Finns and Swedes, in part because of Lithuania's scarcity of automobiles (table 9).

Freight traffic in Lithuania declined in recent years (table 10) for a variety of reasons. Foremost is the economic stagnation and decline in the former Soviet Union and reduced trade with Eastern Europe. In addition to demand-induced contraction, there are physical problems affecting ability to supply the services. Recent declines in truck production have forced shippers to extend equipment service lives even further beyond design specifications than has been the

Table 8 *Kilometers*
Land Transport Networks, 1991

	Lithuania	Finland	Sweden
All roads	44,500	76,272	133,673
Paved roads	35,800	34,005	107,856
Unpaved roads	8,700	42,267	25,817
All rail	3,033	5,890	11,491

Table 9 *Billion passenger-kilometers*
Passenger Transport by Mode

	Lithuania 1991	Finland 1989	Sweden 1989
Total	13.7	59.6	108.6
Auto	NA	45.8	86.8
Bus	6.5	8.5	9.0
Rail	3.2	3.5	8.2
Air	2.4	0.9	3.3
River	NEGL	0.1	0.2
Motorcycles, mopeds	NA	0.8	1.1
Passenger-kilometer per capita (in km)	3,604	11,981	12,736

Table 10 *Million ton-kilometers*
**Freight Traffic in Lithuania
 by Mode, Selected Years**

	1985	1988	1989	1990	1991
Total	28,476	30,854	30,051	26,775	24,023
Rail	20,927	22,595	21,749	19,258	17,748
Trucking	7,369	8,074	8,113	7,336	7,019
River	157	164	170	164	141
Air	23	20	19	17	15

Table 11
Structure of Industrial Investments,
by Branch

Percent share

	Lithuania ^a 1991	Finland 1989	Sweden 1989
Electric power	12.5	20.0	19.3
Fuels	2.5	1.3	2.1
Chemicals and petrochemicals	3.3	10.4	8.3
Machinery	23.7	14.4	31.3
Wood, paper, and pulp	5.1	38.8	23.2
Construction materials	12.5	3.3	2.9
Soft goods	13.5	1.2	1.3
Processed foods	7.6	5.7	6.8
Other	19.3	4.9	4.8

^a Investment patterns changed significantly in 1991. In earlier years, both the machinery and the food-processing branches had received much larger shares of investment than they did in 1991.

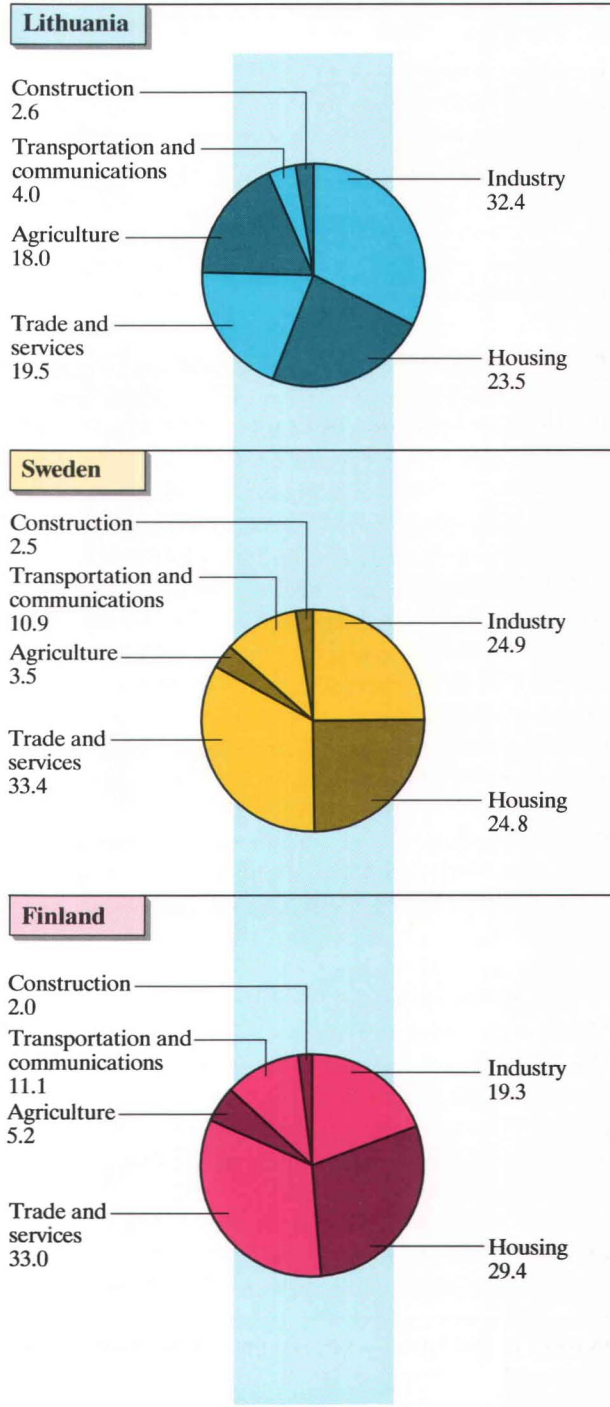
practice in the past. These older trucks are frequently idled because of excessive use and a scarcity of spare parts. The situation in rail transport is similar, with many cars remaining in service for at least 20 years.

