National authorities (judicial authorities, law enforcement bodies and administrations) are key actors in giving concrete effect to the rights and freedoms enshrined in the Charter.”

The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union is the EU’s bill of human rights. It contains 50 articles with substantive rights and principles, followed by four articles with general provisions. Member States have a duty to respect the rights and observe the principles of the Charter whenever they are acting within the scope of binding EU law. Where the Charter provisions are sufficiently precise and unconditional, they can have a direct effect at the national level – for instance in national courtrooms. Charter provisions that are ‘principles’ can only be invoked before a court if implemented by legislative or executive acts.

Member States have an explicit duty to promote the Charter’s application. This country-sheet supports that effort by giving examples of the Charter’s use and highlighting how it adds value.

★ Given that EU law is predominantly implemented at national level, national judges, parliamentarians, government officials and legal practitioners are core ‘Charter agents’ on whom the EU system relies.
★ The EU Charter of Fundamental Rights primarily addresses the EU itself. It binds EU Member States “only when they are implementing Union law” (Article 51 of the Charter). However, a significant part of national law- and policymaking is directly or indirectly influenced by EU law. Wherever a legislative file, a judicial case or factual situation falls within the scope of binding EU law, the EU Charter applies and can be used by and invoked before national authorities.
★ It is not always easy to draw the borders of the Charter’s field of application. The question of whether the Charter applies is central to the proper implementation of EU law. FRA’s handbook on Applying the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union in law and policymaking at national level provides some guidance on this issue.
The Estonian constitution

The Constitution of the Republic of Estonia
★ It was adopted on 28 June 1992 and entered into force on 3 July 1992.
★ It has 15 chapters and 168 articles. The most recent amendment to the constitution was adopted in 2015.
★ Chapter II of the constitution (Articles 8-55) contains a non-exhaustive list of rights, including some socio-economic rights.
★ The list of fundamental rights is open to additional rights that follow the principles of human dignity and a social and democratic state founded on the rule of law.

The constitution, the EU Charter and the ECHR
★ Estonia is a monist country and the Estonian legal system is open to human rights deriving from international law. Thus, the main source for additional rights are the international human rights treaties. There is no explicit reference to the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights or to the European Convention on Human Rights.
★ Article 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Estonia Amendment Act of 2004 states that the Constitution is applied without prejudice to the rights and obligations arising from the Accession Treaty.

How is the Charter used in Estonia?

All EU Member States apply the EU Charter – but not always to its full potential. The Charter is sometimes referred to in the context of upcoming legislation or debates in parliaments. National authorities and courts also sometimes refer to the Charter in their decisions and rulings. Examples from Estonia include:

★ National courts: right not to be tried or punished twice in criminal proceedings for the same criminal offence (Article 50)
In 2017, the Supreme Court (ECLI:EE:RK:2017:1.17.4924.22131) referred to Article 50 in a case in which a defendant claimed to have been tried for the same offence in Estonia and Finland. The case concerned an extended arrest of assets and the non bis in idem principle.

★ National courts: right to vote and to stand as a candidate at elections to the European Parliament (Article 39)
In 2015, the Supreme Court dealt with a case (3-3-1-49-15) in which a man sentenced to life imprisonment had applied to be registered as a voter for the European Parliament elections in spring 2015, but was denied registration. He filed a complaint and the appellate court, the Tallinn Circuit Court, had held that – based on Article 39 of the Charter – a comprehensive prohibition on participation in elections to the European Parliament for persons who have been convicted of a crime and are serving a sentence of imprisonment is contrary to EU law. This finding was, however, not upheld by the Supreme Court, which found that EU law does not regulate the right to vote of convicted criminals.

★ National legislation: reference to the Charter in the context of child protection
The Charter is a legally binding document. It includes civil and political rights as well as economic, social and cultural rights. Moreover, it benefits from the strength of EU law, which often has direct effect and, in principle and unlike international law, must be granted supremacy over national law. However, in many contexts it may not be possible to directly invoke the Charter – for instance, because the respective Charter provision is a principle and not a right and was not implemented by a legislative or executive act; or is otherwise not directly applicable; or does not apply at all because the case at hand falls outside the scope of EU law. In any case, the Charter increases the visibility of rights. It explicitly spells out rights and principles that are often not expressly laid out in other international human rights documents, such as the ECHR (as shown in Figure 1). Unlike the Council of Europe’s European Social Charter, the EU Charter does not offer the possibility to be bound only by selected provisions; Member States are bound by all of its provisions.

Figure 1: What rights are covered? Comparing the Charter and the ECHR
Charter articles and text of the ECHR: differences and equivalence in coverage

Note: The figure is based on the Explanations on the Charter and a textual comparison of the two documents in order to show how the Charter increases the visibility of entitlements (some of the rights not explicitly contained in the ECHR are covered by the case law, which however is less visible to a non-expert).
Source: FRA, 2018
Given the breadth of rights explicitly covered by the Charter, it can help to increase the visibility of rights at national level. Moreover, national courts do sometimes use the Charter to interpret or further develop national law, even outside the scope of EU law.

When comparing the Charter with the constitutions of EU Member States, it becomes evident that the text of the Charter is often more explicit about certain rights. For example, in Estonia, some Charter rights appear not to be fully mirrored in national constitutional law – for instance, the right to asylum (Article 18), protection in the event of unjustified dismissal (Article 30), access to services of general economic interest (Article 36) and consumer protection (Article 38).

The absence of certain rights from a constitutional text by no means implies that they are not protected by the legal order. However, explicit guarantees in a constitutional text make these rights more visible and so also more accessible. In this sense, the Charter can strengthen less well-known rights.

Figure 2: Does the Charter add to the visibility of rights? Comparing the Charter and national constitutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rights</th>
<th>Number of EU Member States that do not have equivalent/explicit provisions for this Article in their constitutional texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Art. 1-5 Dignity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art. 6-19 Freedoms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art. 20-26 Equality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art. 27-38 Solidarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art. 39-46 Citizen’s rights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art. 47-50 Justice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The figure is based on a textual comparison of the Charter and written constitutional law of the EU Member States (excluding the United Kingdom) in order to show under which provisions the Charter is most likely to increase the visibility of entitlements. EU-specific entitlements (the Charter provisions that are in Figure 1 marked in pale yellow) were considered as reflected in national constitutions if a comparable provision could be identified (for instance a constitutional provision concerning a national Ombudsperson).

Source: FRA, 2018
The EU Charter of Fundamental Rights: a young instrument

★ A European Convention drafted the Charter. The Convention was composed of 15 representatives of the then 15 EU Member States, 46 parliamentarians (16 members of the European Parliament and 30 members of national parliaments), and one European Commission representative. The Convention also consulted civil society.
★ The European Parliament, the European Commission and the Council of the EU solemnly proclaimed the Charter in December 2000.
★ With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty on 1 December 2009, the Charter became legally binding. It is a relatively new legal instrument that is increasingly used at national level.

Further information

★ The EU Charter, available on EUR-Lex.
★ The Explanations relating to the Charter of fundamental rights, by the Presidium of the European Convention.
★ Charterpedia – a FRA webspace bringing together Charter-related information, including national case law.
★ EU Charter app – a FRA app to access EU Charter rights anytime, anywhere, as well as national and CJEU case law using the Charter.
★ FRA’s annual Fundamental Rights Report contains a specific chapter dedicated to the use of the Charter at national level.
★ European Commission, Annual reports on the application of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights.