INSTAT
Republic of Albania
Institute of Statistics

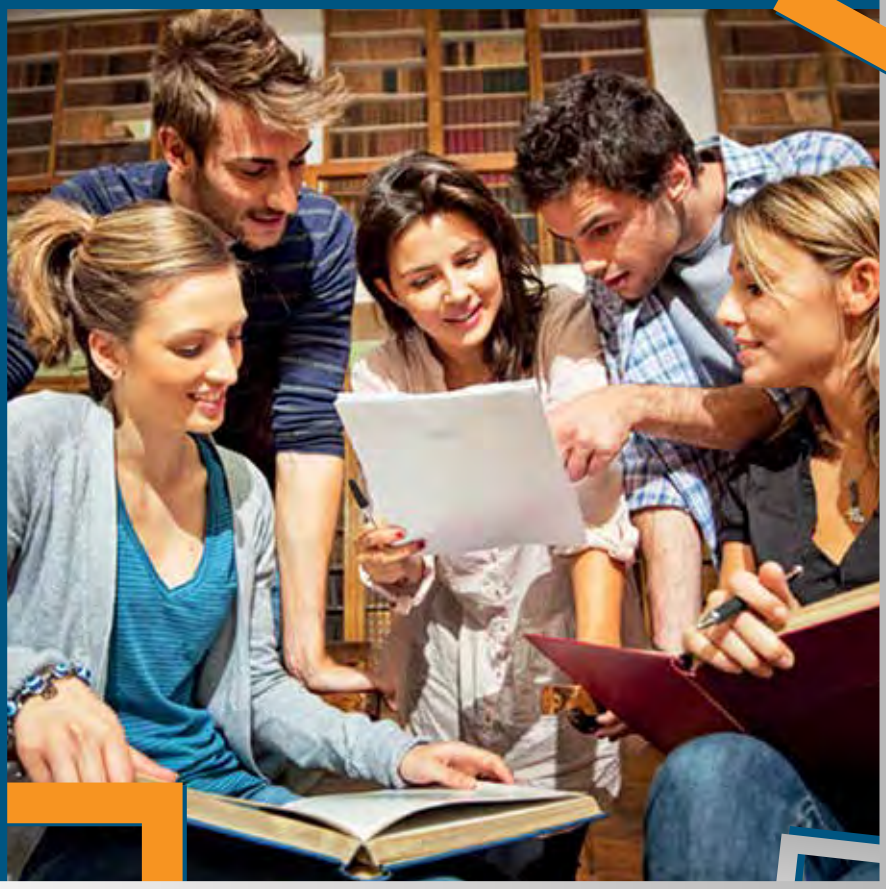
Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
Confederaziun svizra

Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation SDC

UNFPA

YOUTH IN ALBANIA

CHALLENGES IN CHANGING TIMES



INSTAT
Republic of Albania
Institute of Statistics

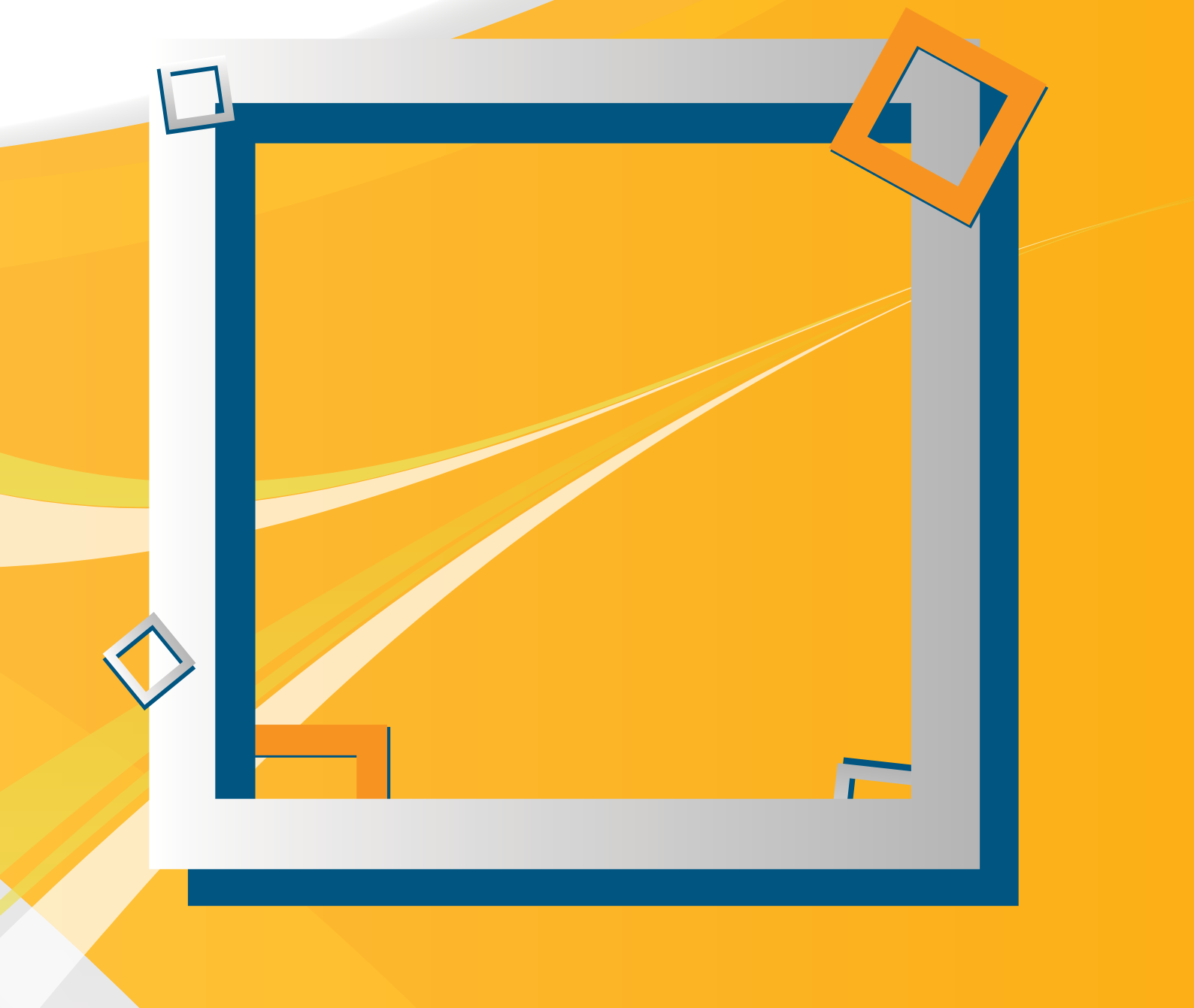
Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
Confederaziun svizra

Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation SDC

UNFPA

YOUTH IN ALBANIA

CHALLENGES IN CHANGING TIMES



YOUTH IN ALBANIA: CHALLENGES IN CHANGING TIMES

November 2015

Director of the Publication:

Gjergji Filipi, PhD

Authors:

Bart de Bruijn
Gjergji Filipi, PhD
Majlinda Nesturi, INSTAT
Emira Galanxhi, INSTAT

Supported by:

Olgeta Dhono
Alma Kondi
Pranvera Elezi

Disclamer:

This publication has been supported by UNFPA in Albania and National Center for Social Studies (NCSS) and funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC).

ISBN: 978-9928-188-32-8

INSTAT
Republic of Albania
Institute of Statistics

INSTITUTE OF STATISTICS
Bul. "Zhan D'Ark", Nr. 3, Tirana, Albania
Tel: +(355) 4 2222411 / +(355) 4 2233356
Fax: +(355) 4 2228300
E-mail: info@instat.gov.al
Web: www.instat.gov.al

Layout by: Eyes advertising

Printed by: Gent•grafik

PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENT

INSTAT, in close cooperation with UNFPA, initiated a process of deep analysis based on Population and Housing Census 2011 results comparing them with other administrative data sources and indicators coming from different surveys. Following this process, an in-depth analysis has been conducted analysing how young people face challenges in changing times.

"Youth in Albania: Challenges in changing times" will serve to have a clearer appreciation of life of young people aged 15 to 29 years old. This life stage marks a period of critical experiences and events, including completion of education, transition from school to the labour market, marriage and family formation, sexuality, etc. Behaviour and decisions involved in these experiences and events often pose challenges to young people, socially, economically and emotionally. At the same time, making such life choices places youth in the position of key agents for social change.

This analysis joins the previous series of deep analysis that INSTAT carried out in cooperation with other donors. INSTAT avails itself of this opportunity to express its gratitude and acknowledgement for the valuable contribution of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), National Center for Social Studies (NCSS), INSTAT experts and other local and international experts for this publication.

Gjergji Filipi, PhD

Director General of INSTAT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

ADHS	Albania Demographic and Health Survey
COPD	Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease
CPR	Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
CYP	Couple-Years of Protection
EPP	Employment Promotion Program
IPH	Institute of Public Health
IUD	Intra-Uterine Device
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LMIS	Logistic Management Information System
LSMS	Living Standards Measurement Survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NCD	Non-Communicable Diseases
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NES	National Employment Service
NSI	National Statistical Institute
PHC	Population and Housing Census
SDT	Second Demographic Transition
SMAM	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
WHO	World Health Organization

1 INTRODUCTION

The present report aims at an assessment of the living situation of Albanian youth, covering the population in the age range 15 to 29 years old. This life stage marks a period of critical experiences and events, including sexuality, completion of education, the transition from school to the labour market and that into marriage and family formation. Behaviour and decisions involved in these experiences and events often pose challenges to young people, socially, economically and emotionally. At the same time, making such life choices places youth in the position of key agents of social change.

Living conditions relate to many different facets of life. This reports analytically separates these facets into different thematic chapters, but tries to highlight their relations where relevant. In order to put the present living conditions of youth in a broader perspective, frequently indicators for youth are compared with those for the older adult population in Albania, with those for youth in other countries in the region or in the European Union and with those from previous periods.

The 2011 Population and Housing Census provided the backbone of the analysis. Where possible and relevant, the census 2011 results are compared with results of previous censuses, especially the 2001 census. Administrative data from the civil register and the Ministry of Education, as well as data from different surveys supplemented and gave more depth to the census information. In particular, results from the 2013 Survey on Return Migration and Re-integration, the Albania Demographic and Health Survey 2008-09 and the Living Standards Measurement Survey 2012. In addition, information was obtained from the Institute of Public Health, as well as from various reports and scientific publications. For various topics, however, accurate and up-to-date information is scarce. This is especially felt in the area of health, and more specifically reproductive health, which is of particular importance for youth.

Chapter 2 on population and demography set the general stage on which young people in Albania perform. Chapter 3 on migration is closely linked to population change and the important contribution of youth in this change. Chapters 4 (living arrangements) and 5 (living conditions) deal with the social and material life context of youth, whereas chapters 6 – on education – and 7 – on employment over two connected key areas of life development of youth. Chapter 8 addresses youth health and specifically focuses on reproductive health as one of the main youth policy areas. Chapter 9 recaptures the main report findings in a concluding summary.

2 YOUTH DEMOGRAPHY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Albanian society experienced fundamental societal changes in the last few decades, including a modernising economy, individualisation, a rising symmetry in gender roles and more flexible life course organisations. These transformations had effect on demographic processes of fertility, mortality and migration and resulted in major changes in the size and composition of the population. Such changes were recorded in the 2011 Population and Housing Census, showing a large population decline of 8.8 percent since the previous census in 2001 and of as much as 12.0 percent since the 1989 census. Equally noticeable was the change in composition by sex towards a feminisation of the population, and particularly that by age strongly towards dejuvination. The momentum of many of these processes is expected to have a continuing impact in the reshaping of Albania's population, as INSTAT's population projections suggest.

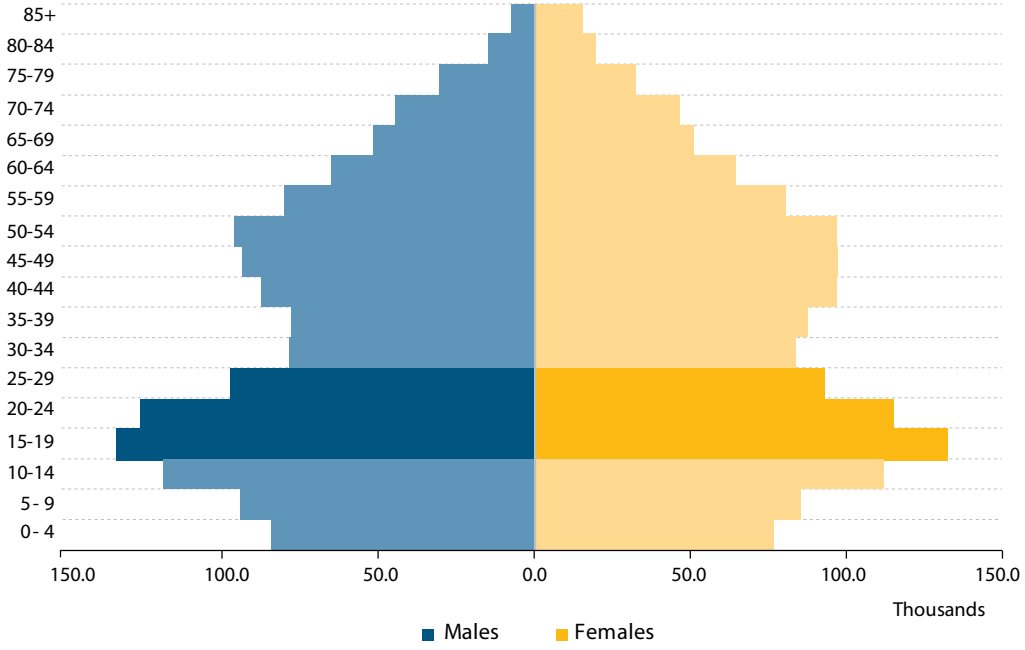
This chapter provides a general overview of population change in Albania and its underlying demographic dynamics. Thereby, it keeps a focus on the specific position of youth in the causes and consequences of this change. Section 2.2 starts with the snapshot of the population as provided by the 2011 Population and Housing Census and section 2.3 places this snapshot in the broader context of population change, both past and future. Section 2.4 zooms in on the changes in the demographic profile of youth, and the last section elaborates the specific dynamics of fertility and life expectancy of youth.

2.2 THE POPULATION STRUCTURE IN 2011

The 2011 Population and Housing Census recorded 2.8 million residents in Albania, with an about equal number of males (50.1 percent) and females (49.9 percent). The number of youth aged 15-29 amounted to 704 thousand, representing just over one quarter (25.2 percent) of the total population. With around 363 thousand men and boys aged 15-29 against around 342 thousand women and girls in the youth age group, males are with 51.5 percent a little more represented among youth than among the total population. The largest overrepresentation of males is among 20-24 year olds (52.6 percent against 47.4 percent females).

The adult population 30-64 years of age represented 42.8 percent of the population, while elderly 65 and over and children under 15 made up the smaller population segments with 11.3 and 20.7 percent respectively. *Figure 2.1* presents the population composition by sex and five-year age groups, with the youth age groups indicated in dark colours. The figure shows that the youth age groups of 15-19 and 20-24 are presently the largest cohorts in the population.

Figure 2.1: Population by age and sex (in thousands)



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

With this age composition, the Albanian population is among the youngest in Europe. In the EU-28, people under age 15 made up only 15.6 percent of the total population, but the elderly represented 18.5 percent (Eurostat 2015b; data refer to 1 January 2014). The mean age of Albania's population was 35.2 years in 2011 and its median age[1] was 32.6 years, contrasting with an EU-28 median of 42.2 years in 2014. None of the EU-28 countries are below Albania's median age, and also neighbouring countries like Montenegro and Macedonia have higher ages. Regionally, only Kosovo has a lower median age.

The Albanian population is among the youngest in Europe

The total dependency ratio[2] indicates the level of support given to younger and/or older persons by the working-age population. The age composition as recorded in the 2011 census implies that for every 100 persons in the economically most productive of ages 15 to 64, there are 47 persons in the dependent ages of 0-14 and 65 and over. This total dependency ratio of 47 percent can be broken down into the young-age dependency ratio[3] of 30 percent and an old-age dependency ratio[4] of 17 percent, whereas in the EU-28 the young-age dependency ratio is smaller than the old-age dependency ratio.

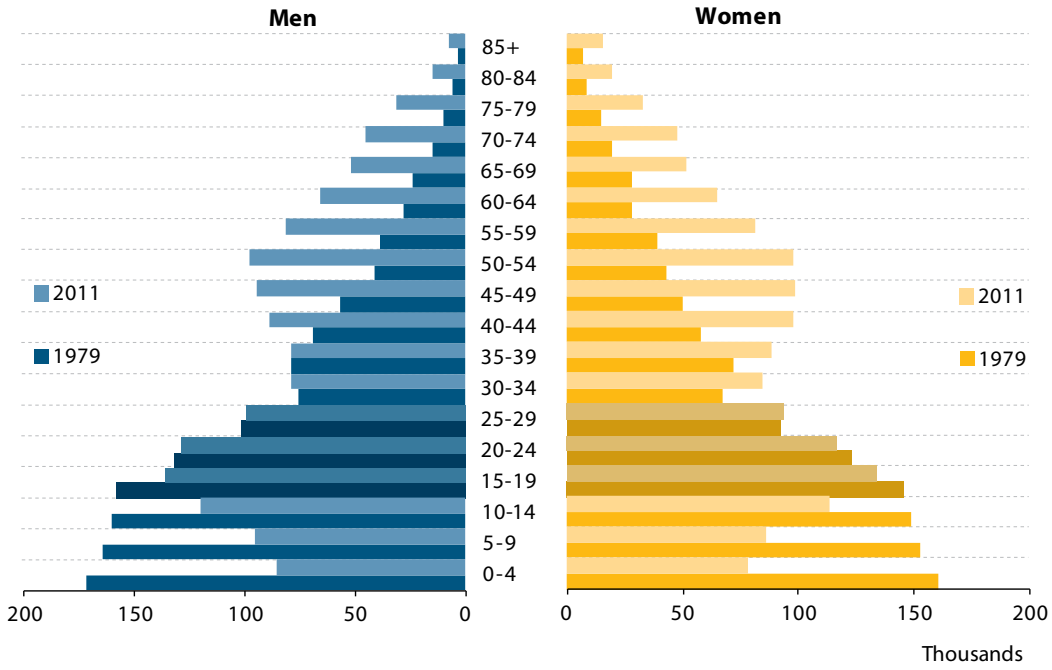
2.3 POPULATION CHANGE

The population decline from 3.1 million people in 2001 to 2.8 million people in the 2011 census implied a reduction of 8.8 percent in the last inter-census period. This is a reinforcement of the process that was recorded for the previous inter-census period 1989-2001 in which the population declined by 3.5 percent. The two main demographic processes of fertility reduction and large-scale emigration that caused this population decline, together with increasing life expectancy, also had a major impact on the age composition of Albania's population. In *Figure 2.2* this major impact is visualised by comparing the population structure of 1979 with that of 2011. In 1979 the largest population cohorts

1 The median age is the age that divides the population in two numerically equal halves.
2 The total dependency ratio is the ratio of the population aged 0-14 and 65 and over to the population aged 15-64, expressed as a percentage.
3 The young-age dependency ratio is the ratio of the population aged 0-14 to the population aged 15-64, expressed as a percentage.
4 The old-age dependency ratio is the ratio of the population aged 65 and over to the population aged 15-64, expressed as a percentage.

were the 0-24 years old, those born after 1955. By 2011, these same age groups have aged 30 years and moved into the age groups of 30-54 years old. However, due to large-scale emigration in the two decades before the census, these cohorts were heavily depleted, which is especially well visible for the 25-34 year olds. Whereas the youth population aged 15-29 is numerically similar in 1979 and 2011, the number of children under 15 was far larger in 1979 than in 2011. On the other hand, for each of the older age groups above the youth ages, the numbers have increased very much compared to 1979, especially from age 40 upward.

Figure 2.2: Population in 1979 and 2011, by age, and by sex (in thousands)



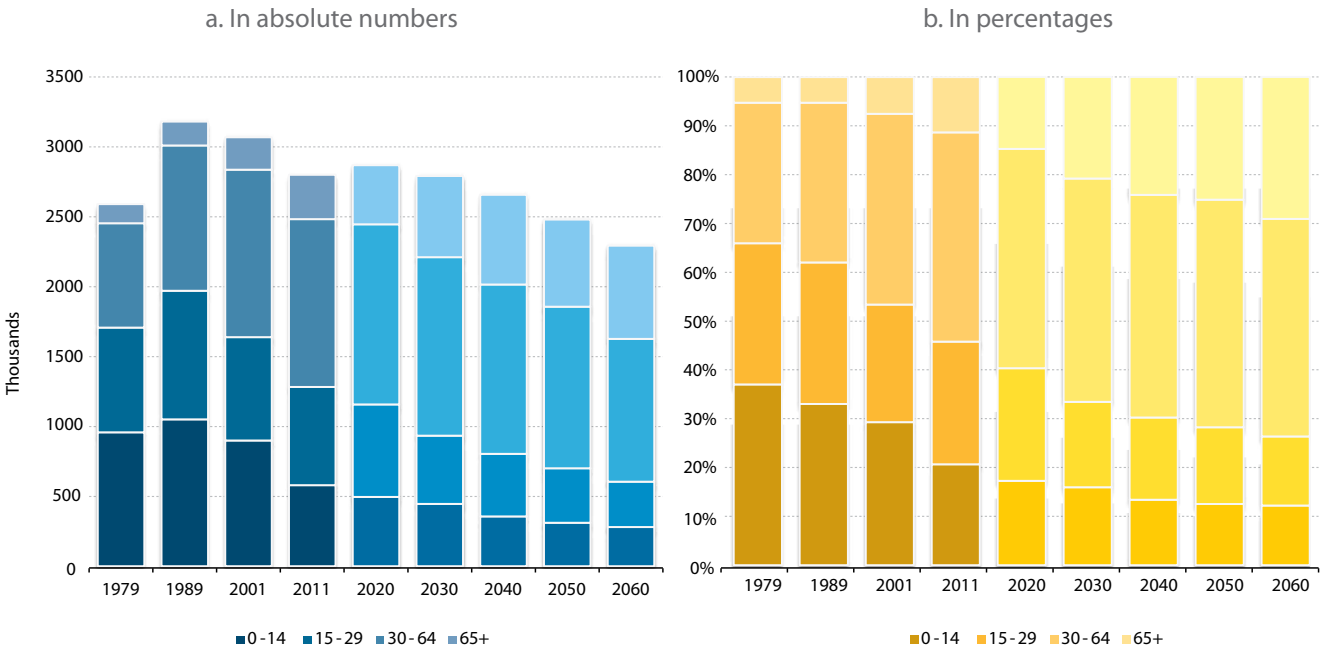
Sources: 1979 and 2011 Population and Housing Censuses

Figure 2.3 places the development of the age structure in a longer-term and more detailed perspective, by providing the results of the last four censuses (1979 to 2011) and the expected composition, based on INSTAT's population projections (INSTAT 2014d; indicated in light colours). The most noticeable changes in terms of absolute numbers (panel a) is the strong reduction of the number of children under 15, from 960 thousand in 1979 to 579 thousand in 2011 after a high in 1989 (1,051 thousand). At the same time, in an overall decreasing population, a sharp increase is observed in the number of elderly people of 65 years and over, from 136 to 318 thousand. The total working-age population has remained fairly stable since the 1989 census at just above 1.9 million people, but the older share of 30-64 year-olds has become larger than the youth population 15-29: 1.2 against 0.7 million, whereas in 1979 their absolute numbers were about the same (close to 750 thousand).

In relative terms (*Figure 2.3, panel b*), the profile of Albania's population has changed even more significantly, showing the ageing of the population over the past few decades. In 1979 children under 15 were the most prominent group (37 percent), but their share was reduced to only 21 percent in 2011. On the other hand, the share of elderly population more than doubled in the same period, from 5 percent to 11 percent. The shares of youth and older working-age population imitate the same ageing effects, but to a lesser degree: the 30-64 year-olds gaining in prominence (from 29 to 43 percent) and youth slightly loosing (from 29 to 25 percent).

INSTAT calculations project a continuation of these trends in the decades to come. The share of children will further decline (to 17 percent in 2020, half the share of 1989) and that of elderly will triple to 15 percent compared to 1989. The working-age population will remain stable, but the internal balance will further shift from the youth ages 15-29 to the older 30-64 age segment.

Figure 2.3: Population composition, by main age group, census and projected data



Sources: Population and Housing Censuses and population projection data 2011-2031 (INSTAT 2014d)

INSTAT POPULATION PROJECTIONS 2011-2031

Population projections give a picture of what the future population may look like based on a set of assumptions for fertility, mortality and migration.