Investment. Investment increased rapidly in Lithuania in the 1980s as it did in Finland and Sweden. As shown in figure 5, however, there are major differences in the patterns of investment between Lithuania and the two Nordic countries. Consumer-oriented investment in 1989 in housing and services accounted for nearly two-thirds of overall investment in Finland and nearly 60 percent in Sweden, compared with only 43 percent of the total in Lithuania. In contrast, the latter devoted one-half its investment to the industrial and agricultural sectors, roughly double the shares in the Nordic countries. When farm machinery and rural infrastructure are included, Lithuanian collective and state farms absorbed one-fourth of total investments. In Finland, agriculture, together with forestry and fishing, accounted for just over 5 percent of all investment.

There are sharp differences in industrial investment by branch (table 11). Two sectors receiving priority treatment were machinery and consumer goods. More than one-fifth of industrial investments were focused on the soft goods and processed food branches as opposed to less than one-tenth in the two Nordic

Figure 5
Comparative Investment Allocations
by Sector, 1989

Percent



countries. With access to hard currency, Finns and Swedes chose to import processed foods and soft goods from relatively low-cost foreign producers and to concentrate new industrial plant and equipment where they had a comparative advantage.

Forest products is another area where there are important differences. Both the Finns and the Swedes devote a far higher percentage share of their investment outlays to this sector than do the Lithuanians. This reflects, in part, a relatively larger resource base in Sweden and Finland with one-half and three-fifths, respectively, of the land area covered by forest compared to less than one-fourth in Lithuania.

Economic Reform

The Lithuanian Government is committed to completing the transition from central planning to a market economy and has taken many steps to accomplish its goal. Before independence, Lithuania had adopted reform legislation on property ownership, peasant farms, privatization, land reform, and banking. Like the other Baltic republics, Lithuania began to decontrol prices in 1991 and has now freed most of them. Agricultural procurement prices are completely free, subject to a minimum support level, although, in practice, state monopoly producers in the food-processing industry may force some procurement prices down. The tax system has been revamped to include a value-added tax and a uniform corporate and individual income tax structure. An independent central bank was created in 1991. Lithuania intends to introduce its own currency, the litas, as quickly as feasible.

Privatization. Lithuania has adopted a wide range of legislation designed to foster a large private sector in the economy and is actively engaged in trying to implement the programs. Although the goal is to privatize some two-thirds of state property by the end of 1992, this target is not likely to be met.

Like all former Soviet republics, state and quasi-state property ownership is overwhelmingly predominant in Lithuania. According to recently published official data, the state and cooperative sectors employed 85 percent of the labor force—70 percent in state enterprises and 15 percent in collective farms and consumer

cooperatives. The rest of the workers were employed in "private enterprises," over half in joint-stock companies and joint ventures.

Privatization is being accomplished through sales as well as gratis investment accounts allocated to all Lithuanian citizens; these accounts have been partly indexed for inflation. The program also involves restitution to former owners of property nationalized at the time of the Soviet annexation. In the nonagricultural sector, the most progress has been made in housing, where some 60 percent of eligible housing had been sold by the end of June 1992. Although sale of small establishments has also been fairly successful, transformation of large companies into joint-stock companies and the like has been slow. In agriculture, Lithuania intends to restore private farming based on legislation to promote peasant farms and to transform state and collective farms into smaller units with various forms of nonstate ownership. In May 1992 there were 32,100 registered peasant farms in Lithuania, as compared with 7,600 in September 1991. Fairly rapid progress apparently also is being made in dismantling old state and collective farms and in reducing their size.