Population projections are produced by INSTAT, based on the cohort component method. Three different scenarios of population trends inform on the extent of uncertainty. Compared to previous projections rounds of INSTAT, this third round uses a slightly different methodology to better forecast emigration and is geographically more disaggregated as results are provided for each prefecture of Albania.

The projection presented in this section relate to what is referred as 'Medium Scenario', which is considered the most likely scenario of the three scenarios.

With the change in the shares of different age groups, the Albanian population has entered a period with a favourable ratio between the persons in the economically productive ages and those in the dependent ages. Whereas in 1979, there were 73 persons in the less-productive young and old ages per 100 in the more productive ages, in 2011 this figure was only 47. With this low dependency ratio of 47 percent, Albania is situated in the middle of a window of economic opportunity that roughly extends to the early 2020s (see *Table 2.1*). Whether or not the country takes full advantage of this episode of 'demographic dividend' – with a large potentially economically productive population relative to a small number of young and old people – depends on the extent to which effective policies are implemented to adequately prepare its labour force for the labour market and whether appropriate economic and social policies are in place to provide these people with productive jobs (e.g. Bloom, Canning and Sevilla 2003). This is especially relevant for youth who need relevant education and experience and adequate jobs when they enter the labour market. On the other hand, the shift in balance from young (0-15) to old (65 and over) people within the dependent population, also means that policies need to focus increasingly on the elderly who need to be supported by the working-age population. In about ten years time, the old-age dependency ratio surpasses the young-age dependency ratio. *Figure 2.4* shows the expected trends of both ratios for the 20-year projection horizon beyond the 2011 census, indicating a slight decrease in the young-age dependency ratio and a doubling of the old-age dependency ratio.

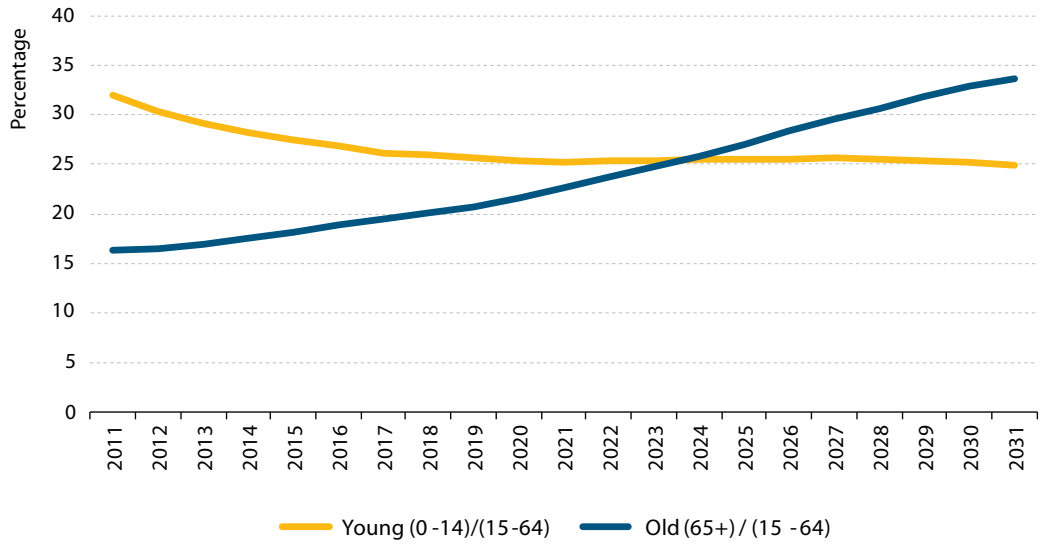
In 2001 children under 15 were four times as numerous as the elderly 65 and over.
In 2024 the elderly will outnumber the children.

Table 2.1: Dependency ratios, by census and projection year (in percentage)

Year	Total dependency ratio	Young-age dependency ratio	Old-age dependency ratio
1979	73	64	9
1989	62	54	9
2001	58	46	12
2011	47	30	17
2020	46	26	20
2030	55	25	30
2040	55	21	34
2050	56	20	36
2060	67	21	46

Sources: Population and Housing Censuses and Population Projection 2011-2060 (INSTAT 2014d)

Figure 2.4: Projection of young- and old-age dependency ratios, 2011-2031



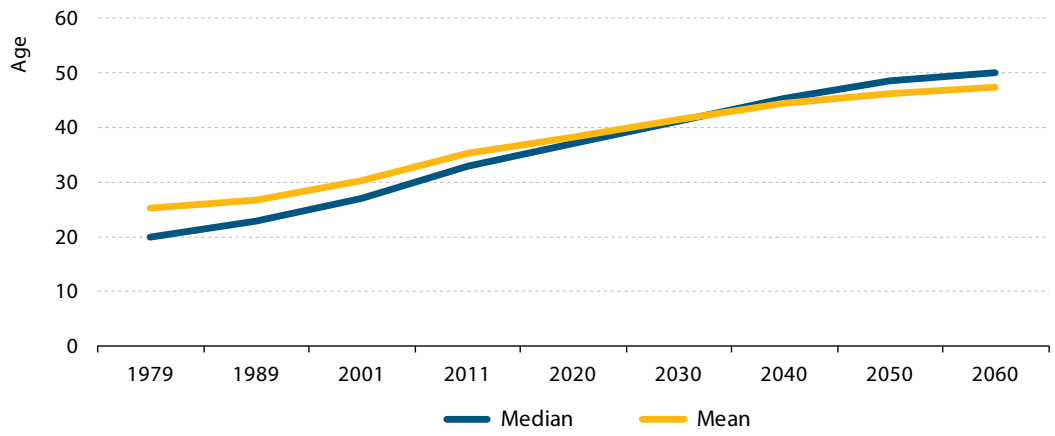
Source: Population projections 2011-2031 (INSTAT 2014d)

Policy implications not only stem from the shifts in relative sizes of different age groups. Also changes in absolute numbers can have major implications. Thus, the education system needs to prepare for a continuous reduction in students at all education levels, and, consequently, reduction of teachers, lecturers and facilities. At the same time, the health and pension systems need to prepare for larger service delivery to elderly. In general, the societal costs of supporting an older person is higher than the average costs of support to a child. In the longer term the total labour force will probably contract due to a reduction in the working-age population, a process that has already started for the youth labour force. The ageing of the labour force will also have implications for the fulfilment of jobs that specifically need younger persons, such as physically demanding jobs.

Overall, the mean age of Albania's population increased with 10 years since the 1979 census, from 25.2 to 35.2 years (*Figure 2.5*) and is expected to further rise with the ageing of the population. Looking at the median age during the period under consideration, the speed of change has increased, as it increased from 3 years between 1979 and 1989 to 6 years between 2001 and 2011.

The median age of the Albanian population has increased by almost 6 years between the last two censuses 2001-2011

Figure 2.5: Mean and median age of the population

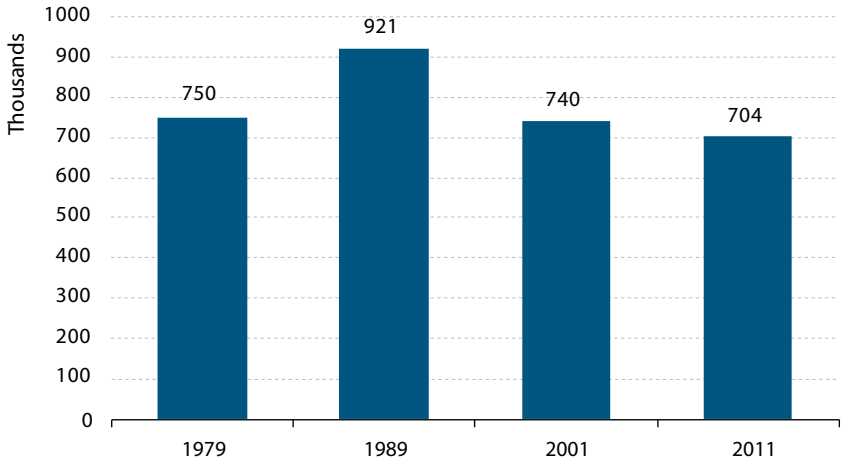


Source: Population and Housing Censuses and Population Projection 2011-2060 (INSTAT 2014d)

2.4 THE DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF YOUTH

The 2011 Population and Housing Census recorded 704 thousand people aged 15 to 29, making up 25 percent of total Albanian population. In absolute numbers, the youth population increased between the 1979 and 1989 censuses, and reached a highest number of 921 thousand (*Figure 2.6*). After the 1989 census the absolute number of young people has decreased as the result of the combined processes of replacement by smaller birth cohorts and large-scale emigration.

Figure 2.6: Youth population, by census year, 1979-2011 (in thousands)

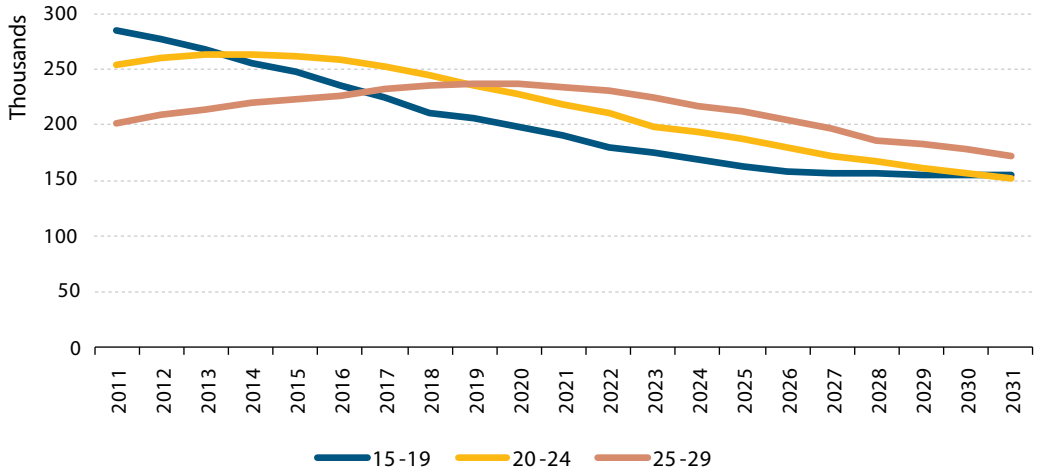


Source: Population and Housing Censuses

According to the medium scenario of the last population projections (2011-2031), the number of young people (15-29) is likely to be 479 thousand in 2031, which is 260 thousand less than in 2011[5]. *Figure 2.7* shows the time lag in the volume change of the five-year age groups of the Albanian youth. Whereas the youngest age group 15-19 continues to decline, following the fertility decline of the past decades. The ageing of the larger birth cohorts is expected to have slightly increased the middle age group 20-24 since the 2011 census, but by now also this group has started to decline. The oldest youth age group (25-29) will follow this pattern from increase to decrease about five years later, around 2019.

5 Population estimates for 1 January

Figure 2.7: Projection of youth population, by age group, 2011-2031 (in thousands)

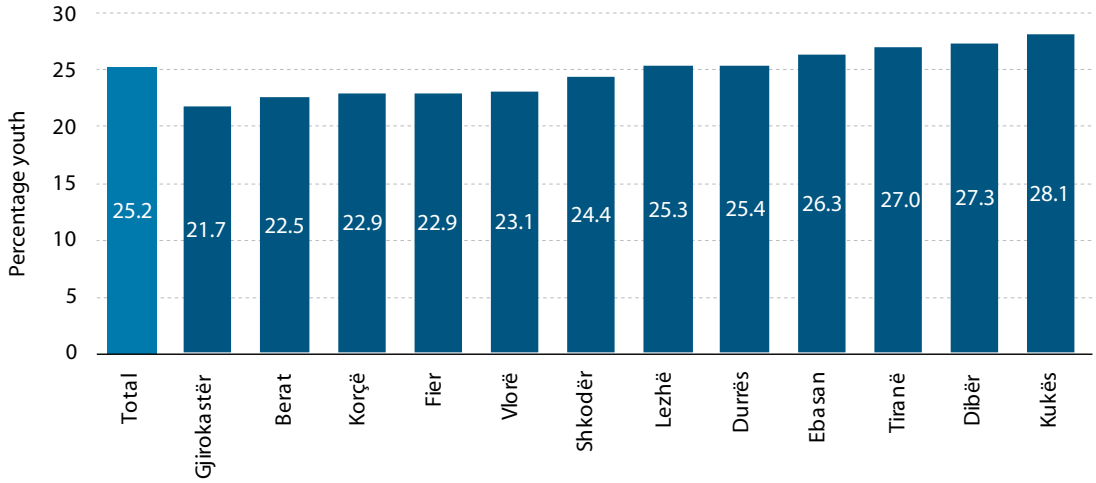


Source: Population projection 2011-2031

The projected numbers of youth since the 2011 census represent considerable changes in a relatively brief period of time. This will have significant impacts on the supply of students in the higher education levels and the supply of manpower in the years to come. Thus, whereas there are around 483 thousand persons in the economically productive ages 20-29 in 2015, this will be only 324 thousand – 33 percent less – in 2031. Consequently, it will require adaptability by the education system and the labour market, and anticipation by policy makers.

The prefecture of Tirana has the largest share of youth: 29 percent – in absolute terms more than 202 thousand young people. In view of the overall population dominance of Tirana among all prefectures (27 percent), this is not surprising. Given the concentration of employment and education opportunities, it also in line with expectations that a relatively large number of youth is residing in the prefecture of Tirana: 27 percent against the national average of 25 percent. It is somewhat surprising that also the more remote and less- developed prefectures of Diber and Kukes have relatively large shares of youth population (*Figure 2.8*). This is likely related to the slower decline in fertility rates in these areas (see e.g. INSTAT 2004), which counteracted the relatively high out-migration from these prefectures (INSTAT 2014e).

Figure 2.8: Percentage of youth in the total population, by prefecture

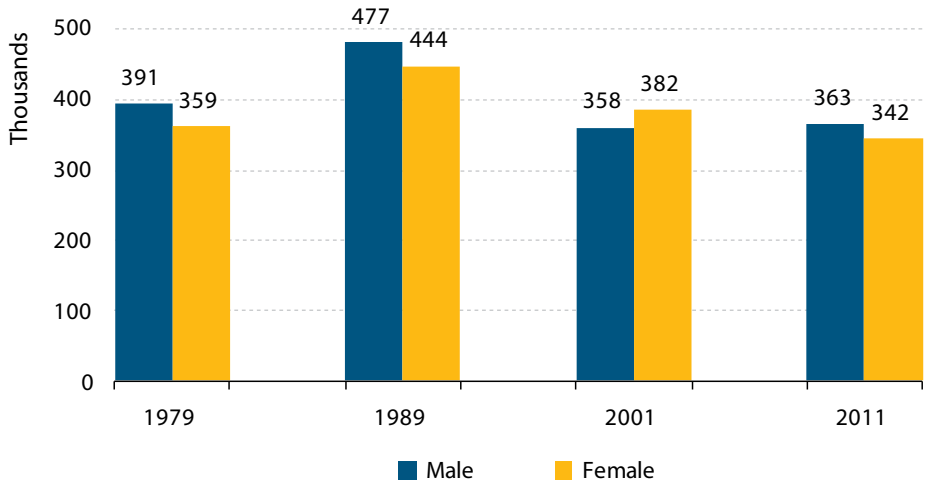


Source: 2011 Population and Housing Census

Gjirokaster and Berat have significantly smaller shares of youth in their population. Here, the age structure of the population has become distorted due to out-migration and emigration of young people. From a policy perspective this is a worrisome situation, as it reflects the poor employment and general living conditions in these areas, but at the same time the small share of the population that is economically most productive and able to support the more dependent numbers of older people in the communities.

The sex composition of the youth population shows a male over-representation, except for the 2001 census (*Figure 2.9*). This exception is a consequence of the large-scale emigration of men during the period 1990-2001. Since then, emigration has become more gender-balanced, while return migration included more men (see also chapter 3).

Figure 2.9: Youth population by sex, 1979-2011



Source: Population and Housing Censuses

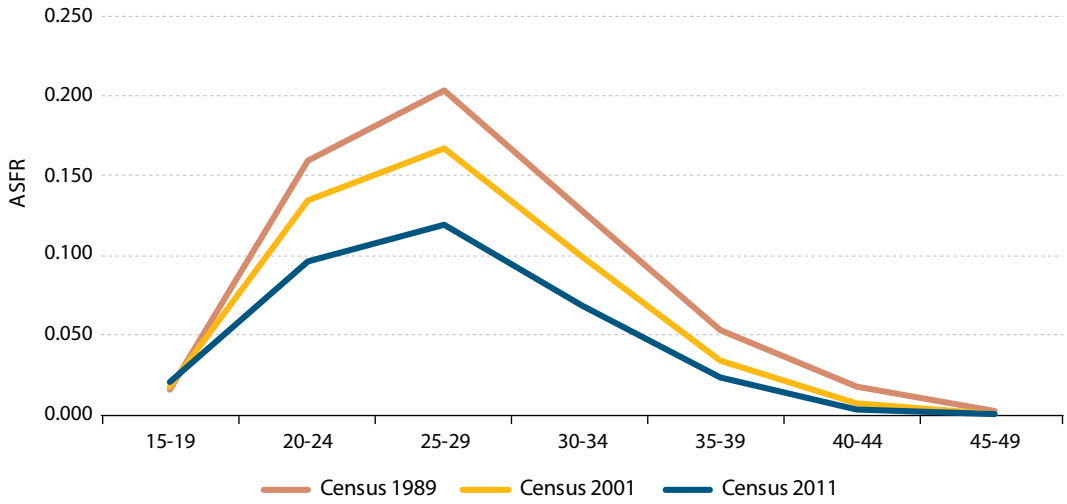
2.5 YOUTH FERTILITY AND LIFE EXPECTANCY

The leading factors of the ageing process of the Albanian population are decreasing fertility (dejuvination or 'ageing at the bottom') and increasing life expectancy ('ageing at the top'). The fertility decline that is experienced in Albania in the past decades particularly affects the segment of youth in the population. Close to 74 percent of all births occur to women in the age group 15-29. This percentage has remained very stable in the vital registration statistics since 2001, despite the major decrease in the overall level of fertility[6]. Also the mean age of childbearing remained fairly stable around the level of 27.2 (INSTAT 2014d, p. 44). At the same time, the Total Fertility Rate (TFR)[7] decreased from 2.3 children per woman in 2001 to 1.7 – well below the replacement level of 2.1 – in 2011, continuing the fertility decline from 1960 onwards when Albania, with a TFR of 7 children per woman, was the country in Europe with the highest fertility in Europe. In terms of absolute numbers the registration data show that the births by young women below 30 sharply decreased from 40 thousand in 2001 to 26 thousand in 2014, as the combined effect of lower fertility and smaller cohorts of women in the reproductive ages.

Figure 2.10 shows the changes in fertility levels by census year for different age groups of women in the reproductive age span of 15 to 49. It depicts that fertility decline is shared among all age groups of 20-24 and older. Further analysis reveals that the relative decline in age-specific fertility is larger for each successive age group. Thus, for women aged 20-29 in 2011 the average number of children they born was 0.6 times the number born by women of the same age in 1989, whereas women aged 40-49 in 2011 had only 0.2 times the number of children as their same-age sisters in 1989. Surprising is the observation of a consistent increase of teenage fertility. The age-specific fertility under-20 increased from 0.016 in 1989 to 0.018 in 2001 and 0.020 in 2011. Although the absolute number of teenage births is relatively small – 2.8 thousand in 2011 – and is declining due to decreasing numbers of women aged 15-19, the increasing trend in teenage fertility is something that warrants attention by health policy makers.

6 For the years 2002 and 2003 this figure was a little lower, but it is believed that this is related to data problems.
7 The Total Fertility Rate is the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman over her lifetime if she was to experience the current age-specific fertility rates through her lifetime.

Figure 2.10: Age-specific fertility rates, by census year, 1989-2011



Source: Population and Housing Censuses

Increasing longevity is one of the principal reasons why there has been an increase in the median age of Albanian population, as noted in section 2.3. Since 2000, Albania has made further progress in its life expectancy. The expected number of years of life at birth for both sexes combined has increased with about 2.5 years from 74.6 years to 77.1 in 2014. Life expectancy at birth is significantly higher for females than for males. At birth women can expect to live 79.4 years, 4.6 years longer than men, who have a life expectancy of 74.8 years. None of the countries in the Balkan region, with the exception of Greece, have a life expectancy that is higher than that of Albania in 2011: Montenegro (76.1), the Former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia (75.1), Rumania (74.4), Serbia (74.4), and Bulgaria (74.2)[8]. Because of relatively high levels of infant and child mortality, Albania has to compensate with lower levels of mortality at older ages, to reach its overall more favorable position in terms of life expectancy at birth.

The higher life expectancy at birth also translates to a higher life expectancy for youth. Between 2005 and 2014 there was an increase of more than 2.9 years in life expectancy for young people who reached age group 15-19, from 61.3 to 64.2 years. Even though the young female's life expectancy is higher than that one of young males, the life expectancy of young males aged 15-19 increased at somewhat faster pace than that of young females, rising by more than 3.4 years compared with an increase of 2.3 years for young females.

8 Source: Eurostat (demo_mlexpec)

3 MIGRATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

International migration has been a major force in population change in the past two decades. The main reason for the population decline observed in the last two censuses was the large-scale emigration of Albanian citizens. According to a World Bank study, by 2005 at least one in three households had a member who had left the country (World Bank 2007). And a few years later, around two in five households have at least one former member abroad. In Albania, as usually elsewhere, migration particularly involves young adults, who migrate for reasons of employment and education opportunities and for family reasons. Consequently, youth particularly figure in migration statistics and were the main contributors to the recorded population decline in Albania.

This chapter starts out by depicting overall migration in Albania's recent past (section 3.2) to provide the context of the specific role of youth migration, which is elaborated in section 3.3. The main data sources used here are the 2011 Population and Housing Census and the Survey on return migration and re-integration, conducted by INSTAT in 2013 (INSTAT and IOM 2014). Since these sources only partially cover emigration, external sources are added to complement the picture, particularly those from Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes (NSIs). Part of the information presented here is drawn from previous INSTAT migration publications.

3.2 ALBANIAN MIGRATION

3.2.1 Emigrants

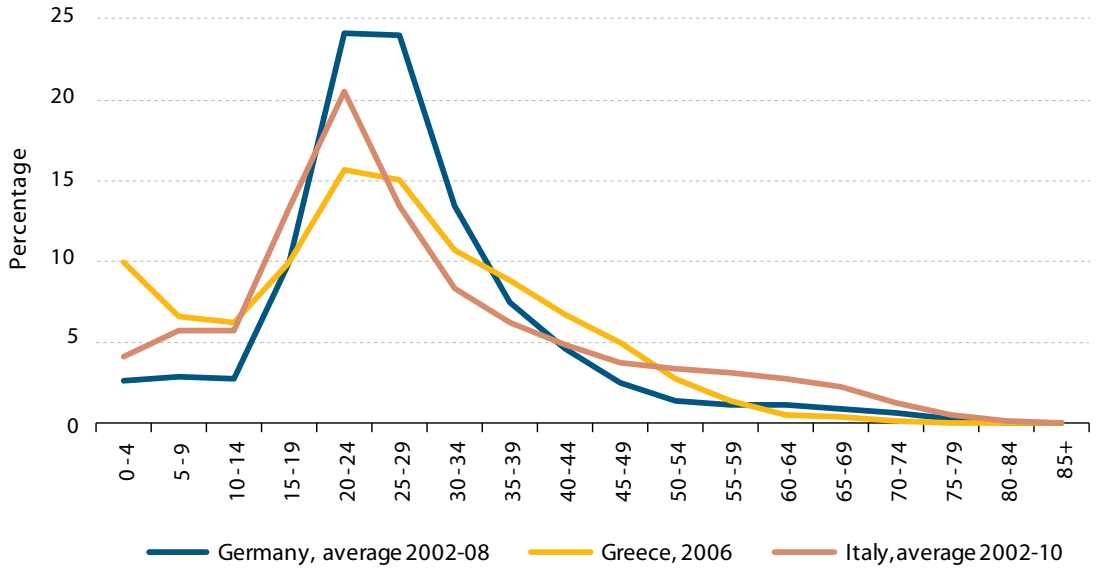
Emigration was the main single reason for the declining population in Albania prior to 2001 and between 2001 and 2011. The abolition of barriers to emigration and the social turmoil in the 1990s generated successive waves of emigration in these years. Several hundreds of thousands Albanians left the country (e.g. Carletto et al. 2006), a loss that was not offset by immigration and natural increase. This massive emigration was the main cause for the complete reversal from a high annual population growth in the 1979-1989 inter-census period of 2.0 percent, to a negative growth (-0.3 percent annually) in the subsequent 1989-2001 inter-census period. In absolute terms, the population increase of almost 600 thousand persons that was observed in the inter-census period before 1989, turned into a decrease of more than 100 thousand in the one after 1989. The 2011 census conclusively showed that emigration was the most important factor in the net population loss of 269 thousand persons between 2001 and 2011, accounting for 8.8 percent of the 2001 population (INSTAT 2014c). According to INSTAT indirect estimations, during this period about 482 thousand Albanians left the country, a number that was only partially compensated by immigration and natural growth.

Part of the explanation of the continuation of emigration may be sought in the changing characteristics of Albanian emigration (INSTAT 2014c). It is thought that during the 1990s migration was dominated by young single men looking for work abroad in a time when Albania was in turmoil. In the first decade of this millennium migration seems to have diversified: migration is still dominated by young adults, but in addition to men, women increasingly go abroad as well. The share of children has somewhat increased too, and this is a clear indication of the process of family reunification and marriage migration that often follows the earlier 'pioneering' migration of a first male-dominated wave. Such a process of family reunification and marriage migration tends to enable continued high migration levels at least for some years after the first wave of migration.

Data from Eurostat and statistical institutes of other countries help to illustrate this with regards to the more important European destinations. Immigration in the past decade to Germany and Greece consisted of 56 percent males, and that to Italy of 51 percent males. Migration to Germany is probably still strongly work (and study) oriented, as indicated by the low share of children. In comparison, Italy and especially Greece have a broader age distribution,

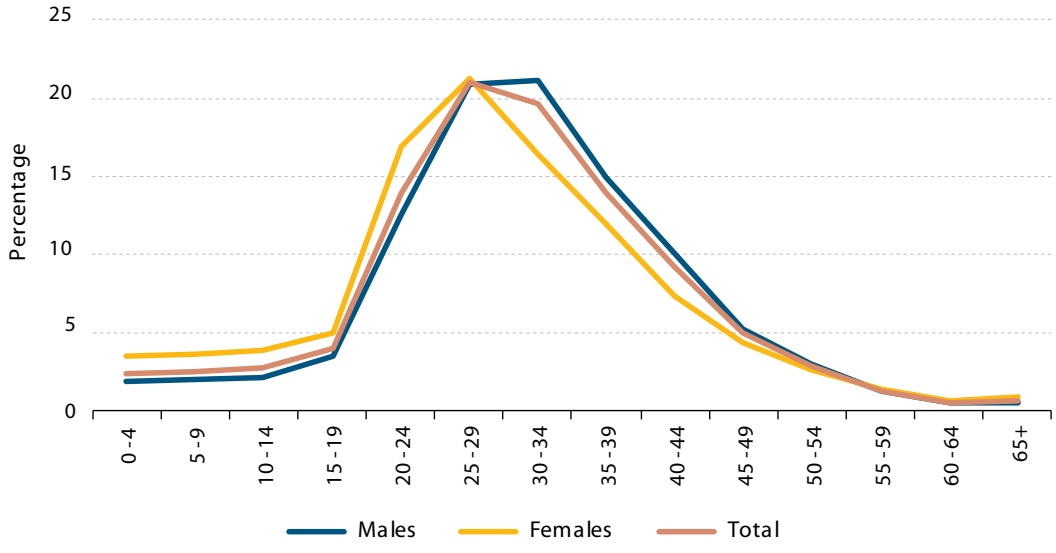
indicative of family-oriented migration. These age-sex distributions of immigration are reflected in the data on the population structure of Albanians currently residing abroad, as reported in the 2011 Census (*Figure 3.1*). These age-sex distributions of immigration are reflected in the data on the population structure of Albanians currently residing abroad, as reported in the 2011 census (*Figure 3.2*).

Figure 3.1: Immigration of Albanian citizens to Germany, Greece and Italy, by age group (in percentages)



Sources: Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes

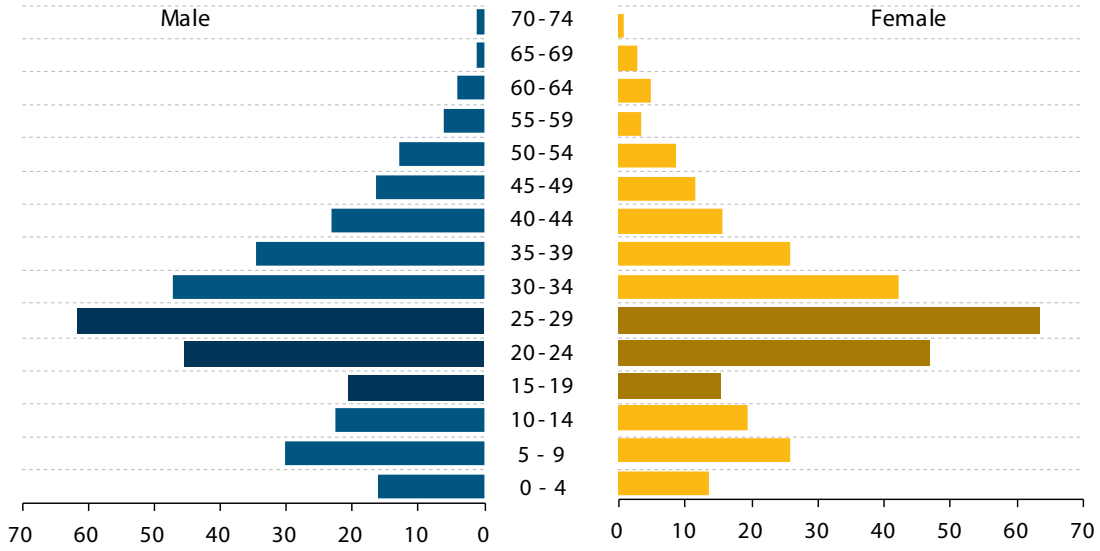
Figure 3.2: Albanians currently living abroad, by sex and age group (2011) (in percentages)



Source: 2011 Population and Housing Census

The age and gender profile of Albanian emigrants is clearly depicted in *Figure 3.3*. The concentration in the young adult ages is typical for migration patterns, but noteworthy is the fair gender balance in the emigrant population. Generally speaking men are overall more likely to leave the country than women, but the difference is not overwhelming during the last inter-census period. This is in stark contrast to the patterns of emigration noted in the 1990s where men were much more likely to emigrate than women. In the most recent years even many more women have migrated abroad, due primarily to family reunifications, as well as for study or employment reasons.

Figure 3.3: Albanians emigrants 2001-2011, by age and sex (in thousands)



Source: INSTAT 2014e

Statistics from Eurostat and NSIs of European countries indicate a population of about 988 thousand Albanian citizens living abroad in 2011, the sixth foreign population in the EU by size (Eurostat 2011 and data from NSIs and Eurostat database), and the third largest population of non-EU citizens (after Turks and Moroccans). Adding estimations of Albanians born in Canada and Australia (another 10 thousand), and in the United States (about 77 thousand), the estimate reaches one million, which would imply that about one in four Albanians lives abroad[9].

Around the time of the 2011 census, Italy and Greece hosted by far the largest shares of Albanian citizens living abroad (well over 80 percent). At a distance followed the USA, Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada, Belgium, France, Australia, Spain and Austria (*Table 3.1*). This distribution of destinations is supported by data from the 2011 census that suggest that around 80 percent of Albanians currently living abroad lived in Greece or Italy.

Table 3.1: Population with Albanian citizenship in selected countries (in thousands)

Country of residence	Year	Number (in thousands)
Albanian citizenship		
Greece	2011	480.8
Italy	2011	482.6
Germany	2011	10.5
United Kingdom	2005	10.5
Belgium	2011	5.2
France	2005	5
Spain	2011	1.6
Austria	2009	1.5
Born in Albania		
USA	2010	77.4
Canada	2006	7.5
Australia	2006	2.0

Sources: Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes

9 It should be noted that citizenship is a changeable characteristic, as people may acquire the citizenship of their foreign country of residence. During the years 2008-2009, 22.8 thousand Albanians acquired Greek citizenship; in Italy 14 thousand acquired Italian citizenship. Thus, together with an unknown number of unregistered Albanian migrants, the population of Albanians abroad would be even larger than the estimated one million. On the other hand, the population with Albanian citizenship abroad includes a second generation of children born outside Albania, who should not be considered emigrants.

Employment and family reunification are the main reasons for Albanians to emigrate. For 77 percent of people living abroad but previously member of a household enumerated in the census, work was mentioned as the main reason for their leaving Albania. Study was the reason for 7 percent of them, and family-related reasons for 13 percent. Data from first-time residence permits issued in Greece were for family reunification. In Italy family-related permits were fewer: 35 percent, while another 22 percent were categorized as 'for other reasons' (not being study). Besides family-related migration, migration for work or study has continued as well, probably for both men and women. Still four in ten permits issued in Italy and Greece in 2008-2009 were for working purposes.[10]

The reasons for emigration as reported in the 2011 census for previous household members are different for men and women. For 84 percent of male migrants work is indicated as the main purpose of the move; this is lower for women – 61 percent. Conversely, family reasons play a role for one in four women as opposed to a mere eight percent of the men. Study appears in general to be a relatively minor reason for migration abroad, although more important for women (11 percent) than for men (only 6 percent). But students clearly favour some destinations over others: Germany, France and the USA are popular, Greece scores well below average in this respect.

3.2.2 Return migrants

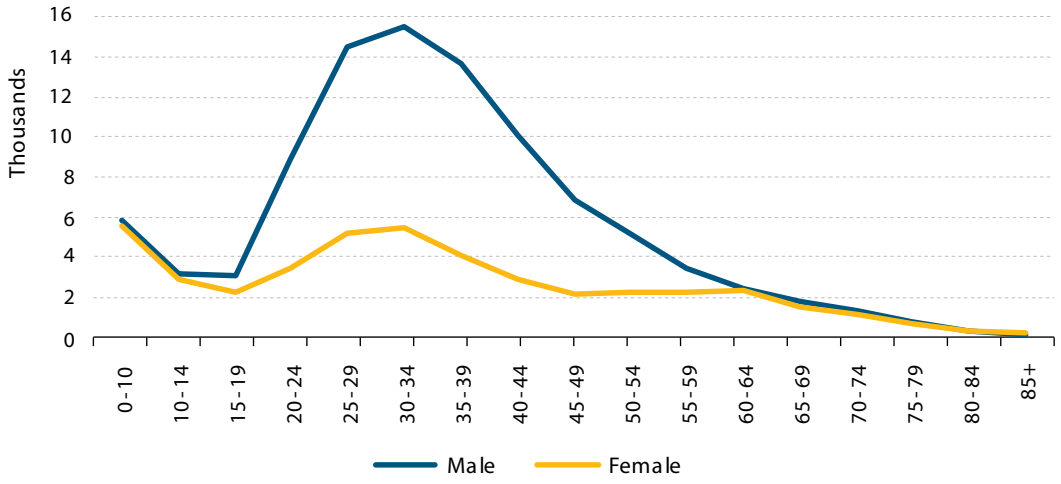
Given the strong increase in the number of Albanians residing abroad over the decade, return migration cannot have been very substantial. Nevertheless, in the 2011 census a total of more than 100 thousand people reported that they had returned from residence abroad since 2001. Census analysis demonstrated that returns have been on the rise every year, in particular after 2008 (INSTAT 2014e). Overall, in 15 percent of the households in Albania lives someone who has ever lived abroad. This amounts to about six percent of the total population (172 thousand persons).

While some of these return migrants settle in Albania permanently, for many of them the return is temporary in nature. In this sense, the return migration captured in the census is a snap-shot of on-going circular migration. Moreover, the migration figures are based on the internationally accepted definition of an international migrant as someone who stays abroad for at least one year. It is likely, however, that Albanian migration, in particular to the important neighbouring destinations of Italy and Greece is seasonal or temporary, whereby people work and reside for part of the year in Albania and for another part in Italy or Greece, moving back and forth for work and family reasons. If so, the total impact of migration is even larger than the above estimates indicate.

Figure 3.4 shows that persons who returned since 2001 captured in the census are concentrated in the age segment 25-39 and are on average a little older than migrants who were abroad at the time of the census. There are twice as many men coming back than there are women coming back to Albania, a reflection of the male dominance in emigration in the past decades. The overrepresentation of men among returnees is particularly strong in the working age.

10 Apparent inconsistencies between census and permit figures can be attributed to several reasons. The low census percentage for family reasons may be due to underreporting on households from which all members have migrated. Another reason may be that 'work' may have been reported as a reason for dependents migrating with or joining someone who migrated for work. Official permits do not necessarily reflect the personal purpose of migration: a spouse may receive a permit for family reunification while his/her personal motive may be to seek work.

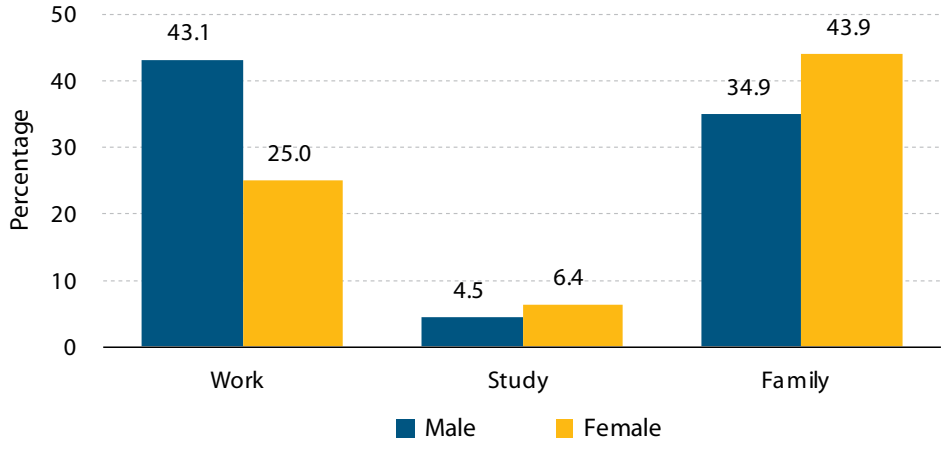
Figure 3.4: Return migrants since 2001, by age and sex (in thousands)



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

In numerical terms, employment and family reasons dominated among the reasons of return; lack of employment was the dominant reason for males and family reasons was the predominant reason of return for females (*Figure 3.5*). Considering the countries from where migrants returned, census data showed that these correspond with the countries of emigration: Greece, closely followed by Italy and to a much smaller extent other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the USA, Germany and Turkey.

Figure 3.5: Return migrants since 2001, by sex and main reason for return (in percentages)



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

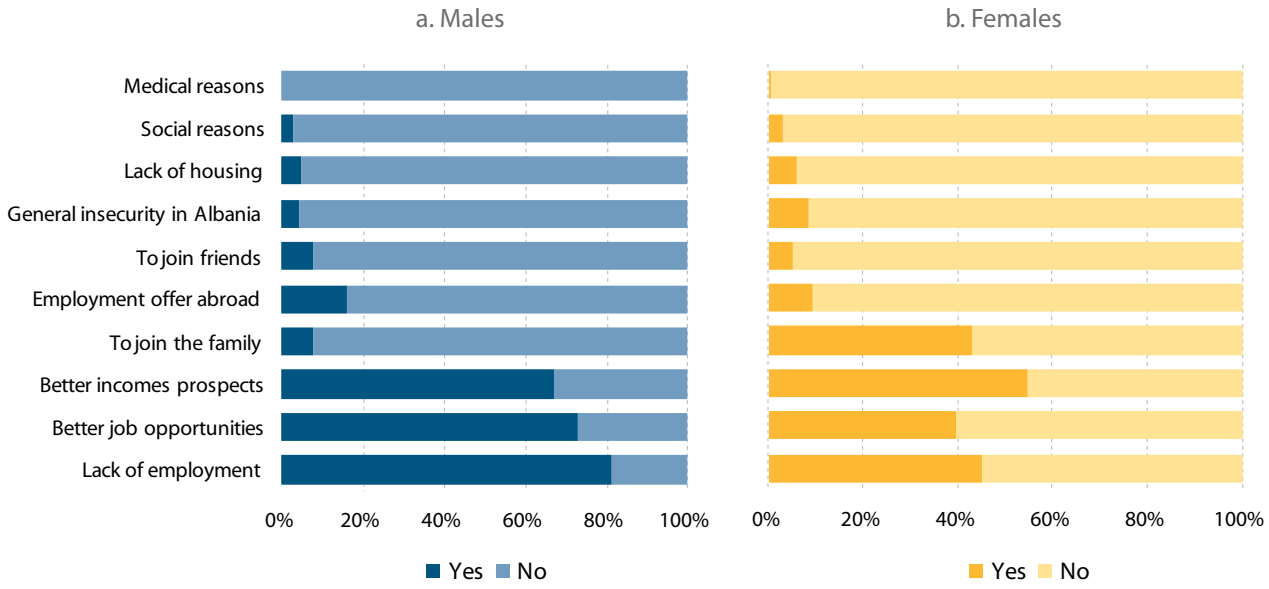
3.3 INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OF YOUTH

Figure 3.3 above showed the prominent role of youth in the international migration in Albania. The age groups 20-24 and 25-29 were the most numerous among the number of persons that were estimated to have emigrated between the censuses of 2001 and 2011. Together with the 15-19 year olds, the number of youth that has emigrated in this period amounts to around 225 thousand people, almost half (47 percent) of the total emigrant population in this period.

The survey on return migration and re-integration in Albania (INSTAT and IOM 2014) provides some more details on the backgrounds of youth migrants. This survey estimated that around 46 thousand Albanian citizens aged 18-29 years[11] returned to Albania during the period 2009-2013. It should be noted that the survey targeted returned migrants and survey results are not representative for emigrants who are still abroad.

Among those who returned, economic considerations constituted the predominant reasons behind the initial emigration of young Albanians: lack of employment, better job opportunities and better income prospects were the three main reasons to emigrate (*Figure 3.6*). This applied to both men and women, but more so to the former. For young women, an additional important reason – mentioned by 43 percent of female respondents – was 'joining the family', which usually refers to accompanying the male partner who went abroad. Other reasons were only mentioned by small minorities of men and women alike. The predominance of economic reasons is confirmed by the census 2011 data, in which for 74 percent of the persons who had left the household to go abroad 'Employment' was the main reason to emigrate. The second most important reason (for 14 percent) was pursuing education opportunities abroad. Unfortunately, this reason was not included in the return migration survey.

Figure 3.6: Male and female return migrants aged 18-29, by mentioned reasons for emigration

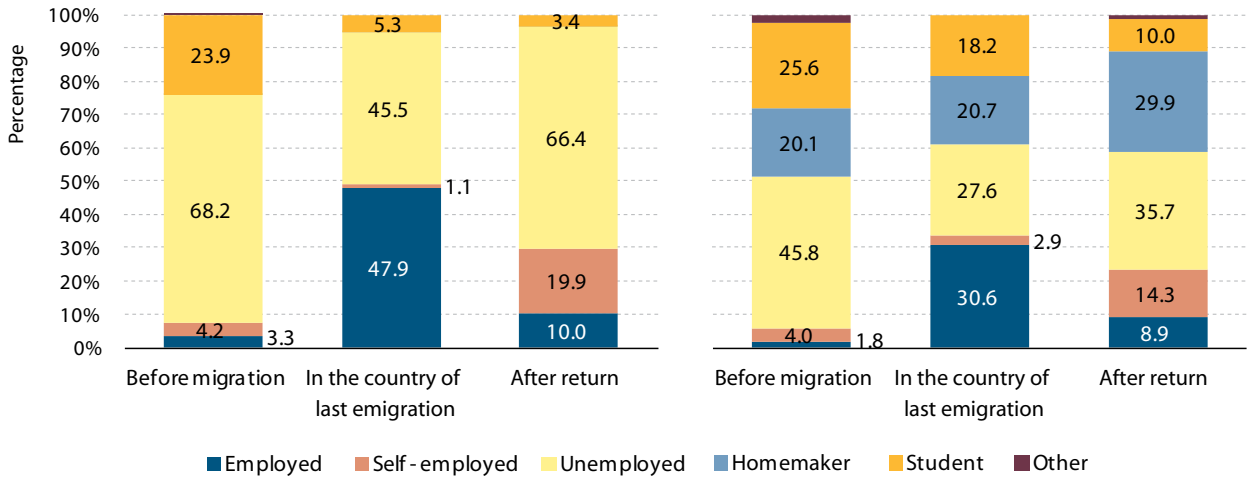


Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania survey 2013

The return migration results confirm the close relation between persons' activity status and migration, although the relations are somewhat different for men and women. Young emigrants hardly included persons – male or female – who were in employment, either as employed or in self-employment. The largest share (68 percent among men and 46 percent among women) were unemployed[12] before emigrating, in correspondence with the importance of economic reasons for migration mentioned above (*Figure 3.7*). Although 48 percent of young men and 28 percent of young women found a job abroad, emigration is not a guarantee for employment: also 46 percent of males and 28 percent of females were unemployed before returning to Albania.

11 The survey did not cover the youngest youth, aged 15-17.
12 In the return migration and re-integration survey, unemployment is not defined according to the official definition of unemployment (not working, seeking work and available for work), but as declared by the respondent.

Figure 3.7: Male and female return migrants aged 18-29, by moment in migration history, and by activity status[a]



Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania survey 2013

[a] Unemployment as declared by the respondent

Re-integration services constitute a fundamental element of the post-return experience of returnees. Many young returnees (35 percent) think that these services should be improved. However, there is a large share of respondents who do not have knowledge (30 percent) of the Migrant Counters or do not know that facilitator measures exist (17 percent). Only 24 percent of young return migrants who had knowledge about Migrant Counters contacted them.

To 43 percent of these migrants the agencies provided job placement support and for 57 percent they provided intermediation with or referral to other public or private services.

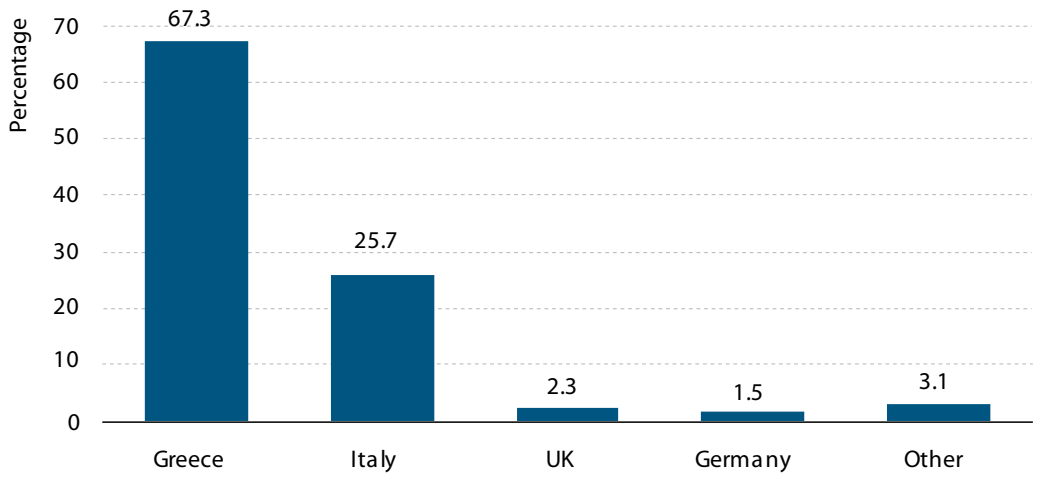
The pool of young emigrants consisted for another important part – around one quarter – of persons who were following education before moving abroad. Only 5 percent of male youth continued or took up further education in the country of emigration, while no less than 18 percent of female youth did so. This underscores the relative importance that is attached to education by women, compared to men (see also chapter 5 on education). In contrast to men, young female emigrants also included a significant share (20 percent) of home makers. This share remained stable for women abroad and increased to 30 percent after return in Albania.

For return migrants, finding a job abroad was only partially and temporarily a relief. Back in Albania the share of men that found a job increased from 7 to 20 percent, but 66 percent remained unemployed, a share similar to the percentage before emigration. Very few (3 percent) enrolled again in education. For women the share unemployed youth decreased from 46 percent before migration to 36 percent after return. The survey results suggest that the percentage working among youth with a migration experience is below the percentage working of those without migration experience. For young male return migrants this percentage working was 30 percent, compared to 48 percent for the total male youth (see also section 7.4.1 on youth employment). The corresponding figures for young women were 23 and 37 percent.[13] The above analysis suggests that youth migrants are in a relatively vulnerable position with relatively poor employment prospects. This was for many the main emigration reason to start with, but also abroad and after return, they perform worse on the labour market than non-migrant youth.