Inflation and Unemployment. During the Soviet period, the only measures of inflation available for Lithuania were official retail price indexes, which significantly understated actual price rises. These statistics show that, from 1986 to 1989, state store retail prices increased less than 3 percent annually. In 1990, when the government freed some prices, the increase was 6.5 percent. By Western standards both Finland and Sweden had fairly rapid inflation rates during the 1980s. Finland had an average annual rate of inflation of 7.2 percent; Sweden, 7.9 percent. The nearly complete liberalization of prices in Lithuania during 1991 and in early 1992 resulted in another burst of inflation. According to official statistics, retail prices rose 225 percent in 1991, and from January to May 1992 consumer prices increased by over 200 percent.

While Lithuania was part of the Soviet Union, unemployment was not officially acknowledged. The new Lithuanian Government has begun to publish data on

this once taboo subject. According to official statistics, only 9,600 persons were unemployed at the end of 1991, two-thirds of them women. The unemployment rate was a mere 0.6 percent. During the 1980s, the Swedish unemployment rate varied between 1.4 and 3.5 percent. In Finland, the rate was somewhat higher, ranging from 3.5 to 5.4 percent. All three countries have labor placement offices and provide unemployment benefits, Lithuania's program having been established in 1991. Under that program, most unemployed workers receive about 60 percent of their previous wages for up to six months.

Foreign Economic Relations

Foreign trade is a major outlet for Lithuanian production and a key source of raw materials and basic necessities. The country's small size, relatively poor natural endowments, and the effects of longstanding Soviet industrial policies are the main sources of this trade dependency.

Lithuania traditionally has imported nearly 30 percent of goods consumed in the economy. Nearly four-fifths of these imports in domestic prices have come from former Soviet republics. Russia, which supplied 61 percent of Lithuanian imports in 1990, is Lithuania's largest trading partner.

Lithuania has been a net importer of heavy industry goods and raw materials such as oil and gas, ferrous and nonferrous metals, chemicals and petrochemicals, and machinery. In 1990 machinery accounted for one-third of imports. Among the largest categories of machinery imports were electronic goods, automobiles, and agricultural machinery. Lithuania is also a net importer of construction materials, timber products, and grain. In 1988, Lithuania imported nearly one-quarter of its consumer goods including raw material for cotton textiles, clothing, vegetable oil, and sugar.

Lithuania has exported over one-fifth of its production, and over nine-tenths of exports have gone to former Soviet republics (appendix table A-7) with Russia receiving about half of Lithuania's exports. In 1990, consumer goods accounted for over 40 percent of exports. Soft goods, especially clothing and wool textiles, led the list. Lithuania has also been a net

Table 12
Energy Production, Consumption,
and Imports, 1991

	Billion kWh	Thousand Barrels Per Day of Oil Equivalent
Primary energy production		
Electric power	17	80
Consumption		
Total (<i>percent shares</i>)	100	319
Oil	64	
Gas	26	
Coal	4	
Other ^a	6	
Net Imports ^b		239

^a Primary electricity, shale oil, peat.

^b Net imports are calculated by subtracting production from consumption.

exporter of household appliances, furniture, hosiery, and knitwear. Other net exports were electricity, electrotechnical equipment, machine tools, precision instruments, radioelectronic equipment, lumber equipment, and paper and pulp.

Lithuania is dependent on outside sources for about 75 percent of its energy needs. Although it is a net exporter of electricity (equivalent to 42 percent of domestic production), about half its electricity is generated in thermal power plants fueled by imported natural gas. The arrival of a natural gas pipeline in 1961 led not only to gas replacing imported coal and domestically produced peat as leading fuels, but also to the development of fertilizer and petrochemicals industries based on the new feedstock. Table 12 shows Lithuania's sources and uses of energy.

Lithuania was the first former Soviet republic to pass its own law on foreign investment and is actively seeking foreign partners to assist it in modernizing its industries and infrastructure. Because its laws are still fairly restrictive, Lithuania has made slower progress

in attracting foreign investment than the other Baltic republics. As of mid-1992 there were about 100 joint ventures in operation in Lithuania, as compared with only 18 two years earlier. The Nordic countries are the Western partners in most cases.

Living Standards and Social Indicators

The level of living of the Lithuanian population, although below that of the other Baltic republics, was well above that of all other former Soviet republics. A variety of indicators show, however, that it was far below that of the Nordic countries.