The countries where young return migrants migrated to are similar as those reported by return migrants in the census, although Greece (67 percent) seems to be a much more important destination than Italy (26 percent) (*Figure 3.8*). Other countries together were the destination of only 7 percent of youth return migrants. Young migrants largely choose the same destination countries as older emigrants aged 30 and over. For the latter, Greece was slightly more popular and Italy slightly less.

13 It should be noted that the above employment-to-population ratios for return migrants even overestimate the real values, since the return migration survey excluded children aged 15-17, who tend to be less in employment than older youth.

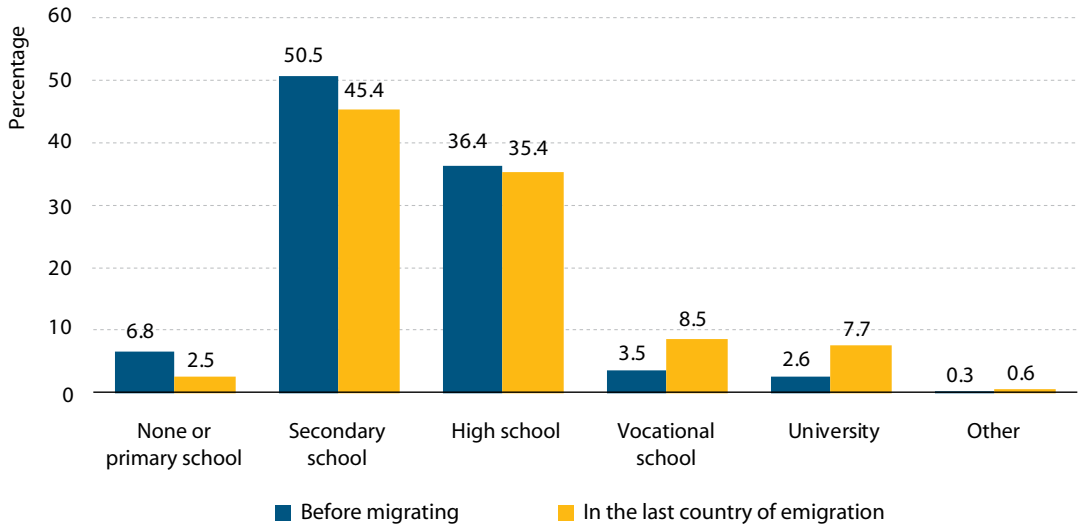
Figure 3.8: Return migrants aged 18-29, by last country of emigration (in percentages)



Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania survey 2013

The large majority of young migrants had completed secondary education (50 percent) or high school (36 percent) before leaving abroad and less than 3 percent had completed university studies (*Figure 3.9*). Around one in four young migrants were students before they moved abroad and a minority also spent the time abroad as a student, especially female migrants (see *Figure 3.7*). The migration survey results suggest that a small but significant share of young migrants completed advanced education abroad, as the percentages with completed vocational education increased from 3.5 to 8.5 percent, and that with academic degrees from 2.6 to 7.7 percent. This indicates that although employment opportunities are the main reason for international migration, for perhaps up to 10 percent of young migrants migration is a strategy to acquire higher educational diplomas.

Figure 3.9: Return migrants aged 18-29, by highest education completed before and during migration



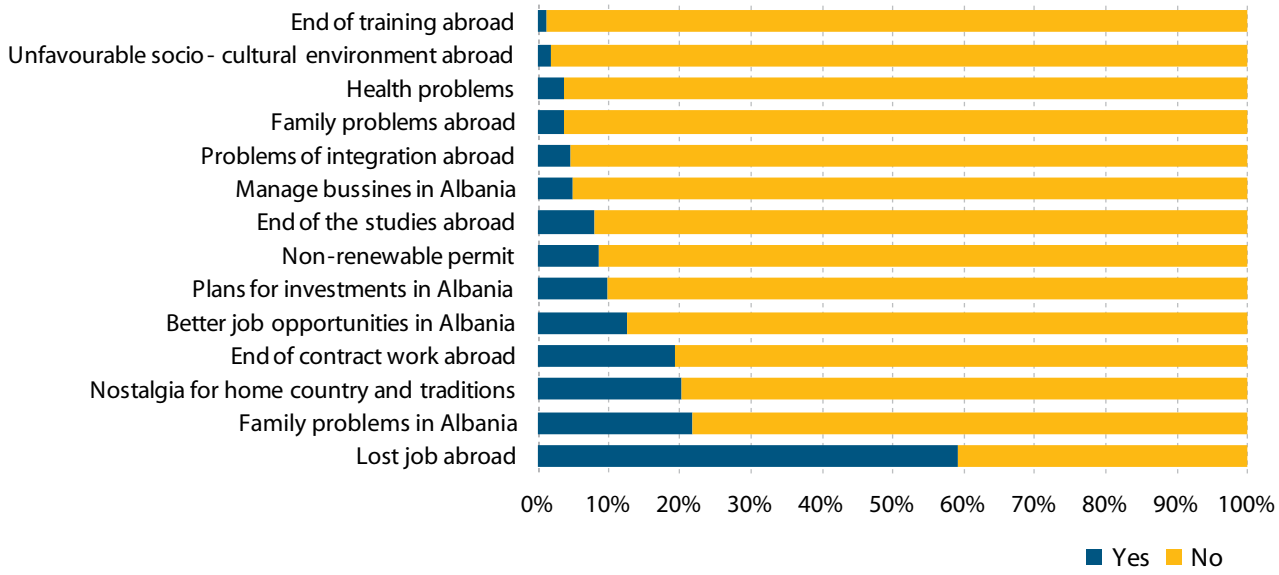
Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania, survey 2013

The large majority of youth returns to Albania, 92 percent, were of voluntary nature, but by far the most important reason for return was employment discontinuation in the country of destination. Some 59 percent of the respondents mentioned job loss as one of the main reasons for return and an additional 19 percent mentioned the end of contract work (*Figure 3.10*). It is likely that many of these job losses are related to the financial crisis that hit the economies of the main migration countries, especially Greece. Overall, 'problem' reasons prevail over 'opportunity' reasons. Only

10 percent of the returnees came back with plans for investment in Albania, 12 percent expected to have better job opportunities in Albania, and 5 percent had already a business set-up and turned back to manage it.

An interesting fact is that emotional non-economic reasons, such as 'Nostalgia for my country and my traditions', was frequently (by 20 percent of respondents) mentioned as a main reason to return. Another relational reason that figured importantly was ' Family problems', either with family back in Albania (22 percent) or abroad (4 percent). These results indicate that migrating youth not only face employment challenges, but also challenges in relational and social areas.

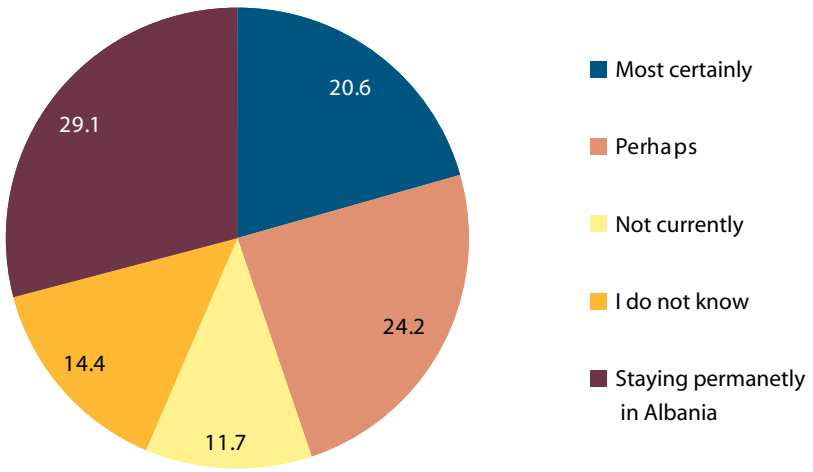
Figure 3.10: Return migrants aged 18-29, by mentioned reasons for return



Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania, survey 2013

One in five (21 percent) of youth returnees expressed a firm intention to emigrate again, while 24 percent indicated to consider this (*Figure 3.11*). It seems that two factors are likely to influence the decisions of the latter: economic situations in the destination and origin country. The most common motivation for re-emigration is, in fact, related to the degree of integration of returnees in the country of emigration. Another important consideration is that push reasons for re-emigration (no job/no future in my country) are stronger than pull reasons (new employment opportunities).

Figure 3.11: Return migrants aged 18-29, by intention for re-emigration



Source: Return migration and re-integration in Albania, survey 2013

4 FAMILY AND LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The social and demographic transformation that Albania experienced in the last few decades had a large impact on family and household arrangements. Many changes – although not all – are in line with the Second Demographic Transition (SDT) that is observed in most other European countries. A shift to individualisation and more affluent and open societies not only affect the basic demographic processes of fertility, mortality and migration, which are at the root of the ageing and dejuvenation processes in Albania (see chapter 2), but also other developments, like changes in marriage patterns and living arrangements, the disconnection of marriage and procreation, and women's emancipation (Van de Kaa 2002, Lesthaeghe, Neidert Surkyn 2007, Lesthaeghe 2010).

4.2 HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

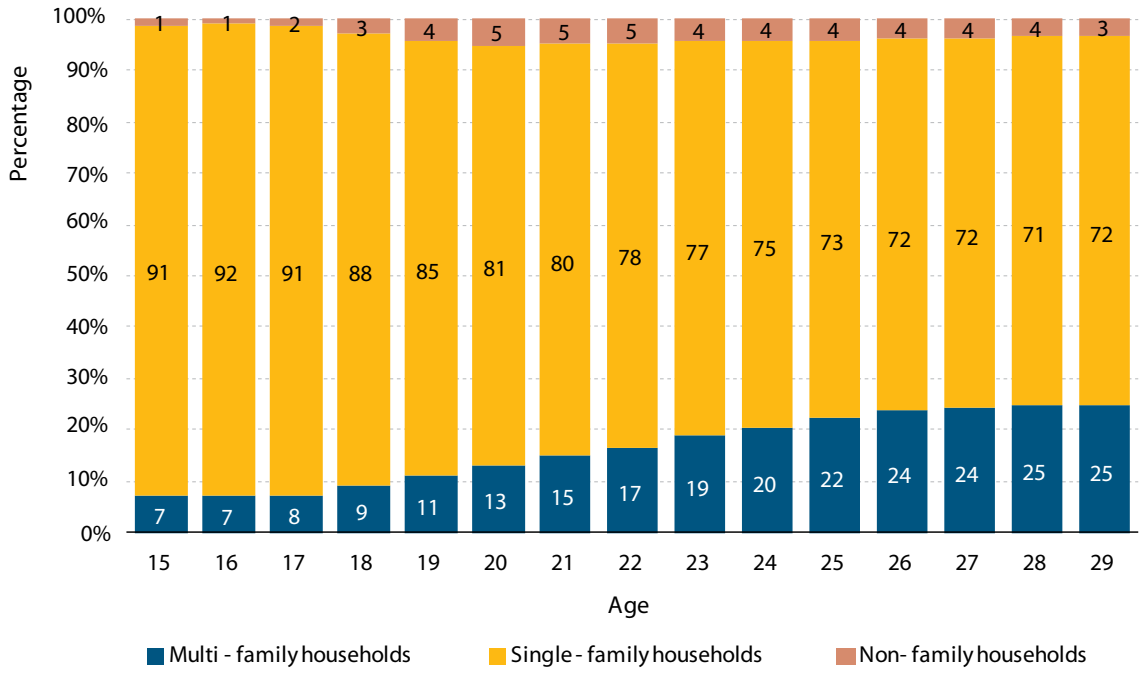
The successive censuses showed that such changes had a large impact on the size of households: whereas in 1979 the average household size was 5.6 persons, it steadily declined to 3.9 in 2011. At the same time, the number of households increased, with the exception of the inter-census period 2001-2011. This is an indication that households not only become smaller because of lowering fertility since the 1960s (see chapter 5), but also due to family nuclearisation and individualisation processes. In 2011, 16 percent of youth lived in composite households consisting of more than one family nucleus,[14] compared to 21 percent in 2001. Whereas the share of single family households increased relatively slightly (from 78 to 81 percent), the relative increase of single-person households and households consisting of unrelated persons – especially students – was significant, tripling from 1.2 to 3.6 percent in the 2001-2011 inter-census decade.

Figure 4.1 reflects the transitional period of youth in terms of household composition. The large majority of youngest youth (89 percent of 15-19 year olds) lives in single family households – usually with their parents – and only 8 percent live in households consisting of two or more family nuclei. The share of those living in multi-family households increases with age to 24 percent for the oldest youth (25-29 year olds). These are mostly young people who marry and stay in the parental home, or who have siblings who marry and stay in the parental home. More in-depth research is required to identify the underlying reasons for the relatively high prevalence of multi-family households. These could range for cultural-based preferences for household arrangements to restrictions on the housing markets for young couples and families and pragmatic arrangements for parental care and childcare.

At the same time, the share of persons living outside family arrangements – those in single-person households or living with unrelated persons – gains prominence especially in the middle youth age group of 20-24 year olds. These often consist of students and young people who left the parental home, but did not yet engaged in marriage and started a family of their own.

14 A family nucleus consists of a couple with or without children or a single parent with one or more children. Households without family nuclei are either one-person households, or households with two or more unrelated persons.

Figure 4.1: Youth 15-29 year old, by age and by household composition (in percentages)

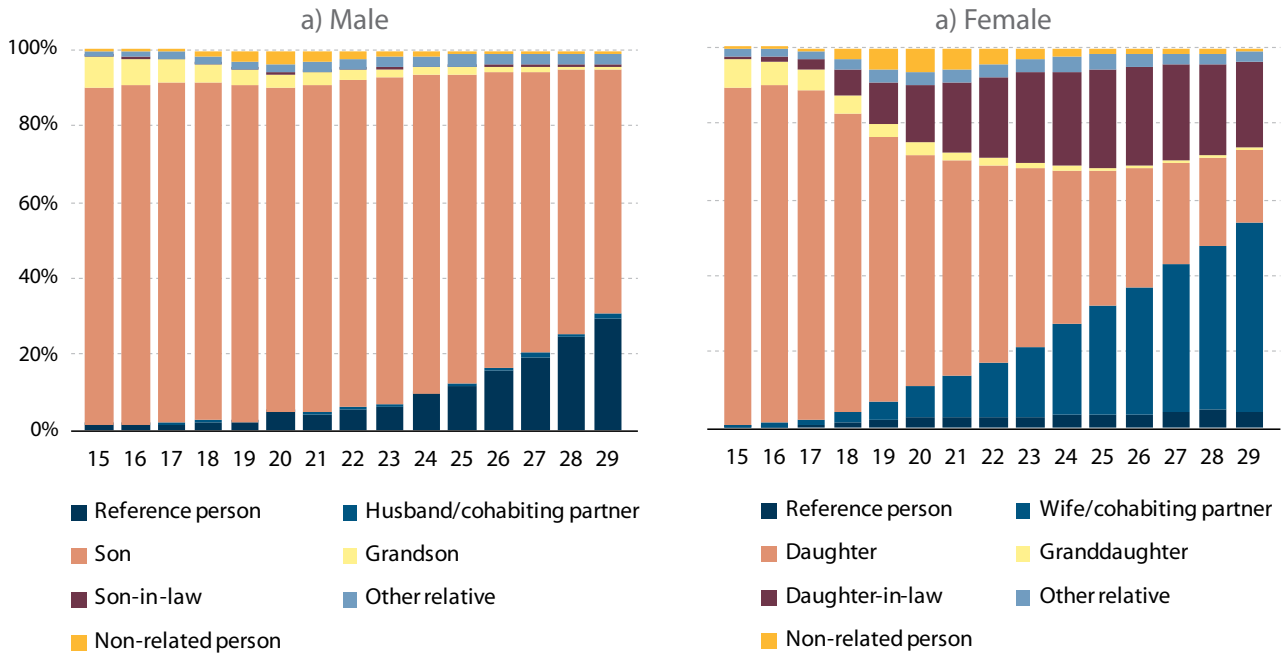


Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

The transition period of youth is also reflected in the change in the position young people have within the household, although the impact of this passage is often much more borne by women than by men. *Figure 4.2* shows that with progression of age over the period of youth an increasing share of men take up the role of household head or reference person, usually by marrying and setting up his own household. However up to age 30, the majority of men (64 percent) remain in their position of child to the head of household in their parental home, irrespective of their marital status.

For women, up to age 18 the position in the household is very similar to men – mostly being the child of the household head and in fewer cases the grandchild. But from that age onward, gender paths strongly divert. Only a small proportion – 19 percent – remains in the parental home by age 29 and the large majority have become either the spouse or cohabiting partner of the male household head, mostly in newly established households (50 percent), or the spouse or cohabiting partner of a man in his parental home (23 percent). In addition, young women in the age bracket 18 to 22 years are significantly more often part of a non-family household than men in the same age group.

Figure 4.2: Male and female youth 15-29 year old, by age and by relation to reference person (in percentages)



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

Only a small proportion – 21 percent, representing some 8 thousand households – of young household heads are women. Their social profile substantially differs from that of male heads of household. For instance, among female heads the majority (59 percent) consist of never-married women, around one third are married and a considerable 7 percent are divorced, separated or widowed (*Table 4.1*). Among young men the majority (71 percent) is married, a fair minority share of 29 percent is never-married and an insignificant proportion has previously been in marriage. These figures suggest that to a large extent a traditional role patterns is maintained, in which within marriage the husband is considered the head of household and the wife the dependent person.

Table 4.1: Heads of households aged 15-29, by sex, and by marital status

Marital status	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never married	35.1	28.6	59.2
Married	62.9	70.8	33.9
Divorced/separated	1.1	0.3	4.3
Widowed	0.8	0.4	2.6

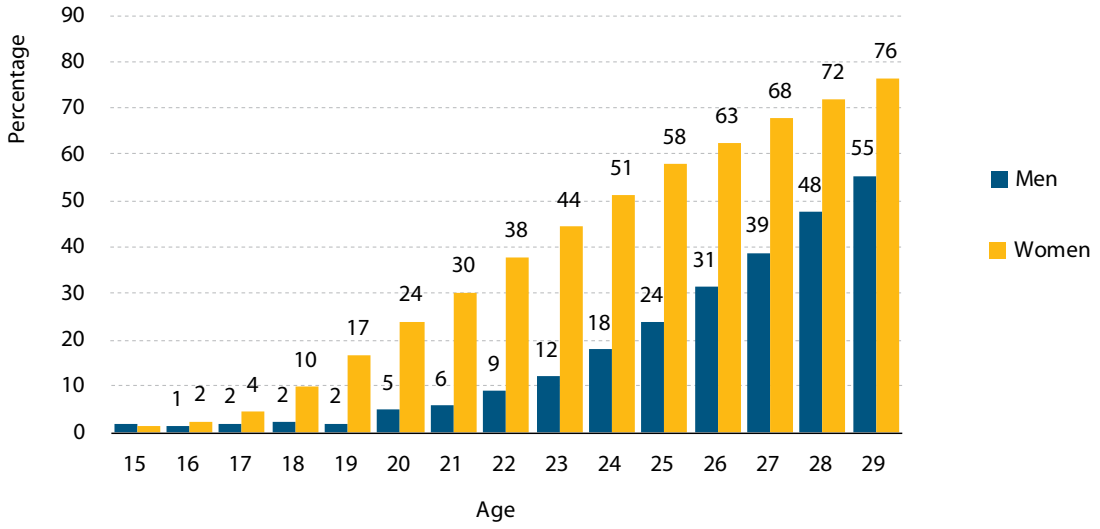
Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

However, when young household heads are compared with household heads of 30 years and older, a difference is observed, which could indicate a change toward more gender equity: in 11 percent of married couples with a head aged under 30 the woman is considered to be the head of household, while among older couples this is done in only 4 percent. At the same time, it is interesting to see that overall the proportion female-headed households has changed little in the last inter-census decade (from 13 percent in 2001 to 14 percent in 2011), but that among young household heads this proportion has increased significantly from 10 percent in 2001 to 21 percent in 2011. Various societal processes underlie this change, such as an increasing tendency for young women to set up independent households after leaving the parental home (for instance during the period of study) and increasing divorce rates (see section 4.3), which again lead to an increase of female-headed households.

4.3 MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE PATTERNS

Among the most significant transitions in the period of youth is marriage. Census 2011 data indicate that at age 29, more than half of the men (55 percent) and three quarters of the women (76 percent) have engaged in marriage during youth (*Figure 4.3*). Although for European standards these are relatively high figures, they signify a substantial drop compared to the 2001 census. At the time of that census the percentages married at age 29 were 71 for males and 85 for females. Similarly, the percentage married at age 25 dropped from 72 to 58 for women, and from 38 to 24 for men. The Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) – which can be understood as the number of years lived in the single state by those who ever marry by age 50 – has increased in the 2001-2011 decade by almost 2 years for both sexes, from 25.3 to 27.2 years (INSTAT 2014c).

Figure 4.3: Percentage married of population aged 15-29, by sex and by age



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

These figures demonstrate that the age at marriage in Albania is increasing. This marriage postponement is likely related to gaining importance of parallel careers, like extended education, developments in the finding a suitable job on the labour market and the impact of migration experiences during the young adult life stage. It is also likely that living arrangements other than marriage become more common. One possibility is that unmarried cohabitation gains a foothold, as for instance indicated by the 2008-09 Demographic and Health Survey (INSTAT et al. 2010c). In the EU in 2006 almost 30 percent of women aged 15-29 and 18 percent of men in this age group were living in a consensual union outside marriage. Postponement of marriage and higher proportions remaining single beyond age 40 may also indicate that the principle of universal marriage will be abandoned and that an increasing share of people may voluntarily choose to remain unmarried. In these respects Albanian society is likely to follow other European countries in the trajectory of the Second Demographic Transition and will probably see a larger variation of living arrangements, of which youth will be the forerunners.

Also in other marriage patterns, Albania is experiencing social change. Young married people are exposed to the risk of divorce for only a brief period of time, but the proportion of young adults that is separated or divorced has increased significantly in relative terms. Among 25-29 year old women, this proportion has doubled to 1.4 percent in the last inter-census interval and is likely to become even more visible the near future. For men the relative increase is even larger, but the proportion of separated and divorced young men is considerably smaller (0.3 percent), especially because male youth are on average exposed to the risk of divorce for an even briefer period, because of their later age at marriage.

The difference in age at first marriage between men and women accounts for the large gender disparities in the proportion married among young people, as shown in *Figure 4.3*.[15] The census-based SMAM for men in 2011 was 29.2 years and that of women was 25.1 years, indicating an average age difference between spouses of around 4 years. This four-year later marriage of men also largely explains the smaller proportions divorced and separated men among youth.

15 Beyond age 30, the proportions ever-married converges even though especially at old age the share of widowed women becomes much higher that the corresponding share of widowed men (INSTAT et al. 2010c).

5 LIVING CONDITIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Lifestyles and living conditions are fundamental fields to the understanding of youth specificity and culture, of their concrete social conditions of existence, and also of the close relation between their behaviours and the structure of opportunities and constraints –- defined both at a national and at a European level –- in which they occur.

In the context of material living standards and well-being, housing is a fundamental aspect. People's ability to afford adequate housing of decent quality in a safe environment is a matter of importance for meeting basic needs and a key determinant of well-being. The access to affordable housing is not only linked to the specificities of national housing markets, but also to the 'burden of sustaining their own household' and the financial resources to carry it. Therefore, it is highly related with the level of difficulty of entering and staying integrated in the labor market. One way to overcome the housing problems of young people is to offer social housing to those with low incomes.

Housing quality covers a wide range of aspects, which are related not only to the dwelling itself, but also to the broader residential areas where people live in. Structural problems of the dwelling, overcrowding and space shortage, housing deficiencies and lack of basic amenities, are key element for assessing housing quality. At the same time, living in a noisy area, being exposed to pollution and grime or feeling unsafe in the residential area where the home is situated, are also perceived housing problems with regard to the quality of the dwelling environment.

This chapter will give an overview of youth people living conditions. The indicators presented in this chapter are based on the data provided by the 2011 Population and Housing Census. This information has been collected on dwelling and household basis, meaning that for each household's information on dwelling and household characteristics were asked once for all members. Next to the youth population in general, particular attention is paid to households with a head of household in the youth age category 15 to 29 years of age. Compared with the 2001 census the number of households with a young head of household decreased from 6.2 to 5.2 percent.

5.2 BUILDINGS AND DWELLINGS

The cost and quality of housing are key elements that contribute to overall living standards and wellbeing. As such, indicators that measure the quality, facilities and space available within dwellings may provide complementary information for assessing the material conditions of different groups within society. Housing quality can be assessed by looking at a range of housing deficiencies such as lack of sanitary facilities.

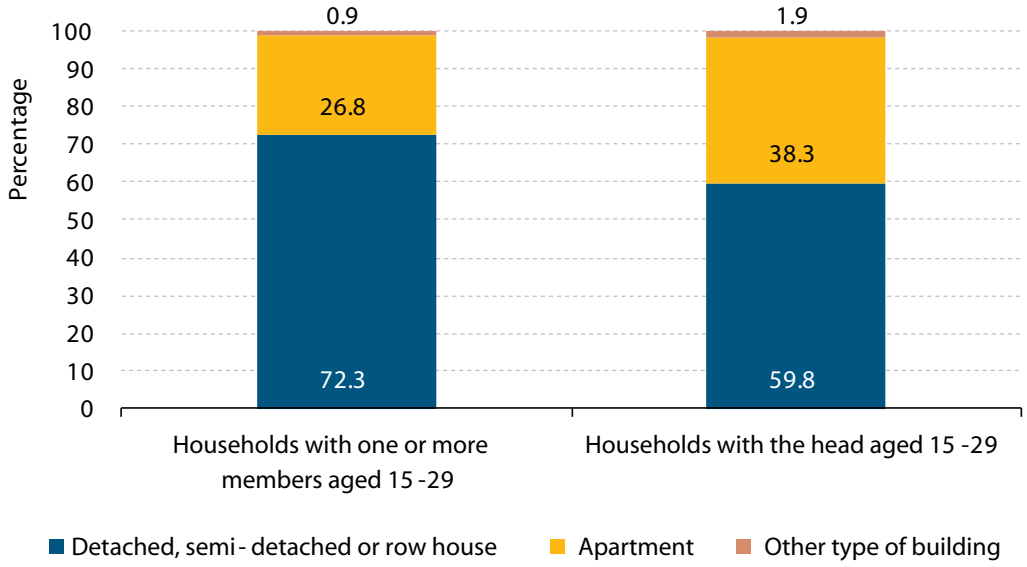
There is a relatively small difference in the number of residential buildings between 2001 and 2011. In 2001, this number was 512 thousand, compared to 598 thousand buildings in 2011, an increase of 10.4 percent. On the other hand, there is a significant growth in the stock of dwellings[16] particularly as a result of the increase in the number of multi-storey buildings, mainly in cities. The number of dwellings in 2011 was 1,012 thousand, compared to 785 thousand in 2001, an increase of 28.9 percent.

For both kinds of households, those with at least one member aged 15-29 and households with head of household aged 15-29, the most common type of building in 2011 was an individual house with 72.3 and 59.8 percent respectively, followed by apartments whereas the building for non-residential purposes such as collective living quarters or other type of building comprise a very low share of those households that live in these type of buildings. Apartments are more preferred by households with a young head than those with at least one member aged 15-29 (respectively 38.3

16 A dwelling can be a conventional dwelling, such as a house or an apartment, or a non-conventional dwelling. Such as a tent, caravan or a shack. For a full definition of dwelling, see annex I.

and 26.8 percent), to some extent because these households are mainly composed by students living in a rented apartment and reflecting the increase in the number of students in society.

Figure 5.1: Households with one or more household member aged 15 to 29 and households with the head aged 15 to 29, by type of dwelling (in percentages)



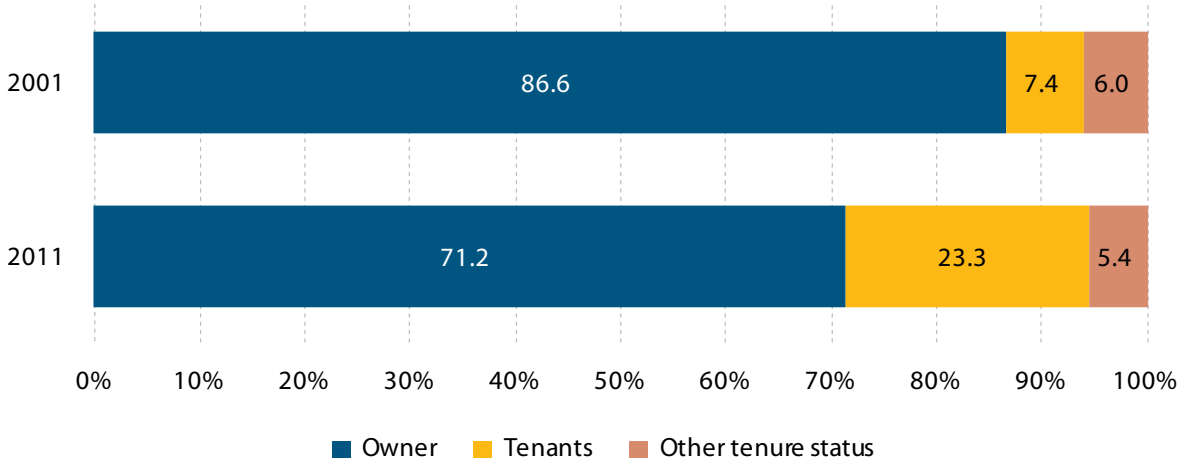
Source: Population and Housing Census, 2011

5.3 DWELLING CHARACTERISTICS

5.3.1 Tenure status

A marked shift occurred in the share of households of a young household head that own the dwelling they live in. In the last inter-census period, this share decreased by more than 15 percentage points (*Figure 5.2*). This is again likely related to urbanisation and the increased importance of apartment dwellings. On the other hand, the share of households being tenant has been more than tripled in this period.

Figure 5.2: Households with a household head aged 15-29, by tenure status, and by census year



Source: 2001 and 2011 Population and Housing Census

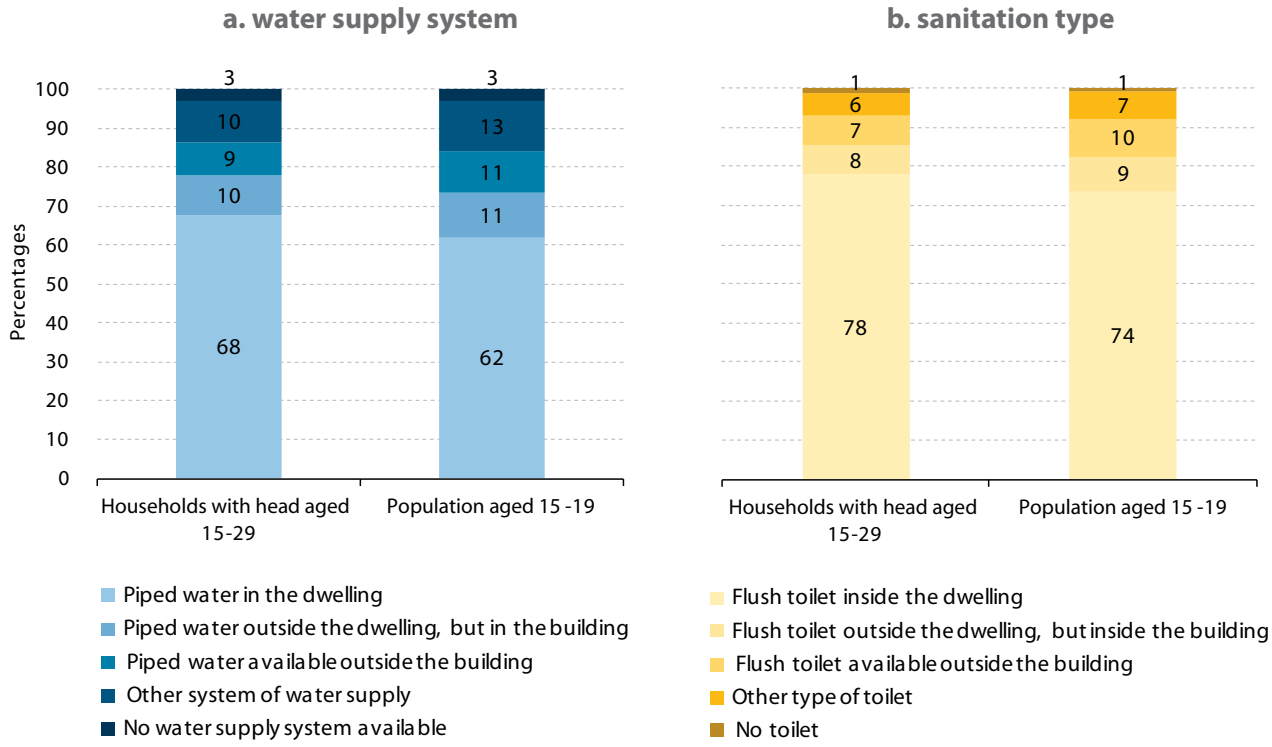
5.3.2 Basic facilities

Adequate provision of water supply and sanitation as well as adequate living space in the dwelling is a non-monetary indicator of a standard of living. In 2001, the provision of water and sanitation were each fairly inadequate, but the 2011 census showed a substantial improvement of the situation.

The percentage of the youth population with access to piped water has slightly increase, from 72 percent in 2001 to 84 percent, but whereas in 2001 only 40 percent had piped water inside the dwelling, by 2011 this share had increased to 62 percent. The access to a flush toilet increased in the inter-census period for the youth population from 65 to 92 percent, and the share that had a flush toilet inside the dwelling increased from 50 to 74 percent. The share of youth living in households without any water supply is 3 percent (22 thousand persons), down from 7 percent in 2001.

Figure 5.3 shows the 2011 distribution of water supply systems and sanitation types for households headed by youth and for the total youth population in Albania. Despite improvements in the inter-census period, still 38 percent of Albanian youth has no access to the desired piped water supply in the dwelling and 26 percent has no flush toilet inside the dwelling. The situation for households with a young head is slightly better, reflecting the situation of new households compared to that of their parental generation.

Figure 5.3: Households with head aged 15-29 and population aged 15-29, by system of water supply and by type of sanitation (2011)



Source: Population and Housing Census, 2011

5.3.3 Dwelling occupancy

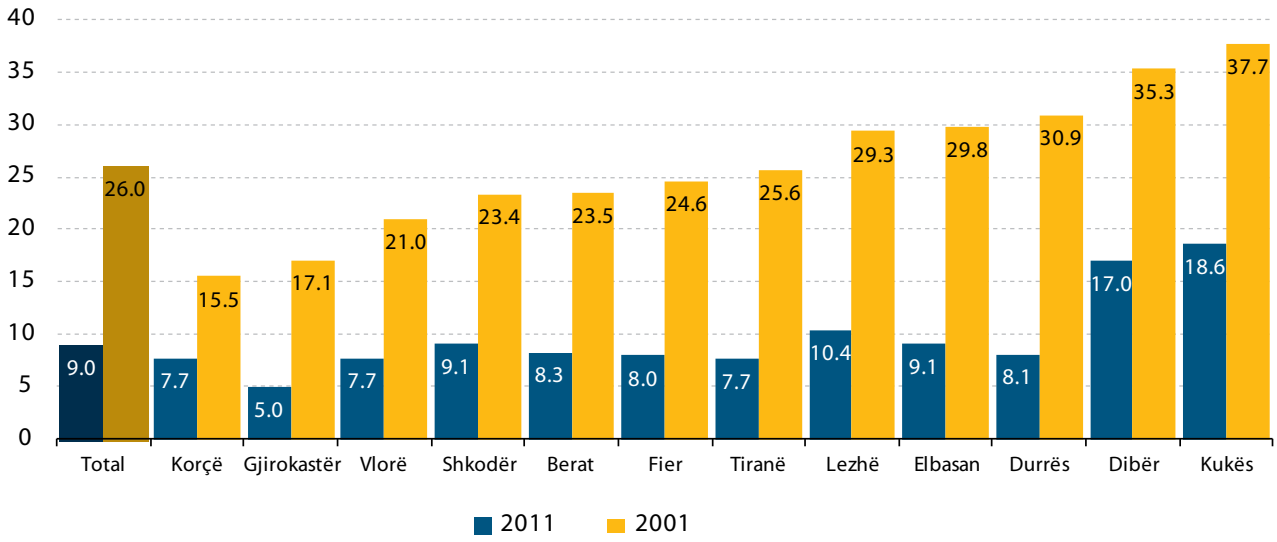
If too many people share a dwelling, this may have a negative impact on their wellbeing. Overcrowding is, in fact, a manifestation of housing inequality and is also a hidden form of homelessness. UN-Habitat defines overcrowding as dwellings with three or more persons per room (UN-Habitat 2007). The effects of overcrowding include an increased risk of disease transmission for a wide range of respiratory diseases, including pneumonia, tuberculosis and many allergies and negative social behaviours, such as domestic violence and child abuse, and negative outcomes of education and child development. On the other hand, dwellings inhabited by less than one person per room can be considered 'under-occupied' and if occurring on a large scale also reflect a poor functioning of the housing market. For Albania, dwellings with 1 to 2.9 persons per room are considered 'adequately occupied' and dwellings with three persons or more are defined as 'overcrowded'.

If this definition of overcrowding is considered, substantial improvement is observed between 2001 and 2011. Overall, the share of overcrowded dwellings in 2011 is around one-fourth of that of 2001, 3.8 and 16.5 per cent respectively. On the other hand, there are now 2.4 times more under-occupied dwellings in 2011 than ten years earlier, which is the result of a complex of factors, including new patterns of living for Albanian households, depopulation of certain regions in the country, but probably also an over-production in the housing sector.

Indeed, census data provides a measure of overcrowding that is based on the number of rooms and the number of people living in the household. In 2011, the share of youth living in an overcrowded dwelling has decreased to one third of the 2001 level, from 26 to 9 per cent. This decreasing trend of youth living in overcrowded households has been noticed among all prefectures.

In 2011, the highest share of youth living in an overcrowded dwelling was observed in prefecture of Kukës (18.6 percent), followed by prefecture of Dibër (17 percent) as shown in *Figure 5.4* below. The prefecture of Gjirokaster has the lowest share of youth living in an overcrowded dwelling (5 percent). Largely the same pattern was observed for 2001 data, when the prefectures of Kukës and Dibër had the highest levels of overcrowding, with 37.7 and 35.3 percent, respectively. At that time lowest share of youth living in an overcrowded dwelling was observed for Korçë (15.5 percent).

Figure 5.4: Share of youth population living in an overcrowded dwelling by prefecture, 2001 and 2011



Source: 2001 and 2011 Population and Housing Census

5.4 MATERIAL WELLBEING

5.4.1 Youth in poverty

Becoming an adult is a transitional phase on more than one account, be it moving out of education and into working life or moving out of the parental household into independence. Young people are thus more exposed to risks associated to these profound life changes.

For Albania, the Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) provides information to assess the level of poverty in the country. Persons and households are considered to live in conditions of poverty if the basket of goods and services they consume is insufficient to produce a minimum level of material well-being, the poverty line. Although one should recognise that poverty measured in terms of per-capita consumption is strictly speaking a measure for economic welfare only, its impact clearly involves wider dimensions, as in most settings, consumption is closely associated with other dimensions of welfare, such as education or health.

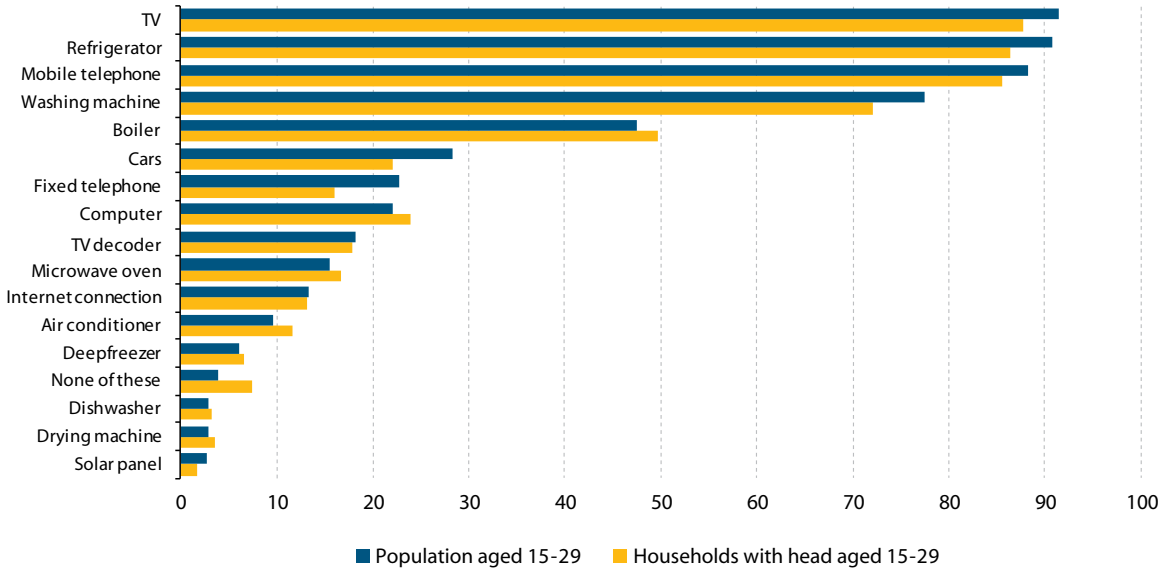
According to LSMS 2012 data, an estimated 15 percent of population aged 15 to 29 was poor and cannot meet the basic standards of living. The poverty gap provides further information about the average distance between the consumption levels of the poor and the poverty line, thus capturing whether the poor have consumption just or far below the poverty line. For Albanian youth this 'depth of poverty' was 3.2 per cent, implying that the 15 percent poor young people could not sufficiently make ends meet for a decent life, but their consumption level was – on average – relatively close to the level that is considered the minimum required.

5.4.2 Possession of amenities

In 2011, over 70 percent of youth and of households with a head aged 15 to 29 lived in a households that possessed washing machines, mobile telephones, refrigerators and TVs (*Figure 5.5*) Generally, the profiles of amenity possession is very similar for households with a young head and the total youth population. However, households with a young head are more vulnerable in the sense that 7.4 of them did not have any of the amenities listed in *Figure 5.5*, in comparison only 4.0 percent among the total youth population.

In a modern information society, effective communication is necessary and requires an adequate infrastructure. Information and communication technologies, such as computers and mobile phones allow people to exchange experiences and learn from each other, enabling higher returns on investment and avoiding problems of duplication or missing information. The 2011 census indicated that the penetration of internet and computers in Albanian households was still low: only 22.1 percent of youth population had a computer and just 13.3 had an internet connection at home. However, for 88.2 percent of youth, there is at least one mobile phone in the household.

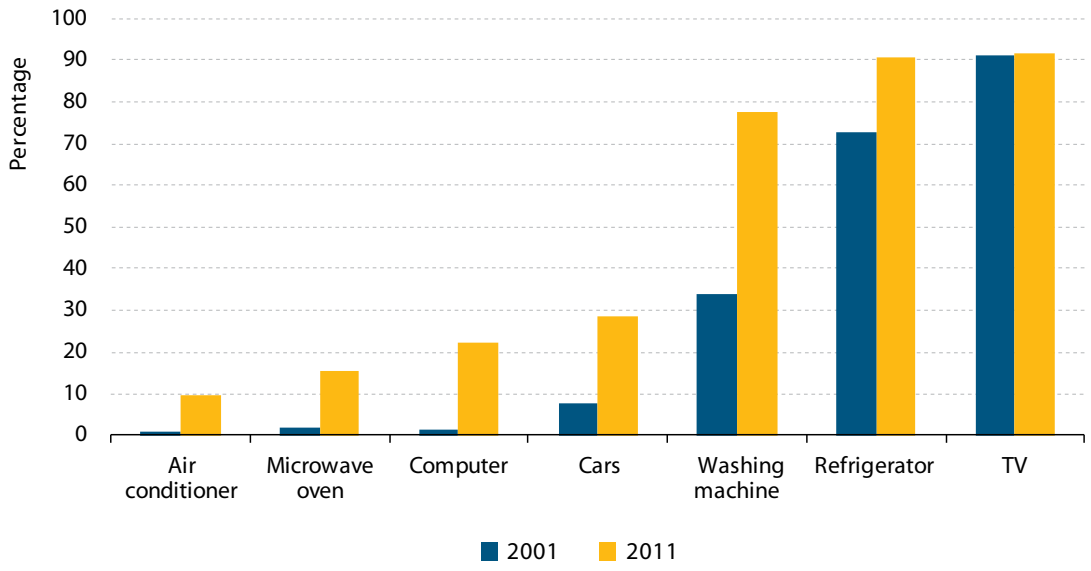
Figure 5.5: Amenities disposal, 2011



Source: 2011 Population and Housing Census

The household possession of amenities that was recorded in both 2001 and 2011 censuses is presented in *Figure 5.6*. Given the almost universal ownership of TVs in 2001, there is no significant increase in the percentage of youth people living in household possessing a TV in 2011. But the graph shows a rapid increase in household possession of conventional durables like refrigerators, washing machines and cars, but also of new devices like microwave ovens, air conditioners and computers. Possession of the latter was insignificant in 2001, but has increased enormously by 2011. Thus, there were about 9 times as many youth with a microwave oven and an air conditioner and about 18 times more with computers. Increases in the possession of the more conventional durables was much lower, but still significant. The percentage of youth people possessing refrigerators has increased with 18 percent between 2001 and 2011, and the percentage possessing a washing machine more than doubled. Some 28 percent of youth people lived in a household owning at least one car in 2011 versus only 8 percent in 2011.

Figure 5.6: Percentage of youth population living in a household possessing specified amenities



Source: 2011 and 2001Population and Housing Census

6 EDUCATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Education in the Republic of Albania is a national priority in a context of emancipation, progress and social development of the individual. All Albanians have equal rights to access education at all levels without discrimination refereeing of their social status, nationality, language, sex, religion, political beliefs, health situation and economic level.[17]

All children aged 6 years in Albania are obligated to attend compulsory education, which lasts than 9 years. The students are required to attend compulsory education up to the age of 16. Compulsory education has the mission to develop intellectual, creative, practical and physical skills of students in order to develop their personality and provide them the basic elements of general culture and civic education. According to the legislation, the first two levels of education, primary (grades 1-5) and lower secondary (grades 6-9), are currently compulsory in the country.[18]

Secondary education, which is followed by persons at least 16 years, aims to develop in the most comprehensive and harmonious way the personality and the potential of students, to enable them to contribute more actively in economic, political, social and cultural life of the country. Regarding secondary education, high priority is given to vocational education, especially the last two years.

The third level of education includes tertiary education. Nowadays there is more demand for qualitative and research-oriented universities. Particularly high was the interest in attending higher education. In 2014, 60 percent of graduates have completed the first cycle of university studies and 40 percent of them completed the second cycle of master's or equivalent level.[19]

The Albania 2011 Population and Housing Census included four questions on educational characteristics taking information for literacy, educational attainment, highest diploma obtained and completed years of education. These questions were included to maintain comparability with data from the 2001 census and to enable the calculation of key indicators on education. Additional information is obtained from the Ministry of Education and Sports.

6.2 BUILDING LIFE SKILLS: EDUCATIONAL ATTENDANCE AND SCHOOL EXPECTANCY

6.2.1 Attendance in education[20]

Enrolment and attendance rates are indicators to assess the functioning of the education system to serve the school-age population in a country. The net attendance rate shows the extent of participation in a given level of schooling of children belonging to the official age-group corresponding to that specific level of education. The net primary attendance rate is used as the MDG indicator to monitor progress towards the goal of achieving universal primary education.

The census-based attendance rates shown in *Figure 6.1* indicate that school attendance by primary-school age children (age 6 to 11) is almost universal and that of children of the lower secondary school age (12 to 14) is just slightly lower. Beyond this compulsory education programme – corresponding to age 15 to 23 – attendance rates drop, especially after age 17, at which many students decide to either continue with higher education or to drop out of the education system. With 45 percent of 19-year olds still attending education, Albania is considerably below the EU average of around 60 percent (Eurostat 2015d). The respective percentages for persons 24 year old are 11 percent in Albania and around 25 percent in the EU countries.