Personal Income. Lithuanians obtain the bulk of their income from wages and salaries. In 1991, average wages were highest in construction and industry and lowest in health, education, and culture. Data available for 1990, before rapid inflation set in, show that 5.7 percent of the population in Lithuania had incomes below 100 rubles a month, the semiofficial poverty line. At the same time, 13.8 percent of the population had income over 300 rubles per month:

<i>Per capita monthly income^a</i>	
Average Monthly Income (rubles)	Share of Population (percent)
Less than 75	1.2
75.1 to 100.0	4.5
100.1 to 150.0	20.9
150.1 to 200.0	25.8
200.1 to 250.0	20.5
250.1 to 300.0	13.3
More than 300.0	13.8

^a Includes pensioners

Although comparative statistics on income distribution are difficult to obtain, data available suggest that incomes have been distributed more equally in Lithuania than in relatively egalitarian Sweden and much more equally than in Finland.

In 1991, Lithuanian families spent somewhat over three-fifths of their after-tax incomes on food and beverages and clothing. Conversely, less than one-twelfth went to purchase services. Even with the inclusion of the underground economy, the service

sector has been extremely small by Western standards and has been the subject of endless complaints about quality and availability.

Food Consumption. The Lithuanian population is relatively well fed by international standards. The caloric content of the average daily diet in the 1980s in Lithuania, Finland, and Sweden exceeded both US and internationally recommended dietary allowances. Per capita food intake in the former republic came to 3,400 calories (1988-90 average), as compared with 2,805 calories for Finns and 3,454 calories for Swedes (1986-88 average). In Lithuania, the share of calories from starchy staples (potatoes and grain products)—a rough indicator of dietary quality—was above the level of the developed West, while Finland and Sweden were below it. All three countries relied heavily on livestock products and vegetable oils as a source of calorie intake, but Lithuania's share of 48 percent was 3 percentage points below Finland and 9 percentage points above Sweden. Common forces operate to produce the similarity in diet. Cold winters and short growing seasons limit the variety and quantity of vegetables and fruits. High incomes induce consumers to substitute livestock products, vegetable oils, fats, and other "quality" foods for the "inferior" starchy staples.

Inventories of Selected Consumer Durables. Lithuania, along with the other Baltic republics, was better off than the rest of the Soviet republics in terms of ownership of consumer durables. At the end of 1989, for example, Lithuania had 118 cars per 1,000 population, more than double the All-Union average. Lithuanians were also better off in terms of possession of home telephones. Nonetheless, Finland and Sweden, as would be expected, have much higher ownership rates of such items, and the higher quality of their durables results in greater reliability, enhanced operating life, and fewer repairs. Telecommunications equipment is a prime example. The basic technology incorporated in the Lithuanian telephone network, as well as in the networks of the other former republics, is primitive and unreliable by Western standards. Its modernization is high on the priority list of the

fledgling Baltic country for which it is seeking Western aid:

Holdings per 1,000 population, 1989

	Lithuania	Finland ^a	Sweden ^a
Durable goods			
Telephones	172	590	890
Automobiles	118	320	380

^a 1984.

Housing. As of the late 1980s, the provision of housing in Lithuania was well below that in the two Nordic countries. In terms of general living space per capita, the average Lithuanian was provided with 19.1 square meters, 16.8 square meters in urban areas, and 24.0 square meters in rural areas. By way of contrast, the average Finn had 30.5 square meters. In 1991, some three-fourths of all Lithuanian urban housing was owned by the State, and the remainder was held privately or by housing cooperatives. Just the reverse was true in rural areas, with over 70 percent being held privately. In terms of the quality of housing amenities, Lithuanian standards are below the levels of the two Nordic countries:

Percent share of housing equipped with amenities^a

Utility	Lithuania (1989)	Finland (1988)	Sweden (1985)
Running water	75	95	97 ^b
Hot water	62	89	NA
Central heating	74	88	99
Flush toilets	70	92	98
Bathing facilities	64	87	96

^a End of year shown. Figures for Lithuania do not include rural private housing, much of which probably lacks most amenities.

^b Figure is for 1970, the last date reported.

Rents on state-owned apartments are low and heavily subsidized. Since rents have covered only about one-fifth of current maintenance costs, much housing is in poor repair. Despite the low rents, housing conditions are the subject of much complaint. In 1989, only 14

percent of Lithuanian families (as compared to 13 percent for the former Soviet Union as a whole) who were on waiting lists for better housing were able to move into better accommodations. Such shortages have been chronic and persistent despite a sizable program to build new housing in the 1980s.

Pensions, Health, and Welfare. As in all former Soviet republics, the Lithuanians are covered by a state-provided system of "cradle-to-grave" social security that did not require direct contributions from the population. Lithuania has yet to adopt new legislation and essentially is operating under the rules of the old system. Old age, survivor, and disability pensions are provided. Both the nominal value of Lithuanian pensions and the extent of the population covered increased during the 1980s. During that decade, the aging of the population pushed up the number of pensioners by roughly 29 percent, while monetary value more than doubled. A consistent program was implemented to bring the pensions paid to collective farmers in line with those of state workers. In 1991, to compensate pensioners for rising retail prices, the government increased pensions, and the average monthly value rose by 500 percent over that in 1990.

Old-age pensioners, the most numerous group, received in 1990 average pensions about 40 percent of the average monthly wage, and the incidence of poverty among them was high. As a result of the sharp increase in pensions in 1991, however, the average pension rose to over 90 percent of the average monthly wage of state workers and collective farmers.

As in Lithuania, the populations of Finland and Sweden are covered by comprehensive social welfare programs. Although comparisons on such complex matters are tenuous, it appears that the Nordic countries' social safety nets are more inclusive and protective than their Lithuanian counterpart. Thus, nearly 100 percent of the eligible population receives old-age pensions in Finland and Sweden, but Lithuania's net extended to about 90 percent of the eligible

Table 13
Social Indicators in Lithuania
and the Nordic Countries, 1989

	Lithuania	Finland	Sweden
Consumption measures			
Per capita living space, 1989 (<i>square meters per capita</i>)	19.1	30.5	NA
Entertainment expenditures, 1989 (<i>rubles, workers, and employees</i>)	19.1	NA	NA
Doctors, 1989 (<i>of all specialties per 100,000 persons</i>)	461.0	238.0	281.0
Option indicators			
Access to day care, 1989 (<i>preschools per 1,000 children of preschool age</i>)	54.0	NA	NA
Savings, 1989 (<i>average deposit per person, rubles</i>)	2,496.0	NA	NA
Vacation time, 1989 (<i>days per year in industry</i>)	19.9	NA	NA
Risk indicators			
Labor lost due to illness, 1989 (<i>days per year in industry</i>)	12.5	NA	NA
Per capita expenses on labor safety, 1987 (<i>rubles</i>)	48.5	NA	NA
Percent below poverty line, 1989 (<i>disposable income below 100 rubles</i>)	9.4	NA	NA
Labor discipline			
Strikes, 1989 (<i>worktime lost in thousand workdays per 1,000 state-sector employees</i>)	1.0	21.5	91.8
Alcoholism and drug abuse			
Alcoholism, 1989 (<i>cases per 100,000 persons</i>)	191.0	NA	NA
Drug abuse, 1989 (<i>cases per 100,000 persons</i>)	3.1	NA	NA
Alcohol-related deaths, 1989 (<i>deaths per 100,000 persons</i>)	11.0	NA	NA
Crime rates			
All crimes, 1989 (<i>per 100,000 persons age 15 to 67 or 69</i>)	1,208.4	10,255.0	17,444.0
Murder	8.6	4.0	2.6
Assault	376.8	571.0	689.0
Rape	5.8	11.6	25.4
Robbery	4.5	60.2	90.5
Theft	49.1	4,856.0	11,874.0
Fraud	5.7	1,740.0	1,614.0
Suicide			
Totals, 1990 (<i>per 100,000 persons</i>)	25.9	26.7	17.3
Family structure and divorce			
Divorce rate, 1989 (<i>per 1,000 persons</i>)	3.3	NA	8.1

population in 1989. Both Finnish and Swedish programs are fully indexed to the cost of living and hence protect the pensioner against the worst ravages of inflation.