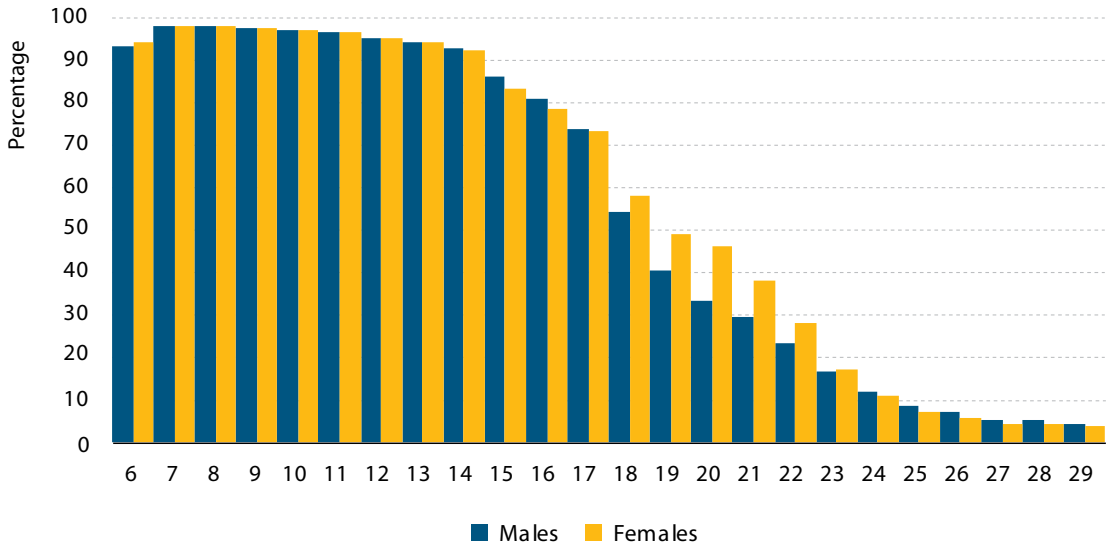
17 The Law (updated) Nr. 7952, dated 21.06.1995, "On Education" amended by Law Nr.8387, dated 30.07.1998 On some amendments to Law 7952, dated 21.06.1995 "FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION SYSTEM "pursuant to Article 16 of Law No. 7491, dated 29.4.1991

18 Education levels are compliant with ISCED 97 (see Annex II)

19 Albania in Figures 2014, www.instat.gov.al, publication of INSTAT

20 Educational attendance is defined as regular attendance at any accredited educational institution or programme, public or private, for organised learning at any level of education.

Figure 6.1: Education attendance rate, by sex, and by age



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

It is noticeable that up to upper secondary education, the attendance rates for girls and boys are very similar, but that girls drop out somewhat more often. The net attendance ratio for girls in upper secondary education, as recorded by the 2011 Population and Housing Census was 67 percent, while the corresponding figure for males was 72 percent (*Table 6.2*). However, young women tend to pursue further education to a higher degree than young men. The female net attendance ratio for tertiary education, as recorded by the 2011 Population and Housing Census was 34 percent, while the corresponding figure for males was only 25 percent. In this respect, Albania follows other European countries, where generally female students outnumber male students (Eurostat 2015c). The ratio of females to males is also reflected in the gender parity index[21], which is one of the indicators to achieve MDG goal 3, *Promote gender equality and empower women*. The gender parity index for the compulsory basic education (primary and lower secondary) is an almost ideal 0.99, but girls seem to be more disadvantaged in upper secondary education, for which the indicator is 0.93. However, in tertiary education a new gender disparity has arisen with males in a disadvantaged position, given the high gender parity index of 128 for that level.

Table 6.1: Net Attendance Ratio (NAR), Gross Attendance Ratio (GAR) and gender parity index, by education level, and by sex

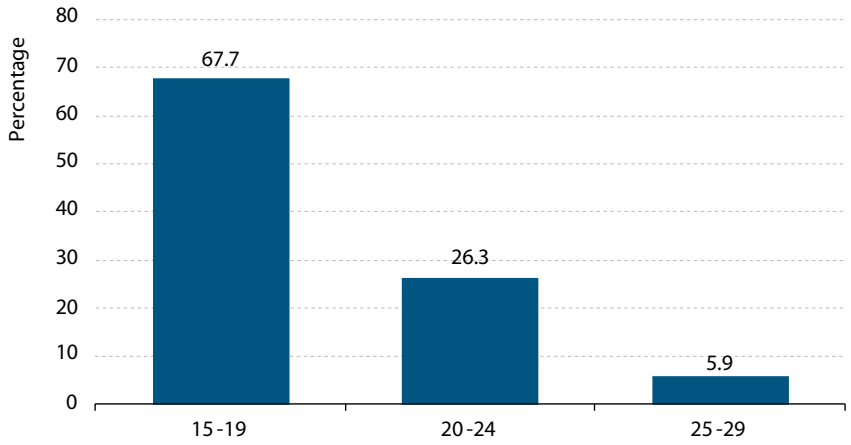
Sex	Education level									
	Primary		Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Total secondary		Tertiary	
	NAR	GAR	NAR	GAR	NAR	GAR	NAR	GAR	NAR	GAR
Both sexes	66	68	76	134	53	69	62	95	29	52
Males	67	68	76	134	55	72	63	97	25	46
Females	66	67	75	133	52	67	61	93	34	58
Gender parity index	0.99		0.99		0.93		0.95		1.28	

Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

The transition from education to the labour market or inactivity largely takes place during the youth life stage. While a majority (68 percent, about equal for girls and boys) of the 15-19 year olds is still participating in education, this share is only 26 percent for the middle youth age group 20-24 (24 for men and 29 for women) and 6 percent for the oldest youth aged 25-29 (again about the same for men and women) (*Figure 6.2*).

21 The gender parity index is defined here as the is the ratio of the number of female students enrolled at a specific level of education to the number of male students in that level. To standardise the effects of the population structure of the appropriate age groups, the gender parity index of the Gross Attendance Ratio for each level of education is used.

Figure 6.2: Percentage of youth attending education, by age group

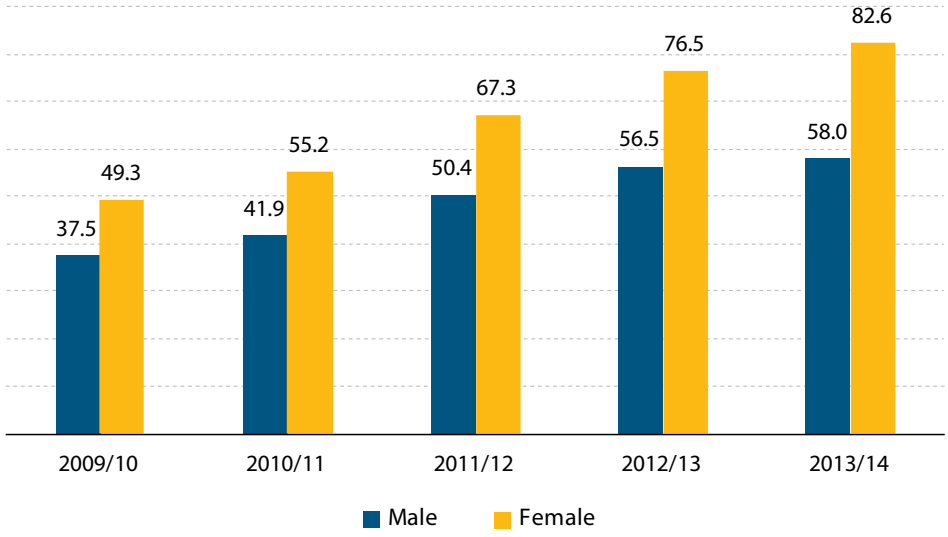


Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

The educational level of the Albanian youth is increasing rapidly. There has been an increasing enrolment of youth in universities, from 122 thousand in the academic year 2009-10 to 174 thousand in 2013-14. This also translates in consistently rising gross enrolment ratios (GER)[22] in tertiary education (*Figure 6.3*).

In the recent years, the number of female students has been higher than that of the male ones for the universities, which in 2013-14 amounted to 57 per cent.

Figure 6.3: Gross tertiary enrolment ratio, by school year, and by sex



Source: Ministry of Education and Sports and INSTAT

6.2.2 School expectancy

The census gives the possibilities to calculate for the first time the *school expectancy* and compare this indicator not only with other regional and European countries, but also with life expectancy. School expectancy is an indicator that measures the number of years that a child starting school can expect to stay within the education system based on the prevailing enrolment rates.[23] School expectancy depends of various factors that structure each education system:

22 The Gross Enrolment Ratio for a specific level of education is the number of students enrolled in that level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to that level of education.

23 The school expectancy is calculated by adding the net educational enrolment rates for each single year of age and age band. The net enrolment rates are calculated by dividing the number of students (ISCED 0 to 6) of a particular age or age group by the number of persons in the population in the same age or age band.

the length of compulsory schooling, pre-primary education access and patterns, the different types of provision (vocational or general) in upper-secondary education and the way pupils are oriented towards them, the type of admission and the variety of provision in tertiary education. Beyond compulsory education, school expectancy is also affected, among other factors (e.g. socio-economic conditions) by the fact that parents and pupils often balance their investment in education against the prospect of higher future earnings and protection against unemployment.[24]

Table 6.2 presents the life expectancy and school expectancy at different ages. The years that a child at age 6 – the legal age of starting school in the country – can expect to participate in education is close to 14 years. This means that around 19 percent of the child's remaining life – on average 72.6 years – will be spent in education. This part of life spent in education is the same for girls and boys, but both school expectancy and life expectancy for girls are higher.

Table 6.2: Life expectancy and school expectancy, by sex, and by selected age

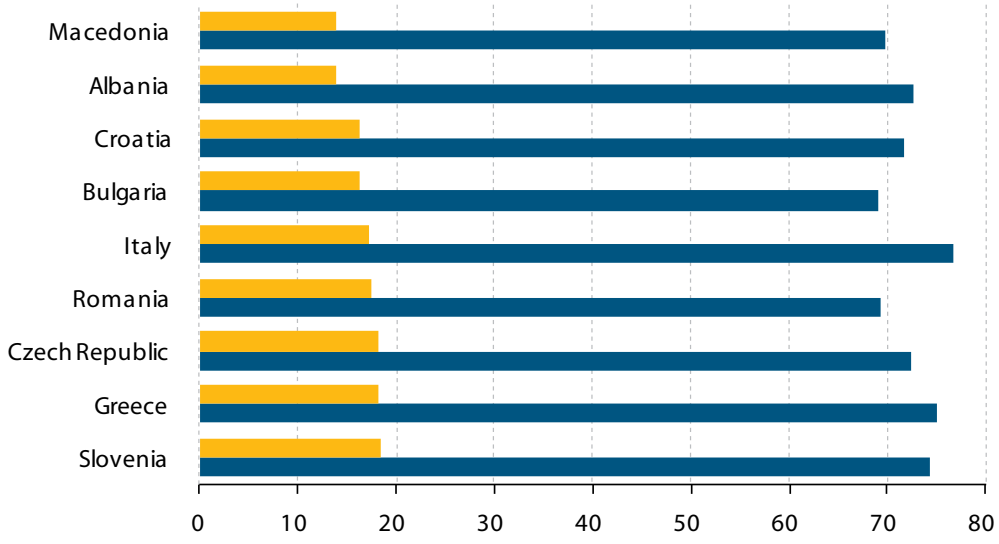
Life expectancy and school expectancy, sex	Age			
	6	15	20	25
Life expectancy				
Both sexes	72.6	63.8	58.9	54.1
Males	70.3	61.6	56.8	52.0
Females	74.9	66.1	61.2	56.3
School expectancy				
Both sexes	13.8	5.2	1.8	0.6
Males	13.7	5.1	1.7	0.6
Females	14.0	5.4	2.0	0.5

Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

A child who enters the life stage of youth has on average still 5.2 years of education to look forward to, for girls slightly more and for boys slightly less. This figure at age 20 has reduced to 1.8 years and further decrease to 0.6 years for the oldest youth at age 29.

The school expectancy of Albanian children at age 6 is below any EU country. *Figure 6.4* shows the school expectancy at age 6 of Albania and selected countries in the region and beyond, among which Albania is the second lowest. However, in terms of life Albania performs well among these countries.

Figure 6.4: School expectancy and life expectancy at age 6 for selected countries



Source: Eurostat[25]

24 Youth in Europe, A statistical portrait, Eurostat 2009
25 http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tps00052&plugin=1

6.3 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND DROPOUT

6.3.1 Educational attainment[26]

Educational attainment is the visible output of education systems and a measure of their success. For individuals, achievement levels have a major impact, both personally and professionally, on the quality of life and job opportunities. Although the level of education in a country's population is not necessarily a good measure of the quality of education, it enables a comparable quantification of the performance of the education and the competences of the population, both across countries and over time.

The 2011 Population and Housing Census included two questions on the completed education of the population. *Table 6.3* gives an overview of the level of completed education of the population 25 years and over, which is supposed to have completed the full cycle of education. The data show a clear improvement of the educational level attained by successively younger age groups. The percentage of population that never attended school has significantly decrease from 15 percent for persons 65 years of age and older to only 3 percent for persons 25-39 years old. A larger improvement in this respect is attributed to women, as this indicator for the younger age group is only around one-tenth (2 percent) of that of the oldest age group (21 percent).

Table 6.3: Population 25 years of age and over, by age group, sex, and by educational attainment (in percentages)

Education level	Age group								
	25-39			40-64			65 +		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
Never attended school	2.6	3.0	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.8	14.7	7.4	21.3
Primary	2.1	2.8	2.2	5.7	4.4	7.7	37.5	34.1	43.9
Lower Secondary	47.1	45.2	48.9	43.5	39.7	47.2	25.3	28.5	22.5
Upper Secondary	29.8	33.7	25.9	37.7	41.7	33.8	14.3	19.3	9.6
Tertiary	18.1	15.2	20.8	11.0	12.4	9.5	6.5	10.7	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

High school attendance has become one feasible desire to achieve for young people. This can be seen by the increase of attainment of tertiary education: 18 percent of the population 25-39 years old has completed this level, compared with 7 percent of the population 65 and over. Again, most improvement was achieved for women. With 21 percent, women aged 25-39 had a 7 times larger share with tertiary education than the oldest age group 65 years and over. Also noticeable is that the percentage of young adult women with tertiary education (21 percent) is higher than the corresponding percentage young adult men (15 percent).

Focusing on the specific youth age group 15-29, *Table 6.4* shows the trend in educational attainment between the last two censuses, confirming the improvement in educational attainment by age found in Table 6.3. The share of young people with only the compulsory level of education of lower secondary school dropped from around two thirds (64 percent) in 2001 to half (50 percent) in 2011. The main upward shift occurred not so much towards upper secondary education (from 25 to 32 percent), but even to completed tertiary education, which increased from 4 to 14 percent. Whereas the distribution of the level of completed education between men and women was very similar in 2001, ten years later women obtained considerably more often a tertiary education degree then men (17 against 11 percent).

The change in youth educational attainment was also remarkable in absolute numbers. The number of young people with only compulsory schooling up to lower secondary education decreased from 526 to 369 thousand. On the other hand, the number with upper secondary education qualification increased from 186 to 218 thousand (an – exclusively male – addition of 17 percent), while the stock of youth with tertiary education increased from 28 to 97 thousand, a more than three-fold increase. The added number of youth with an advanced education degree consisted of around 28 thousand men and even close to 40 thousand women.

26 Educational attainment refers to the highest level successfully completed in the educational system of the country where the education was received, even if this was received outside schools and universities.

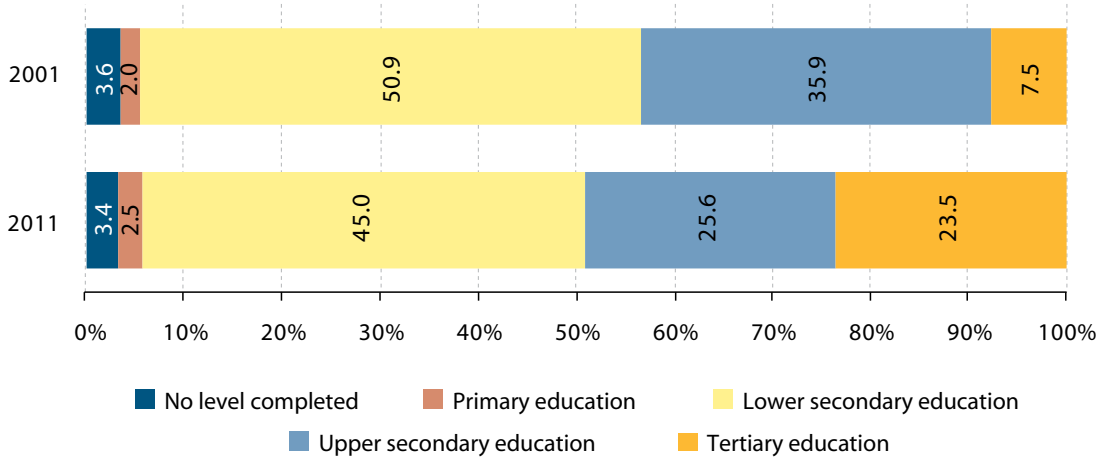
Table 6.4: Youth population aged 15-29, by census year, sex, and by highest level of completed education

Highest level of completed education	Census year, sex					
	2001			2011		
	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
a. In thousands						
Total	740.4	358.0	382.4	683.0	362.7	341.6
No level completed	17.3	9.4	8.0	3.5	1.8	1.7
Primary education	31.4	17.7	13.7	22.3	12.5	9.8
Lower secondary education	477.1	232.1	245.0	341.9	176.0	165.9
Upper secondary education	186.2	88.3	97.9	217.9	122.7	95.2
Tertiary education	28.4	10.5	17.9	97.4	38.9	58.4
b. In percentages						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	97.0	96.9
No level completed	2.3	2.6	2.1	0.5	0.5	0.5
Primary education	4.2	5.0	3.6	3.3	3.4	2.9
Lower secondary education	64.4	64.8	64.1	50.1	48.5	48.6
Upper secondary education	25.1	24.7	25.6	31.9	33.8	27.9
Tertiary education	3.8	2.9	4.7	14.3	10.7	17.1

Sources: Population and Housing censuses 2001 and 2011

Since a large part of youth is still attending education, the observation of highest level of education is truncated and under represents the final levels achieved. A more accurate picture can be obtained by looking at the age group 25-29, consisting of persons who passed the principle age for education. In *Figure 6.5* it can be seen that the share with only compulsory education (up to lower secondary education) or without any diploma has decreased and especially the share that completed tertiary education has increased dramatically from 8 percent in 2001 to 24 percent in 2011.

Figure 6.5: Youth aged 25-29, by census year, sex, and by highest level of completed education (in percentages)



Sources: Population and Housing censuses 2001 and 2011

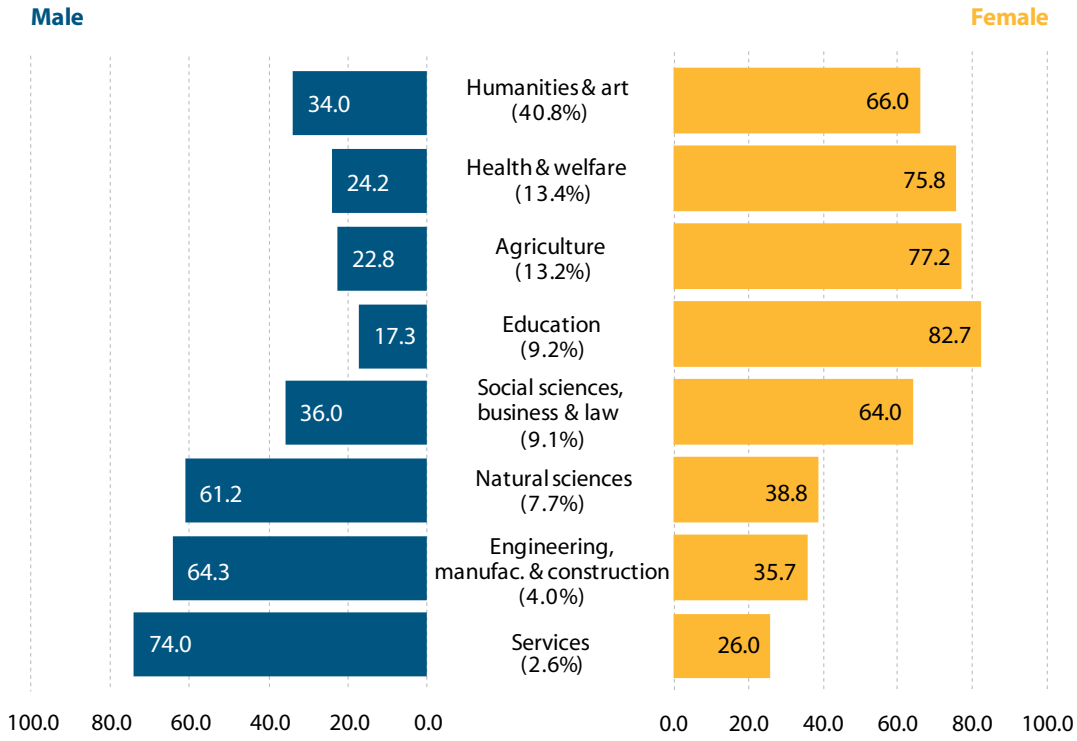
Despite improvements, in European perspective, Albania lags behind in educational achievement. Just over four fifths (82 percent) of the EU-28's population aged 20 to 24 had completed at least an upper secondary level of education (Eurostat 2015d), compared to 59 percent of Albania's 20-24 year olds. If Albania wants to catch up with the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training that was adopted in 2009, it has to perform against a benchmark of a percentage of at least 40 percent of the population aged 30–34 with tertiary educational attainment (*ibid.*). In the 2011 census this age group recorded only 16 percent with completed tertiary education (14 percent for men and 19 percent for women).

6.3.2 University diplomas

The number of graduates from higher education has enormously increased since the 2001 census and continues to increase: the figure of 2014 is almost double that of 2009. Humanities & Arts is the field of university studies that produced largest number of graduations, accounting for 41 percent of all graduations in 2014 (*Figure 6.6*). Other major fields are Health & Welfare and Agriculture (each with 13 percent of graduations), Education and Social sciences, Business & Law (both with 9 percent) and Natural sciences (8 percent) (INSTAT 2015).

Some 66 percent of university graduates were women. The field of study that is most dominated by women is Education (83 percent), followed by Agriculture and Health & Welfare, by respectively 77 and 76 percent. Natural sciences, Engineering, Manufacturing & Construction (36 percent), Natural Sciences (39 percent) and Services (26 percent) are the only fields where women graduates are in the minority.

Figure 6.6: University graduates, by main field of study, and by sex (in percentages)



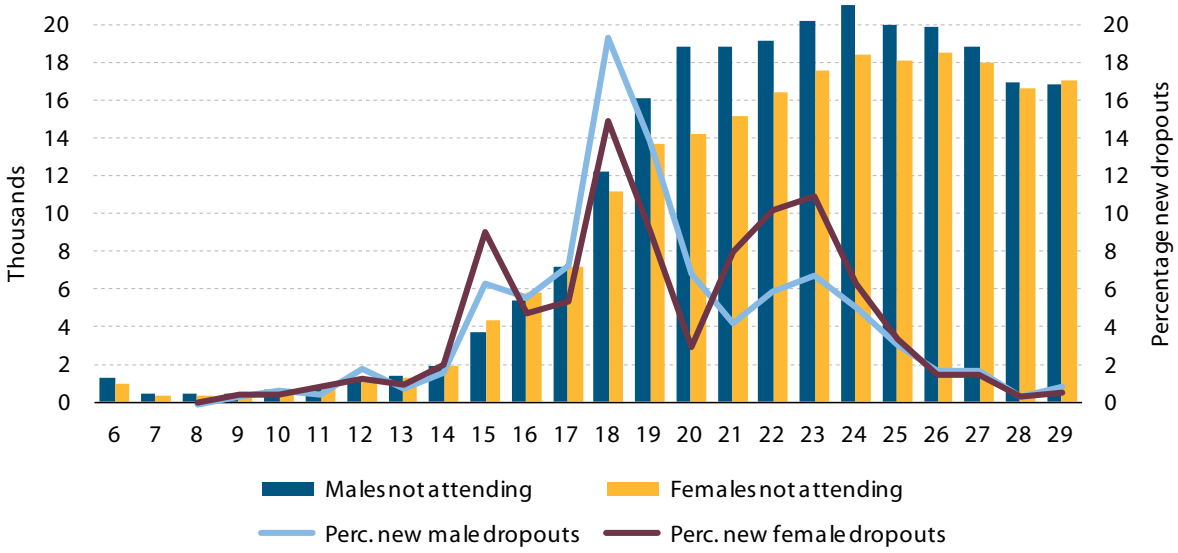
Source: Ministry of Education and Sports

6.3.3 Dropping out of education

Although at a certain point in the life course every person ends his or her educational career, specific policy attention is required for those who prematurely drop out from the educational system. *Figure 6.7* combines information about the absolute number of persons not attending education and the percentage not-in-education that is added by age.[27] Additional dropouts are low, but slightly rising until age 15, which corresponds with the period of compulsory education. Coinciding with the age of transition between lower and upper secondary education around age 15, 6 percent of boys and 9 percent of girls end their educational career, most of them with a certificate of completed basic education. The subsequent two young adult years sustain a raised level of between 5 and 7 percent dropout per year, until a dropout peak is reached between age 17 and 18, with 19 percent boys and 15 percent girls leaving school upon completing general secondary education. Also students ageing from 18 to 19 are prone end their education (an additional 14 percent of male and 9 percent of female students), often representing students who continued with technical-vocational secondary school. The third peak from ages 21 to 24 signifies the completion of tertiary vocational and academic education.