As with pensions, Lithuania's health care system cannot be readily compared to those found in Finland and Sweden. Institutional differences are vast: Lithuania follows the formally centralized Soviet model

where there was little role for family doctors and private health insurance. Moreover, medical training and support facilities do not meet Western quality standards. For these reasons it is less ambiguous to compare outcomes rather than inputs. The life expectancy of Lithuanians was lower than in the two Nordic countries—72 years for both sexes (1989) as

compared with 76 in Finland (1990) and 77 in Sweden (1990). Although infant mortality was lower in Lithuania than in most of the republics of the former Soviet Union, it was still far greater than in the Nordic countries. For all other age groups, the main causes of death in Lithuania (as well as in Finland and Sweden) were cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Accidental death was also one of the leading causes of death in Lithuania.

Other Social Indicators. Table 13 displays a collection of social indicators describing aspects of Lithuanian society not covered in other sections of the profile. This is not meant to be an exhaustive index of social conditions, but is intended to pinpoint areas where tensions exist or could develop. Strikes in the workplace have become increasingly common in the former Soviet republics. As of 1989, this aspect of labor discipline in Lithuania was much lower than in either Finland or Sweden, as only one workday per thousand state-sector workers was reported lost due to strikes. The suicide rate in Lithuania was roughly the same as in Finland, but higher than in Sweden by 50 percent. In contrast, the divorce rate in Sweden was over twice as high as in Lithuania.

Another indicator of social malaise is crime. The data show that the overall level of crime in Lithuania is much less than that in the two Nordic countries and is correspondingly less in most of the subclasses of crime. However, the murder rate, the crime indicator that is most reliable across time and geographic space, tells a different story. In this category, Lithuania's rate is much higher than in Finland or Sweden. On the other hand, if assault and rape are considered, then conditions in the Nordic countries are much worse.

Appendix A

Selected Tables and Charts

Table A-1
Lithuania: Population Structure, 1989

	Thousand Persons	Percent
Total	3,674.9	100.0
Lithuanians	2,924.3	79.6
Russians	344.5	9.4
Poles	258.0	7.0
Byelorussians	63.2	1.7
Ukrainians	44.8	1.2
Jews	12.3	0.3
Tatars	5.1	0.1
Latvians	4.2	0.1
Other	18.5	0.6

Table A-2 *Per 1,000 persons*
**Lithuania: Births, Deaths, and Natural Growth
of the Population, Selected Years**

	1970	1980	1983	1988	1990	1991
Births	17.6	15.1	16.3	15.4	15.1	15.0
Deaths	8.9	10.5	10.3	10.2	10.6	10.9
Natural growth	8.7	4.6	6.0	5.2	4.5	4.1

Table A-3
Lithuania: Average Monthly Wages for Wage and Salary Workers by Branch of the Economy, Selected Years

Rubles

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
All branches	190.0	194.7	204.1	222.6	244.1	283.4	737.0
Industry	208.5	213.6	222.2	242.4	262.8	303.1	860.4
Agriculture	187.1	194.3	201.9	216.2	243.7	275.1	570.9
State farms	189.7	197.9	205.9	214.0	243.0	277.6	544.5
Forestry	144.8	150.4	153.4	170.3	178.0	187.2	577.1
Transportation	209.7	215.6	227.6	246.2	263.2	303.5	703.6
Railroad	185.8	197.3	218.3	233.0	245.6	297.5	710.5
Water	209.3	215.6	221.4	260.9	269.7	301.7	691.0
Urban, electrical	224.0	223.4	227.5	252.5	296.1	352.8	907.0
Communications	149.5	155.0	167.3	188.4	205.6	237.4	636.9
Construction	246.2	252.5	270.2	299.6	331.7	393.2	845.3
Trade and public dining ^a	151.1	153.9	158.2	174.7	203.8	261.2	640.2
Information-processing services	165.6	173.3	180.4	200.1	243.4	302.8	643.2
Housing-communal economy	160.5	163.6	168.6	184.7	198.5	234.9	621.7
Health, physical, and social services	135.3	136.3	142.8	149.7	163.1	186.2	644.0
Education	155.2	160.7	171.0	173.5	174.7	184.9	625.2
Culture	125.0	125.3	129.9	128.4	151.1	175.9	617.8
Art	169.1	172.7	181.4	175.1	198.3	245.9	562.7
Science	193.4	198.4	210.1	244.3	298.1	332.9	631.2
Credit and social insurance	182.8	190.9	200.7	214.4	249.2	399.7	1,053.8
Government administrative services	176.7	183.8	194.4	207.6	270.5	310.4	842.8

^a Includes material-technical supply and sale, and procurement.

Table A-4
Lithuania: The Structure of Gross Industrial Output, Selected Years

Percent

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991 ^a
Total industry	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Electric power	3.0	2.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.6	3.1
Fuels	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.2	3.6
Chemicals and petrochemicals	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.0
Machinery	23.2	23.9	23.9	24.5	25.7	26.6	18.3
Wood, pulp, and paper	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.2	5.8
Construction materials	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.2
Soft goods	22.1	21.7	21.4	21.0	20.8	21.9	21.3
Processed foods	29.4	28.8	27.9	27.1	26.1	25.2	35.6
Other branches	2.9	3.3	3.6	4.3	4.7	4.8	4.1

^a The marked changes in 1991 seem to be mainly the result of relative changes in prices. There were no such drastic changes in the distribution of employment.

Table A-5
Lithuania: Capital Investment, by Sector of the Economy,
Selected Years

Percent share

	1981-85	1986-90	1990	1991
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Industry	27.6	29.0	27.2	32.2
Agriculture	26.9	25.2	22.8	18.0
Forestry	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Transportation	3.6	4.7	4.4	1.6
Communication	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.4
Construction	5.2	3.8	3.7	2.6
Trade and public dining and other ^a	2.7	2.5	3.0	2.1
Procurement	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.1
Housing	18.3	18.7	21.3	23.5
Social sector ^b	13.3	13.8	15.4	17.3

^a Includes material-technical supply and sale.

^b Includes communal economy, science, culture, art, education, health, and information processing.

Table A-6
Lithuania: Production of Selected Industrial Products,
Selected Years

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Primary energy							
Electric power (<i>billion kWh</i>)	21.0	22.4	22.8	26.0	29.2	28.4	29.4
Machinery							
Alternating current electric engines with a 63- to 450-mm pivot height (<i>1,000 units</i>)	444.0	483.0	474.0	475.0	441.0	415.0	331.0
Small electric engines (<i>1,000 units</i>)	5,777.0	6,209.0	6,477.0	6,978.0	7,218.0	7,471.0	7,772.0
Electric welding equipment (<i>1,000 units</i>)	71.8	71.6	71.6	74.9	76.9	77.9	75.3
Machines for livestock and feed production (<i>million rubles</i>)	72.9	69.9	73.5	74.4	72.4	64.4	NA
Chemicals							
Mineral fertilizers (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	747.0	796.0	819.0	791.0	632.0	483.0	469.0
Chemical fibers and knitwear (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	13.8	14.4	14.3	14.4	14.4	11.3	6.1
Sulfuric acid (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	440.0	441.0	440.0	430.0	512.0	412.0	368.0
Linoleum (<i>1,000 sq m</i>)	1,102.0	1,121.0	1,122.0	1,266.0	1,624.0	1,400.0	1,291.0
Forestry products							
Timber production (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	2,737.0	2,772.0	2,843.0	2,854.0	2,715.0	2,565.0	2,566.0
Sawn timber (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	934.0	987.0	985.0	1,006.0	938.0	776.0	664.0
Plywood (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	140.3	169.4	186.0	184.3	183.8	176.3	163.9
Paper (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	120.3	120.2	119.6	122.9	117.2	100.7	101.2
Cardboard (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	145.2	145.5	146.2	146.1	138.9	116.9	113.3
Construction materials							
Prefabricated reinforced concrete (<i>1,000 cu m</i>)	2,296.0	2,278.0	2,467.0	2,567.0	2,627.0	2,433.0	2,128.0
Construction bricks (<i>million units</i>)	1,028.0	1,018.0	1,040.0	1,101.0	1,121.0	1,100.0	1,087.0
Window glass (<i>1,000 sq m</i>)	4,021.0	4,043.0	3,245.0	4,093.0	4,172.0	3,300.0	4,044.0
Processed foods							
Meat (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	396.9	410.3	419.7	433.3	447.0	431.5	338.3
Butter (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	71.8	75.0	77.1	77.9	77.5	73.9	67.2
Whole milk ^a (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	730.0	747.0	790.0	794.0	814.0	831.0	714.0
Cheese (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	22.6	25.4	25.7	26.1	26.7	26.3	24.5
Confectionery goods (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	79.2	84.5	87.1	89.9	91.4	75.1	64.8
Macaroni products (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	13.3	13.2	13.6	13.3	13.5	13.3	12.9
Granulated sugar (<i>1,000 metric tons</i>)	221.8	237.8	238.9	239.4	238.6	158.6	150.5
Canned goods (<i>million cans</i>)	326.5	342.5	373.2	405.1	423.4	369.0	369.5