27 It should be noticed that the percentage not-in-education is calculated on the basis of the difference in attendance rates of successive ages and not on the basis of actual transition rates.

Figure 6.7: Population aged 6-29 not attending education, by sex, and by age (in thousands); and percentage new dropouts, by sex, and by age



Source: Population and Housing census 2011

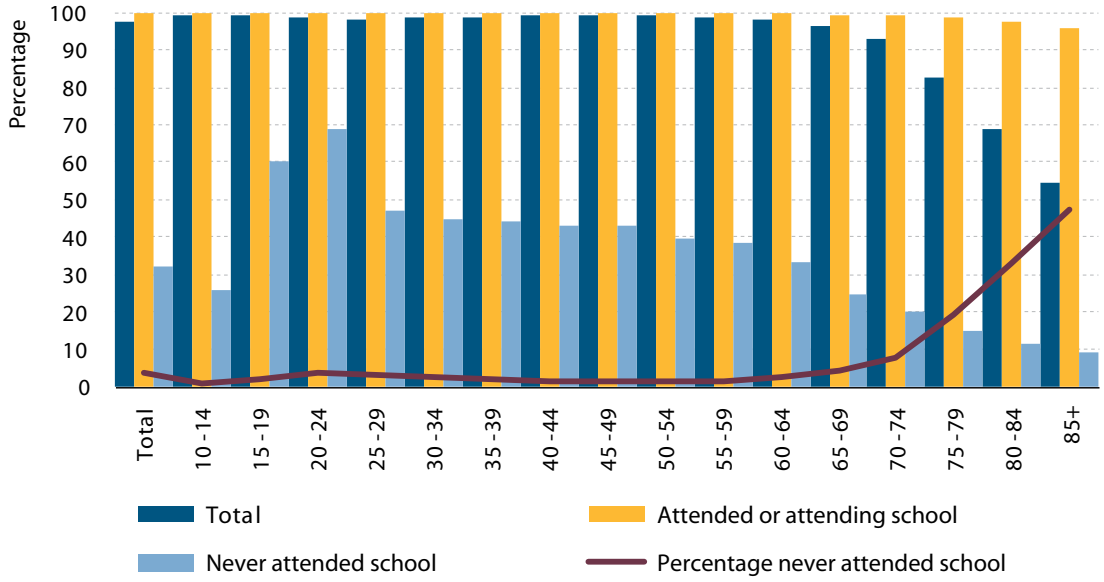
The pattern shown in *Figure 6.7* indicates that girls are more vulnerable for dropping out in the transition from lower to upper secondary education, while a larger share of boys discontinue from upper secondary to tertiary education. All together almost 34 thousand children aged 15-17 (21 percent) did not attend education. The higher dropout rates for women from age 21 onwards reflect the higher female participation rates in tertiary education and, consequently, also higher dropout rates when this education stage is completed.

6.4 LITERACY[28]

Literacy is a fundamental human right and the foundation for lifelong learning. It is fully essential to social and human development in its ability to transform lives. Literacy is closely related to school attendance and educational attainment. *Figure 6.8* presents literacy rates by age, separately for those who ever attended school and those who never did. It shows that among the total population (the darkest columns) literacy is almost universal up to age 70. However, for the – small – group of persons who never attended any school (the lightest columns), the literacy rates are obviously much lower, declining from 69 percent among the 20-24 year olds to 9 percent among those aged 85 and older. The overall literacy rates for persons 70 and older decrease with age because the share of persons who never attended school increases with age (from 8 percent for 70-74 year olds to 47 percent among the oldest age group; the yellow line), but also because some elderly people indicate they cannot read and write because they have lost eye sight: also among those with education, literacy declines at old age.

28 Literacy is defined as the ability both to read and to write. A persons who can with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his everyday life is literate.

Figure 6.8: Literacy rate, by age, and by school attendance status; percentage never attended school, by age



Source: Population and Housing census 2011

The indicator of literacy rate for youth aged 15-24 is used as one of the indicators to monitor the achievement of MDG goal 2, *Achieve universal primary education*. It reflects the outcomes of primary education over the previous 10 years or so and is a measure of the effectiveness of the primary education system. In Albania this youth literacy rate is almost universal (99 percent), probably with the small remaining share not able to read and write because of physical or mental health problems. Also when including the youngest age group 15-19 in the youth population, literacy rate stands at a high 99 percent. Youth literacy in the previous census was as high as in 2011. Altogether, the 2011 census recorded 8.6 thousand young people aged 15-29 who cannot read and write, and 67.5 thousand in the total population, more than half (58 percent) of whom are 70 years or older.

The ratio of literate women to men, 15–24 years old, was previously an indicator to monitor MDG goal 3, *Promote gender equality and empower women*. Given the almost universal primary education for both girls and boys in the past few decades, it does not come as a surprise that equity for this literacy gender parity index has been recorded by the last two censuses.

7 EMPLOYMENT

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the life course, the youth ages usually signify the conclusion of education, but for many at the same time also the transition to employment and the establishment of a professional career. Yet young people have been hit particularly hard by the effects of the financial and ensuing economic crisis. The 2011 census, and in particular the recurrent Labour Force Surveys (LFSs) provide a wealth of information to evaluate the situation of youth on the labour market. Since the LFS is the better instrument to capture the intricacies of the labour market and is also the source underlying official labour statistics, this survey provides the main basis for the present chapter. For zooming-in on smaller age categories within the youth population, census results are used, whereby it should be noticed that these are more relevant to identify specific patterns and not so much levels of labour indicators. Most of the findings indicate that in terms of both employment and unemployment, youth constitute a population segment with highly specific and compelling needs, with intricate gender and education linkages.

7.2 INSTITUTIONAL INVOLVEMENT IN EMPLOYMENT CREATION

Several employment promotion programs (EPPs) have been implemented in Albania since 1999, with the aim to reduce unemployment and informal work, increase worker employability, and move workers into regular non-subsidized employment. At the time of the 2011 census, four main employment promotion programs were implemented by the National Employment Service:

1. Programme of encouraging employment of unemployed job seekers in difficulty, including long-term unemployed receiving social assistance, individuals receiving unemployment benefits, newcomers on the labour market, persons age 18-25, persons over age 45 years with secondary education or less, people with disabilities, Roma people, and return migrants who face economic problems.
2. Programme of encouraging employment through on the job training
3. Programme of encouraging employment of unemployed job seekers graduated from Albanian and international universities.
4. Program of encouraging employment through the institutional training.

Despite the fact that youth has very high unemployment rates compared to other age groups, only the first of these programmes mentioned above included youth among its target groups. More recently, three additional programmes are being implemented, of which one (Programme 6 mentioned below) specifically targets youth.

5. Programme of encouraging employment of unemployed female jobseekers from special groups.
6. Programme of encouraging employment of unemployed youth aged 16-25 entering the labour market for the first time (later extended to youth up to age 30).[29]
7. Programme of encouraging employment of people with disability.

An assessment of the relevance, effectiveness and efficiency of employment promotion programmes in 2014 (Ministry of Social Welfare and Youth 2014) concluded that in view of the persistency of youth unemployment, the effectiveness of youth employment promotion programs was considered questionable. A further conclusion was that there should better differentiate programmes according to the needs of specific target groups (both the companies and jobseekers) through diversifying the programmes and/ or creating new ones.

29 This programme has mainly benefited the companies that operate in the area of food and beverage services (26 percent), wholesale and retail trade (21.7 percent), and public administration (14.2 percent) in cities.

7.3 WORKING OR NOT? PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET

7.3.1 Labour force participation

Results of both the 2011 census and the 2011 LFS indicate that whereas youth made up 37 percent of the working age population (the persons aged 15-64), their share in the economically active population (the labour force, including employed and unemployed persons) was less than 30 percent. This underrepresentation is reflected in lower levels of the labour force participation rate.[30] According to the LFS 2011, the labour force participation rate of youth aged 15-29 was 54.8 percent, compared to 76.7 percent in the population 30-64 years of age (*Table 1*; LFS 2011).

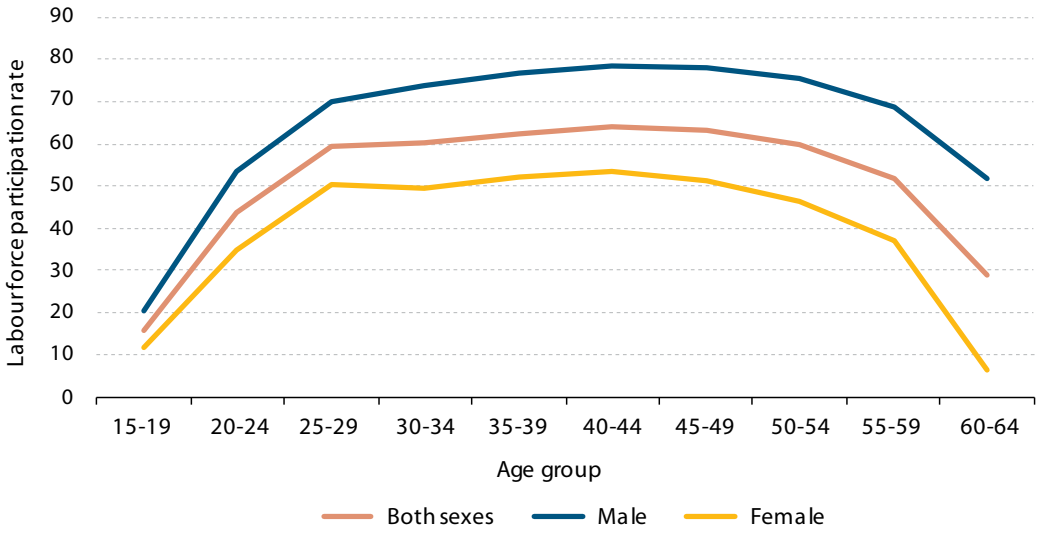
Table 7.1: Labour force participation rate, by sex, and by main age group

Age	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	68.5	76.4	60.8
15-29	54.8	62.2	47.0
30-64	76.7	85.2	68.6

Source: LFS 2011

Census data show a significantly lower level for labour force participation (37 percent) than the LFS data, but allow an investigation into the age pattern of labour force participation within the youth population. The further age breakdown of census results reveals a rapid increase in the labour force participation rate over the period of youth (*Figure 7.1*). The participation rate of the youngest age group (15-19) is very low, but that of the highest youth age group (25-29) comes close to the level that is maintained by the remaining adult period until the early 50s.

Figure 7.1: Labour force participation rate, by age, and by sex



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

7.3.2 Reasons for not working

Low labour force participation rates are not a priori a negative indication of labour market performance or employability of the population. Their assessment should be evaluated in conjunction with the reasons for being inactive, which is specifically relevant for youth. For youth, the educational career is the main process competing with engagement in economic activities: almost two-thirds (65.9) of the economically inactive persons in the age group 15-29 are inactive because of enrolment in education and training (*Table 7.2*; LFS 2011 data). For the population aged 30-64, the importance of this reason is insignificant.

30 The ratio of the employed and unemployed persons in the working-age population (15-64) to the total working-age population, expressed as a percentage.

Table 7.2: Inactive population aged 15-64, by main age group, sex, and by reason for inactivity (in percentages)

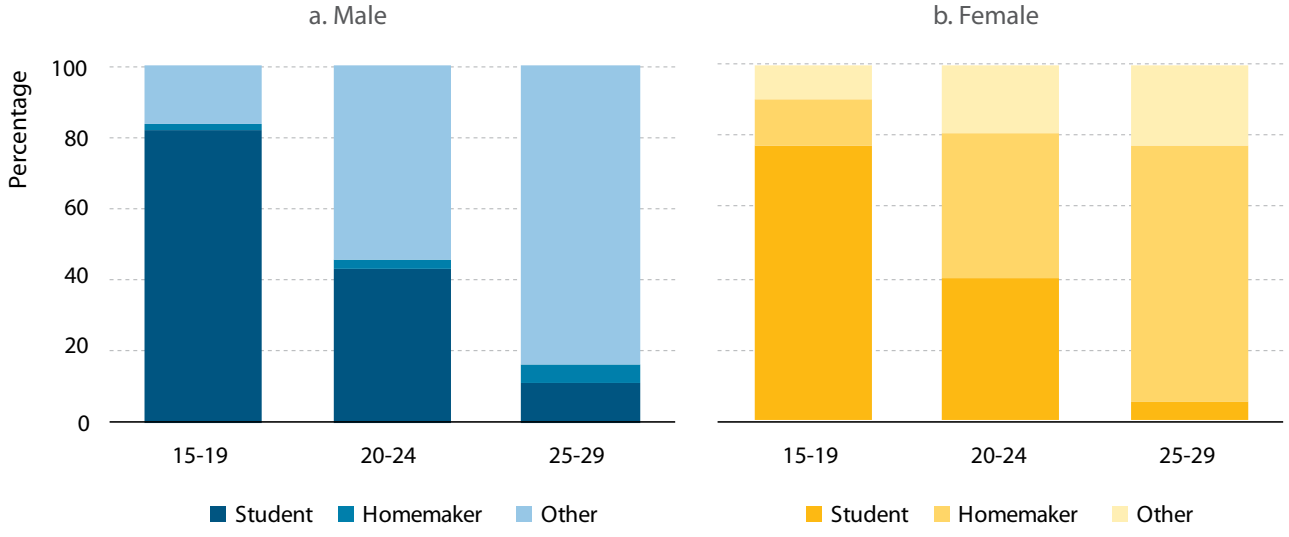
Sex	15-29			30-64		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Student, training	65.9	73.9	59.8	0.1	0.2	0.0
Domestic tasks	10.5	0.0	18.5	19.7	0.8	28.2
Discouraged worker	7.2	8.2	6.5	19.7	24.5	17.5
Other	16.3	17.9	15.2	60.5	74.5	54.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey 2011

For female youth, family formation and household tasks are additional competing careers, as reflected in the share not working because of domestic tasks (18.5 percent). For male youth – as well as for older male adults – this reason for not being economically active is virtually non-existent, indicating the persistence of traditional gender roles in Albanian society. The additional role as mother, home maker and care taker is the main cause of the lower female labour participation rate among youth (47.0 percent against 62.2 percent for male youth; see *Table 7.1*; see also *Figure 7.1*). To a lesser extent, higher female educational attendance rates (see chapter 6) adds to the gender gap in economic activity among youth. Although both reasons reduce the female labour force participation in youth, on the long run their effects are likely to be opposite. Whereas the occupation with domestic tasks in general may undermine female independence and integration in the labour market, longer educational enrolment will strengthen the position of women and enhance the opportunities on the labour market.

A further youth age break-down based on census data shows that the effect of education as reason for not engaging in labour market activity is concentrated in the youngest age group 15-19, to a much lesser extent among 20-24 year olds, and is hardly mentioned among the oldest youth (aged 25-29) (*Figure 7.2*)[31]. This roughly reflects, respectively, the generally high enrolment in secondary education, lower enrolment in higher education and completed education in the respective age groups. Although this pattern is similar for men and women, the reasons that replace education as the main reason for not being economically active are very gender-specific. For women it is mainly household-related tasks, whereas for men it is mainly other reasons, including health-related reasons and discouragement in finding a job.

Figure 7.2: Inactive population 15-29 years of age, by sex, and by age, and by reason of inactivity (in percentages)



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

31 It should be noted that the reasons for being inactive mentioned in the census are different from those in the LFS. However, the similarity of the categories is considered sufficient for the present analysis.

Conceptualisation of employment and unemployment

Albania applies international standards a for the definition of labour indicators. Accordingly, employed persons include all persons aged 15 and above who, during the reference week before data collection, were working for pay or profit for least one hour. Unemployed persons include those persons (aged 15-74), who were (a) without work during the reference week, (b) currently available for work and (c) actively seeking work in the four weeks ending with the reference week.b This report limits the upper age range to 64 when comparing youth and older adult populations.

It has been recognised that for many countries, the standard dichotomy of employed-unemployed insufficiently captures the relevant characteristics of the labour market. This is especially the case for countries with immature social security systems – such as unemployment and pension systems – and informal economies with low-paid and low-productivity employment. In such countries, unemployment figures fail to identify the lack of decent and productive work that is required to provide for sufficient and sustainable income or livelihood. In order to identify this section of the employed, this report distinguishes the underemployed, consisting of persons who were (a) working 35 hours or less in the reference week and (b) willing to work more hours (time-related underemployment). Together with the unemployed, the underemployed constitute the population of not-gainfully employed.

a See ICLS 1982.

b For the comprehensive definitions, see e.g. INSTAT 2014b.

7.4 EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

7.4.1 Youth in employment

For 2011, the LFS estimated the employed population of working age to be over 1.1 million people, of whom over 306 thousand (27.2 percent) in the youth age category 15-29. Among these working youth were 177 thousand men and 130 thousand women. Next to the unemployment rate (section 7.5.1), the employment-to-population ratio is a key indicator to measure the ability of an economy to create employment. This ratio is one of the indicators to measure progress towards MDG target 1B for 'achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people'. This MDG indicator for Albania in 2011, based on LFS data, was 58.7 percent in 2011 (*Table 7.3*). For youth, the employment-to-population ratio is considerably lower – 42.8 percent – because larger shares of young people are economically inactive (importantly because of education) or unemployed (see sections 7.3 and 7.5.1).

Table 7.3: Employment-to-population ratio, by sex, and by main age group

Age	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	58.7	65.7	51.8
15-29	42.8	48.0	37.3
30-64	68.2	76.7	60.1

Source: LFS 2011

There is significant differentiation in the proportion working by age and sex within the total youth group. The level is lower for young women than for young men (37.3 against 48.0 percent; Table 7.3) and difference by age is much more pronounced. According to the census data, the proportion employed among the youngest youth age group (15-19) is approximately only one-sixth of the figure for the total working age population. On the other hand, for the oldest youth age group (25-29), the level is just above that of the total working age population for males and even significantly higher for females (data not shown).

Since 2011, the employment situation has deteriorated significantly and affected youth much more than the population 30-65 years of age, whereas the employment-to-population ratio decreased from 68.2 in 2011 to 62.7 percent in 2014 (a decrease of 8 percent), that of youth went down from 42.8 to 28.2 percent (a decrease of 34 percent). For female youth, the value was only 23.3 (a decrease of 38 percent), implying that in 2014 less than one in four women worked.

7.4.2 Characteristics of employed youth: many in vulnerable employment

The classification of employed persons by status in employment gives an indication of the types of economic risk that the employed face in their work, the strength of institutional attachment between the person and the job, and the type of authority over establishments and other workers. Advanced economies tend to have large proportions of workers in waged or salaried employment, whereas underdeveloped and informal economies tend to have large proportions of own-account workers. Importance of contributing family workers usually also indicates poor development, little job growth, widespread poverty and often a large rural economy. The MDG indicator 1.7 to measure progress towards full and productive employment and decent work for all (Target 1.B) groups these two latter categories for the estimation of the proportion in 'vulnerable employment'. Own-account workers and contributing family workers share the lower likelihood of having formal work arrangements, and are therefore more likely to lack elements associated with decent employment, such as adequate social security and a voice at work.

Table 7.4 shows for Albania the characteristics of an underdeveloped and informal economy with a relatively low proportion of paid and salaried employees, and fairly large proportions of own-account workers and contributing family workers. A majority of 58.1 percent of the employed population is classified as being in vulnerable employment. Youth workers do not much distinguish themselves from older adult workers in terms of status in employment distribution, except that the proportion of own-account workers is smaller and that of contributing family workers – usually the younger generation assisting in a family business – is larger. Overall, the share in vulnerable employment among youth (60.6 percent, corresponding to some 186 thousand young people) is only little above that of the 30-64 age group (57.2 percent). Similarly, the proportion employees among youth (38.2 percent, 117 thousand people) is only little below that of the older working population (40.6 percent).

Table 7.4: Employed population by status in employment, and by sex, main age group

Sex, age group	Total	Employee	Employer	Own-account worker	Contributing family worker	Paid employment-to-employed population ratio	Vulnerable employment rate
Both sexes	100.0	40.0	1.9	27.3	30.8	40.0	58.1
15-29	100.0	38.2	1.2	16.7	43.9	38.2	60.6
30-64	100.0	40.6	2.1	31.3	25.9	40.6	57.2
Male	100.0	43.3	2.4	32.8	21.6	43.3	54.3
15-29	100.0	41.3	0.8	17.8	40.1	41.3	57.9
30-64	100.0	44.1	3.0	38.6	14.3	44.1	52.9
Female	100.0	35.8	1.2	20.5	42.5	35.8	63.0
15-29	100.0	34.0	1.7	15.1	49.2	34.0	64.3
30-64	100.0	36.4	1.0	22.4	40.1	36.4	62.5

Source: LFS 2011

The gender profiles show larger differences, with a relatively high proportion of male youth in wage and salaried employment (41.3 percent) and a relatively high proportion female youth working as contributing family member (49.2). Consequently, young female workers have a higher vulnerable employment rate than their male counterparts (64.3 against 57.9 percent).

LFS 2014 data suggest a positive change in the sense that the overall vulnerability employment rate has decreased due to a distribution shift in the status in employment from own-account and contributing family workers to formal employees. This shift is almost exclusively concentrated in the youth age category, and particularly so for female youth. The youth vulnerability employment rate dropped from 60.6 to 47.7 percent (representing 95 thousand persons), with almost the same level for both sexes.

7.4.3 Characteristics of employed youth: in what economic sectors do they work?

Agriculture remains by far the most important sector of economic activity in Albania in terms of employment. The LFS 2011 indicates that 44.1 percent of working persons is employed in this sector, followed by market services (20.7 percent)[32] and non-market services (15.9 percent) (*Table 7.5*).[33] For youth, in particular for young women, the agriculture sector is even more important for employment opportunities (for 51.1 percent), in many instances for contributing family workers. This sector employed around 157 thousand youth in 2011. Market services and construction together absorb 37.0 percent of the employed male youth (65 thousand men), whereas market and non-market services together accommodated 30.1 percent of employed young women (39 thousand), particularly in administrative functions.

Table 7.5: Employed working-age population, by sector of economic activity, by sex and main age group

Age	Total	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Construction	Mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply	Market services	Non-market services
Both sexes	100.0	44.1	7.9	8.4	3.0	20.7	15.9
15-29	100.0	51.1	6.7	10.3	1.6	18.8	11.5
30-64	100.0	41.5	8.3	7.7	3.6	21.4	17.5
Male	100.0	36.9	6.9	13.9	4.6	23.4	14.4
15-29	100.0	44.7	6.3	15.8	2.8	21.2	9.3
30-64	100.0	33.8	7.1	13.1	5.4	24.2	16.4
Female	100.0	53.3	9.1	1.5	1.0	17.4	17.8
15-29	100.0	59.9	7.2	2.9	0.0	15.6	14.4
30-64	100.0	50.9	9.8	1.0	1.4	18.0	18.9

Source: LFS 2011

Similarly to the observed shifts in status in employment, changes in the distribution of sectors of employment point at a transformation of the Albanian economy, which particularly affected the employment of youth. In 2014, the agriculture sector employed only 38.1 percent of working youth (13 percentage points lower than in 2011; data not shown). Also the construction sector lost a noticeable share of, foremost male, employed persons (4.2 percentage points), whereas the market services and manufacturing sectors relatively increased in importance (respectively with 10.1 and 4.2 percentage points). It should be noticed that all economic sectors decreased in terms of absolute numbers of employed persons,[34] due to the overall shift from employment to unemployment and particularly inactivity.

7.4.4 Characteristics of employed youth: what jobs do they have?

In line with the employment distribution across economic sectors, the occupation group containing agricultural workers is the largest category, and again particularly so for employed youth (62.8 percent) (*Table 7.6*). It is interesting to observe that, although the total number of men and women employed in the highest-skill occupations (managers, professionals and technicians) is about the same, among youth women are in a clear majority in this occupation group (an estimated 21 thousand against 16 thousand men), for which extended female education is a likely contributing factor.

32 Trade, transportation, accommodation and food, and business- and administrative services
33 Public administration, community-, social- and other services and activities
34 With the possible exception of the manufacturing sector.