Table A-6 (continued)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Soft goods							
Cotton fabrics (<i>million sq m</i>)	121.3	122.9	127.4	116.9	97.9	98.5	106.1
Wool fabrics (<i>million sq m</i>)	21.7	21.6	21.9	22.4	22.7	21.7	21.5
Linen fabrics (<i>million sq m</i>)	28.5	29.2	29.6	30.3	30.9	28.1	27.1
Silk fabrics (<i>million sq m</i>)	40.5	41.0	41.9	42.3	51.6	40.0	34.5
Stocking-hosiery goods (<i>million pairs</i>)	99.3	99.8	101.6	102.5	105.0	82.2	81.2
Knitted goods (<i>million units</i>)	61.3	61.9	61.2	61.6	62.2	58.8	NA
Shoes, all types (<i>million pairs</i>)	10.7	10.9	10.9	11.4	11.9	11.9	11.2
Sewn goods (<i>million rubles</i>)	367.7	377.1	355.1	374.6	416.0	418.3	NA
Other consumer goods							
Televisions (<i>1,000 units</i>)	609.5	632.0	657.6	655.0	614.7	558.2	516.2
Refrigerators (<i>1,000 units</i>)	310.3	320.1	335.0	345.0	350.2	263.4	264.6
Furniture (<i>million rubles</i>)	180.9	190.8	199.9	209.8	218.8	222.8	NA

^a Milk production does not include private farm production.

Table A-7
Lithuania: Trade in Domestic Prices, 1990

Million rubles

	<u>Total Foreign Trade</u>		<u>Interrepublic Trade</u>		<u>International Trade</u>	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Total	5,763.5	7,638.5	5,349.4	6,022.3	414.1	1,616.2
Industry	5,456.2	7,114.3	5,048.5	5,615.9	407.7	1,498.4
Electric power	199.8	98.8	199.8	98.8	0.0	0.0
Oil and gas	305.3	880.0	232.6	879.1	72.7	0.9
Ferrous metals	22.5	319.7	21.2	306.1	1.3	13.6
Nonferrous metals	7.0	159.0	6.8	157.5	0.2	1.5
Chemicals and petrochemicals	386.0	880.6	370.2	735.4	15.8	145.2
Machinery	2,006.9	2,567.8	1,832.4	2,069.2	174.5	498.6
Forestry products	184.8	195.7	152.1	183.0	32.7	12.7
Construction materials	71.3	126.9	65.8	112.8	5.5	14.1
Soft goods	1,425.9	1,156.3	1,394.3	664.0	31.6	492.3
Processed foods	787.5	554.2	720.3	270.3	67.2	283.9
Other industries	59.2	175.3	53.0	139.7	6.2	35.6
Agriculture	211.3	235.2	205.3	117.9	6.0	117.3
Other	96.0	289.0	95.6	288.5	0.4	0.5

Table A-8
Lithuania: Trade in Foreign Trade Prices, 1990

Million rubles

	<u>Total Foreign Trade</u>		<u>Interrepublic Trade</u>		<u>International Trade</u>	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Total	4,551.2	8,070.7	4,154.5	7,168.6	396.7	902.1
Industry	4,367.4	7,638.4	3,972.1	6,787.4	395.3	851.0
Electric power	299.7	148.2	299.7	148.2	0.0	0.0
Oil and gas	679.3	2,360.4	518.0	2,359.4	161.3	1.0
Ferrous metals	21.1	375.0	19.4	357.3	1.7	17.7
Nonferrous metals	11.7	264.3	11.4	263.2	0.3	1.1
Chemicals and petrochemicals	310.1	720.7	297.7	610.6	12.4	110.1
Machinery	1,980.4	2,817.8	1,833.4	2,417.2	147.0	400.6
Forestry products	139.7	143.0	119.9	135.1	19.8	7.9
Construction materials	67.8	113.1	63.1	104.8	4.7	8.3
Soft goods	445.6	310.7	431.9	188.8	13.7	121.9
Processed foods	370.8	274.8	341.3	103.2	29.5	171.6
Other industries	41.2	110.4	36.3	99.6	4.9	10.8
Agriculture	75.4	103.7	74.4	53.0	1.0	50.7
Other	108.4	328.6	108.0	328.2	0.4	0.4