Table 7.6: Employed working-age population, by occupation, and by sex, main age group

Age	Total	Managers, professionals, and technicians	Clerical, service and sales workers	Skilled agricultural and trades workers	Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	Elementary occupations	Armed forces
Both sexes	100.0	12.9	17.0	55.5	7.0	6.8	0.7
15-29	100.0	11.9	13.7	62.8	4.5	6.4	0.7
30-64	100.0	13.2	18.3	52.8	8.0	7.0	0.8
Male	100.0	11.7	17.5	53.3	9.9	6.3	1.3
15-29	100.0	9.1	14.5	62.0	6.1	7.1	1.2
30-64	100.0	12.7	18.6	49.8	11.5	6.0	1.3
Female	100.0	14.3	16.5	58.3	3.4	7.4	0.1
15-29	100.0	15.8	12.6	63.8	2.3	5.5	0.0
30-64	100.0	13.8	17.8	56.4	3.8	8.1	0.1

Source: LFS 2011

The category of managers, professionals and technicians is also the only occupation group that increased in size in both absolute and relative terms between 2011 and 2014, while the occupation group including agricultural workers lost most employed persons in both absolute and relative terms in this period.

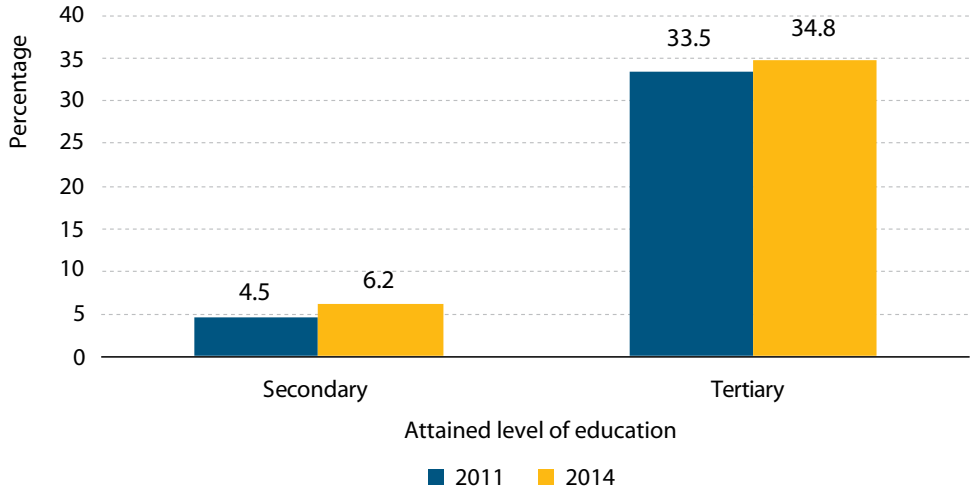
7.4.5 Characteristics of employed youth: do they fit their job?

Skill mismatch is one of the main challenges faced by economies. Empirical evidence shows that, in far too many cases, workers are not well-matched with their current jobs. Some are over-skilled for their current jobs – they are capable of handling more complex tasks and their skills are underused – while others are under-skilled for their current jobs – they lack the skills normally needed for their job. Under-qualification is likely to negatively affect productivity and the quality of work. Over-qualification may lead to skills loss and a waste of the resources that were used to acquire these skills. In addition, over-qualified workers earn less than workers who are well-matched to their jobs and tend to be less satisfied at work. This situation generates more employee turnover, which is likely to affect a firm's productivity.

On the basis of LFS data, a 'normative measure' of skill mismatch was calculated, which assigns required education qualifications to specific occupation groups.[35] A mismatch occurs when a person has higher or lower qualifications than the level that is assigned to the person's job. *Figure 7.3* indicates that most employed youth with secondary education work in a job that fits their education level: only 4.5 percent worked in a job that required less or more than secondary school. On the other hand the mismatch rate for tertiary-educated youth workers was very high – 33.5 percent in 2011. As this is the group with the highest education, a mismatch here implies that people are over-qualified for their job. Such high mismatch rates are an indication of either labour markets with high unemployment or a bad fit between the education system output and labour market demand, or a combination of both. Follow-up research is required to investigate into the opportunities to make the education system better fit labour market demands. LFS 2014 data show an increase in the level of skills mismatch, which is a trend consistent with other countries in Europe during the economic crisis (ILO 2014).

35 The methodology based on ISCED and ISCO classifications for, respectively, education and occupation, is described in ILO 2014a.

Figure 7.3: Skills mismatch rate of employed population with at least secondary education, by highest education level attained, and by survey year



Source: LFS 2011 and 2014

It should be noted that the presented mismatch measure is based on qualifications rather than on skills. The Albania Skills Needs Assessment 2014 indicated that – from the perspective of businesses, the main problem was not so much the level of qualification, but more the appropriate of type skills obtained in education and training that was lacking (ILO 2014b). However, this again points out to the importance of improving the relevance of education curricula and acknowledging that vocational and tertiary qualifications are no guarantee for employment or decent work.

7.4.6 Child labour

In Albania's context of a significantly informal and agricultural economy and the importance of contributing family workers, the prevalence of child labour is likely to be relatively high. Child labour is a category of work performed by children aged 5-17 that, by its nature or duration, is considered harmful for a child of a specific age (ILO 2008). The segment of this age group that is 15-17 years old overlaps with the target group of youth that is the subject of this report. Available survey data can only provide limited information on child labour for this small segment, but problems identified on the basis of general child-labour data sufficiently warrant attention for the 15-17 year old children as well.

The 2010 National Child Labour Survey indicated that in Albania 5.1 percent of children aged 5-17 (6.2 percent of boys and 3.9 percent of girls) are engaged in child labour (ILO and INSTAT 2012). The large majority of these children (80.6 percent) worked as agricultural labourers and as unpaid family worker (95.2 percent). Because of working too long hours and/or in hazardous conditions, child labourers are disadvantaged compared to other children. Thus, 89.1 percent of non-working youth aged 15-17 attended school, compared to only 54.0 percent for child labourers in that age bracket. Also, among all child labourers, 10.8 sustained injuries and/or illnesses as a result of the work they performed.

7.5 UNTAPPED YOUTH RESOURCES: UNEMPLOYMENT AND UNDEREMPLOYMENT

7.5.1 Unemployment and underemployment[36]

Youth unemployment and youth employment opportunities are viewed as an important policy issue for many countries. Young people tend to be more vulnerable and disillusion in livelihood opportunities negatively affects the ability of young people to embark on an independent and full life course. Young people are also particularly affected by the present economic crisis (EC 2013, ILO 2012) and widespread youth unemployment may be an important cause of social unrest, affecting communities and the society at large.

The unemployment rate[37] is a key indicator to measure the capacity of the labour market to provide income opportunities to the population and to measure the utilisation of the labour force. For Albania, the LFS 2011 indicated an unemployment rate for youth of 21.9 percent (*Table 7.7*), suggesting that some 86 thousand persons aged 15-29 – 52 thousand young men and 34 thousand young women – could not find any job at all. The figure for youth is twice as high as that for the remaining adult population (11.1 percent), which is a common finding for many countries. Census 2011 data reveal that the unemployment rate is especially high in the youngest youth age group (15-19): 40 percent higher than that of the overall 15-29 population.

Table 7.7: Unemployment rate, time-related unemployment rate and not-gainful employment rate, by sex, and by main age group (2011)

Age	Unemployment rate			Time-related under-employment rate			Not-gainful employment rate		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	14.3	14.0	14.7	10.7	12.2	8.8	25.0	26.2	23.6
15-29	21.9	22.8	20.6	14.2	15.9	11.9	36.1	38.7	32.5
30-64	11.1	10.0	12.4	9.2	10.5	7.7	20.3	20.4	20.1

Source: LFS 2011

The decrease in the proportion employed between 2011 and 2014 (section 7.4.1) is mirrored in a sharp increase in unemployment over the same period. This increase is especially experienced by youth, for whom the unemployment rate rose from 21.9 percent in 2011 to 32.5 percent in 2014 (an increase of 49 percent). For the older adult age group 30-64, the corresponding increase was less pronounced: from 11.1 to 13.3 percent (an increase of 20 percent). Overall, men were more affected than women, with the unemployment rate for youth and older adult population increasing with 56 and 41 percent, respectively.

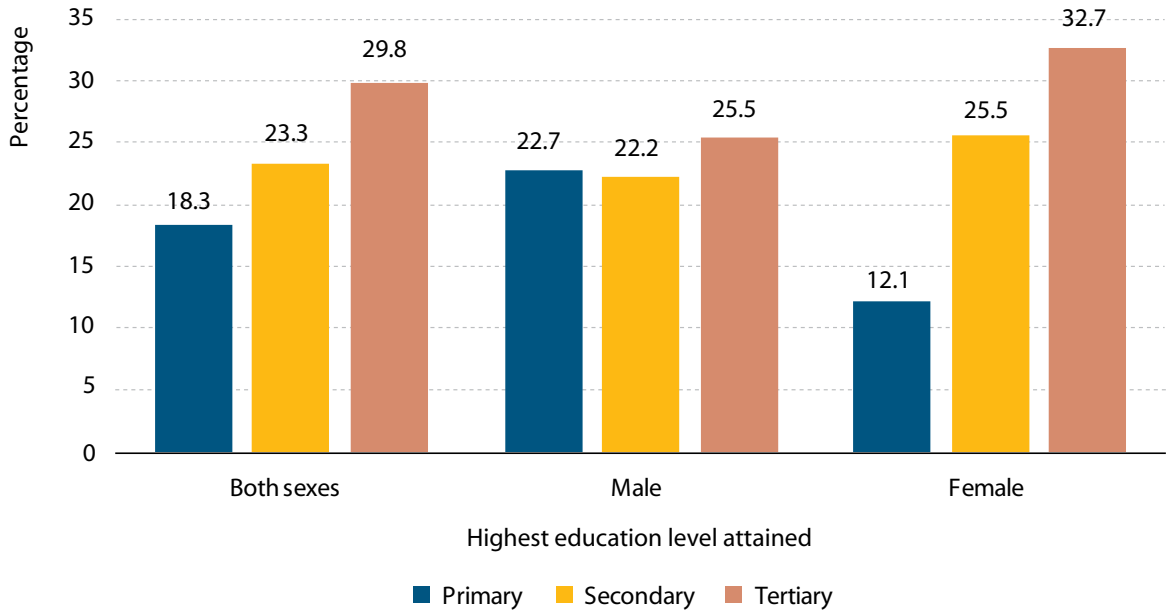
In international statistics, the standard indicator for youth unemployment refers to the age group 15-24. For Albania, the 2011 unemployment rate for the 15-24 year olds was 23.9 percent, but sharply rose to 39.0 percent in 2014 (Albania Labour Force Surveys).[38] The average youth unemployment rate of the 28 EU countries in 2012 was 23.3 percent (Eurostat database), although countries in the region often had significantly higher youth unemployment rates: Greece 55.3 percent, Croatia 42.1 percent, Kosovo 55.3 percent.

Census 2011 figures indicate an inverse relation between attained education level and the unemployment rate: the higher the educational level attained, the lower the rate of unemployment (e.g. INSTAT 2014b). However, this may be a distorted picture due to the under-reporting of farmers producing for own consumption in the census.[39] The LFS suggests an opposite relation: the unemployment rate for youth increasing with attained education, from 18 percent for those with only primary education, 23 percent for those with secondary education and close to 30 percent for tertiary educated persons (*Figure 7.4*). At closer inspection, this association is largely caused by an even more pronounced association between education and unemployment for women, with around one in three women with tertiary education being unemployed. For men in the age category 15-29, on the other hand, there is very little differentiation in the unemployment rate across educational attainment.

36 For definitions of unemployment and underemployment, see the tekst box in section 7.4
37 The unemployment rate is calculated as the percentage of the labour force (comprised by the employed and unemployed) that is unemployed.
38 Sample weighting procedures were not calibrating the sub-group of 15-24 years old. These figures are therefore subject to higher margins of error
39 As it is likely that the prevalence of engaging in farming for own consumption is negatively associated with attained education, incorrect reporting of unemployment is more likely to occur among the lower educated.

More in-depth analysis is required to explain the gender-specific relations between education and unemployment in the LFS, but this is beyond the scope of the present report. One line of explanation could explore the effect of the male breadwinner principle. This requires men to provide an income for the family, which, in the context of few job opportunities, may urge them to accept any job, even if it is below their skill level. With husbands providing a family income, women may then be more selective in finding a job and can opt for a period of unemployment. In addition, highly educated women tend to have highly educated partners, who are relatively likely to have well-paid jobs, which in turn again may affect women's selectivity job search.

Figure 7.4: Youth unemployment rate, by highest education level attained, and by sex



Source: LFS 2011

In addition to the openly unemployed, many young people are in employment that is insufficiently productive and rewarding, as indicated by the share of 14.2 percent of the youth labour force that is underemployed (Table 7.7). Together with the unemployed, this results in a share of 36.1 percent of the youth labour force – 142 thousand people – that are not gainfully employed. This situation is furthermore highlighted by the finding that for the remaining adult labour force (aged 30-64) the overall rate of not gainfully employed is similar for men and women (just over 20 percent). One likely explanation of this effect is the more improved educational performance of younger generations of women compared to that of men.

It should be noticed that the employment situation of girls and young women in terms of unemployment and underemployment is better than that of boys and young men. Some 32.5 percent of female youth is not in gainful employment, compared to 38.7 percent of male youth.

Another indicator to measure the untapped potential of youth is the proportion not in employment, education or training (NEET). These youth are particularly at risk of both labour market and social exclusion, because they are neither improving their future employability through investment in skills, nor gaining experience through employment. The NEET rate of Albania in 2011 indicated that 30.0 percent of the persons aged 15-29 did not engage in employment, education or training, which is very high compared to the EU countries. The series of LFSs show a gradual increase in the level of NEET, from 27.4 percent in 2007 to 34.5 percent in 2014.

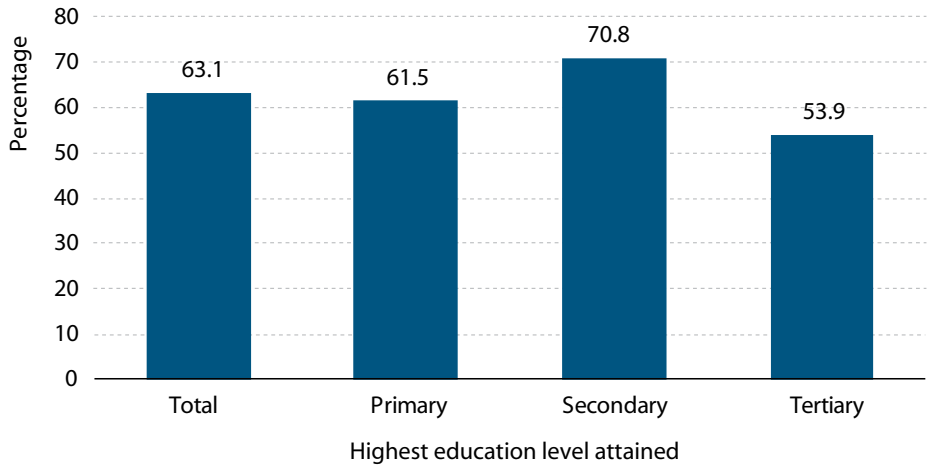
Although female attendance rates in tertiary education are higher than the corresponding male rates (see section 6.2.1 of this report), the gender-specific pull of domestic responsibilities result in consistently higher NEET rates for women (in 2011 33.6 percent, compared to 26.6 for women).

7.5.2 Duration of unemployment

Although unemployment is generally an un-preferred state, long-term unemployment – defined as unemployment that lasts 12 months or more – can have serious consequences for those involved. Empirical research has shown that the duration of unemployment negatively affects the likelihood of finding a (new) job. Being unemployed implies loosing acquired skills and making a person less attractive for potential employers. Especially relevant for unemployed youth is that prolonged unemployment early in one's career can permanently reduce future earnings, diminish job prospects, and delay the acquisition of valuable on-the-job skills. The share of long-term unemployed among the total number of unemployed is, therefore, relevant information for policy makers.

The percentage of long-term unemployed among the total number of unemployed youth was 63.1 percent in 2011 (*Figure 7.5*). This is higher than in any country in the EU in the same year and deserves appropriate attention from policy makers. The percentage of long-term unemployed was highest for youth with secondary education (70.8 percent) and lowest – but still very high – for those with tertiary education (53.9 percent). Young women tend to have somewhat lower shares of long-term unemployed than men, except for women with tertiary education (data not show here).

Figure 7.5: Percentage of long-term unemployed in unemployed youth, by highest education attained, and by sex



Source: LFS 2011

7.6 TRANSITION TO DECENT WORK: IN SEARCH OF A REWARDING JOB

Employment policies and manpower planning aim at full utilisation of existing labour and providing opportunities for decent work, that is work that is productive and sufficiently rewarding, and that can be carried out in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO 2014a). Investigation into the obstacles for obtaining decent work may support policy makers in the development of effective employment programmes.

One relevant perspective in this respect is the analysis of the transition to decent work. *Table 7.8* describes how the youth population aged 15-29 is distributed over the three stages of the transition – before transition, in transition and with transition completed – and over the various statuses within these stages, which identify potential target groups for employment programmes. It shows that out of the total youth population only a small proportion (around 9 percent in both 2011 and 2014) is employed in decent work conditions. The share of employed, but in transition to better jobs was 34 percent in 2011 and include persons who involuntary work reduced hours (time-related underemployed) or work temporary, persons working in vulnerable employment (own-account workers and contributing family workers), and workers whose job conditions do not meet their own standards or standards of decent work.

In addition, the persons in transition to decent work include the unemployed and persons in unemployment-like situations, like students who look for work and discouraged workers (persons who are available for but who do not actively seek work, because they think they will not be able to find a job), together some 15 percent of the 15-29 year olds. Finally, the proportion that did not (yet) engage in the transition to work consist of students who are not (yet) looking for work and persons who remained inactive for other reasons. In 2011, the proportion of youth without transition was close to 42 percent. It increased to around 52 percent in 2014, mainly because of a larger share in school. Remaining in or returning to education is a common strategy for youth when job opportunities become scarce.

Table 7.8: Population aged 15-29, by labour market transition status

Transition stage, transition status	2011	2014
Total youth aged 15-29	100.0	100.0
Without transition	41.9	51.7
In school	29.8	37.3
Inactive	12.1	14.4
In transition	49.3	39.1
Discouraged workers	3.3	6.5
In school and searching job	1.7	1.1
Involuntary part-time worker	3.8	5
Involuntary temporary worker	1.3	1.6
Other unemployed	10.3	12.5
In vulnerable employment	22.7	9.2
Workers wishing to change jobs	1.4	0.7
Workers with decent work deficits	4.9	2.5
Transition to decent work completed	8.7	9.2

Source: LFS 2011

Figures may not add up to 100 percent due to rounding

8 HEALTH

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Health is important for youth Albanians, who expect to lead long and healthy lives, to be protected against illness and accidents as well as to receive appropriate healthcare services. Health is also a key measure of the quality of life and a healthy population is the keystone for economic growth and prosperity. There are a number of lifestyle choices made by young people that can increase the risk of disease as well as leading to a lower life expectancy.

During adolescence and young adulthood, people experience important biological, physical, cognitive and social transitions. This age group faces many challenges and the decisions they make can influence the quality and length of their lives over the long term. Many important life style choices, which may include unhealthy behaviours, are established during the transition from childhood to adulthood. To find a concise definition for risky behaviour is difficult, as there exist many forms, and they have complex and varied causes. The common and binding element of all these types of behaviours is the fact that young people expose their lives and bodies to risk, in many cases, well aware of a possibly negative outcome. Risky behaviours can be expressed in several unhealthy lifestyle choices, ranging from tobacco use to drinking and driving, and even sexual behaviour, while their impact on health can be manifested through increasing the risks for encountering conditions such as cardiovascular disease, cancer, poor mental health, and sexually transmitted diseases.

Young people face new challenges and problems that former Albanian generations did not experience. In Albania, many lifestyle changes have occurred due to political and social reform that occurred in the 1990s and 2000s; there are indications that traditional social institutions and networks are getting weaker and that values are being transformed. While young people now appear to have more opportunities and choices than their parents did, they face more risk as well. Young people now spend more time in school (see chapter 6), live in smaller households (chapter 4), and have greater access to mass media and more freedom of movement. Due to economic and political transition, young people are also now living in conditions where the educational and family systems have changed substantially. Despite some seemingly positive changes, young people still face numerous social and economic challenges.

This chapter presents a range of health indicators on young people in Albania, covering perceived health status (section 8.2), reproductive health (8.3), general health issues, like substance use and disability (8.4) and mortality (8.5). The 2011 Population and Housing Census included only limited health-related information, basically only information on disability. Relevant information and data for this chapter were obtained from other surveys – like the Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) and the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), as well as from publications from relevant agencies. However, reliable and up-to-date information is scarce for most of the topics covered here.

8.2 HEALTH STATUS

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines health as a 'state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity', which points to its multidimensional nature. It also implies different ways of measuring health, such as collecting objective data from health care providers or more subjective data on physical functioning, emotional well-being, pain or discomfort and overall perception of health.

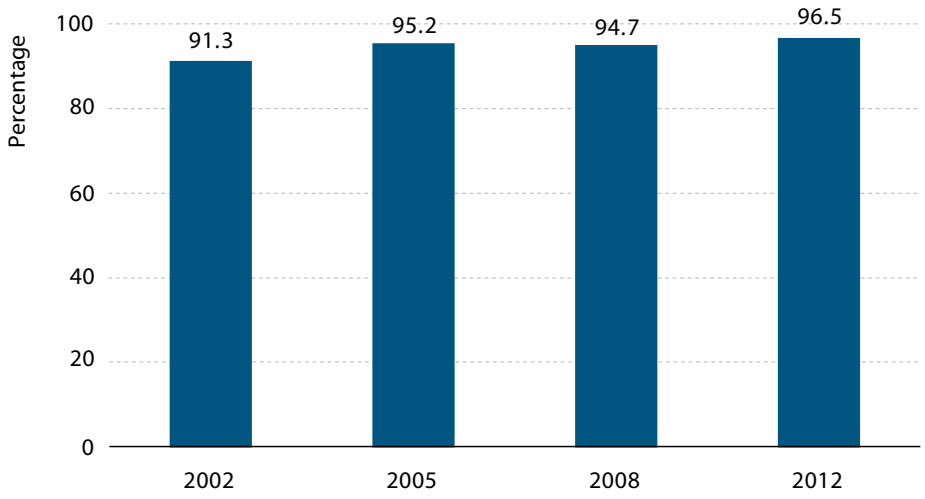
Self-perceived health is, by its nature, subjective. The notion is restricted to an assessment coming from the individual. Even though it may be influenced by impressions or opinions of others, it takes place after these impressions have been processed by the individual relative to their own beliefs and attitudes. The reference is to health in general rather than the present state of health.

Generally, young people are in better health conditions and feel healthier than older age groups. However, this period of life requires special attention since health-related behaviour establishes itself during adolescence and it is strongly influenced by social factors.

The vast majority of young people in Albania perceived themselves in good or very good health.

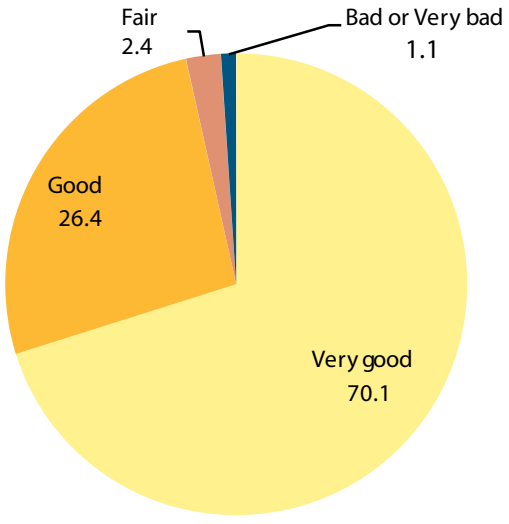
LSMS data noted a slightly increasing trend since 2002 of the share of young people that considered themselves in a good or very good health (*Figure 8.1*). Since 2002, 90 percent of young people declared to be in good or very good health during 2002-2012. In 2012, 96.5 percent of the young people aged 15-29 declared that they were in 'good' or 'very good' health (*Figure 8.2*). Young men generally declared more often to be in a very good or good health than young women, but this gender gap is small: 51.5 percent and 48.5 percent respectively.

Figure 8.1: Youth perceived health as 'good' or 'very good', 2002-2012 (in percentages)



Source: Living Standards Measurement Survey, 2002-2012

Figure 8.2: Youth, by self-perceived health status, 2012 (in percentages)



Source: Living Standards Measurement Survey, 2002-2012

8.3 REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH

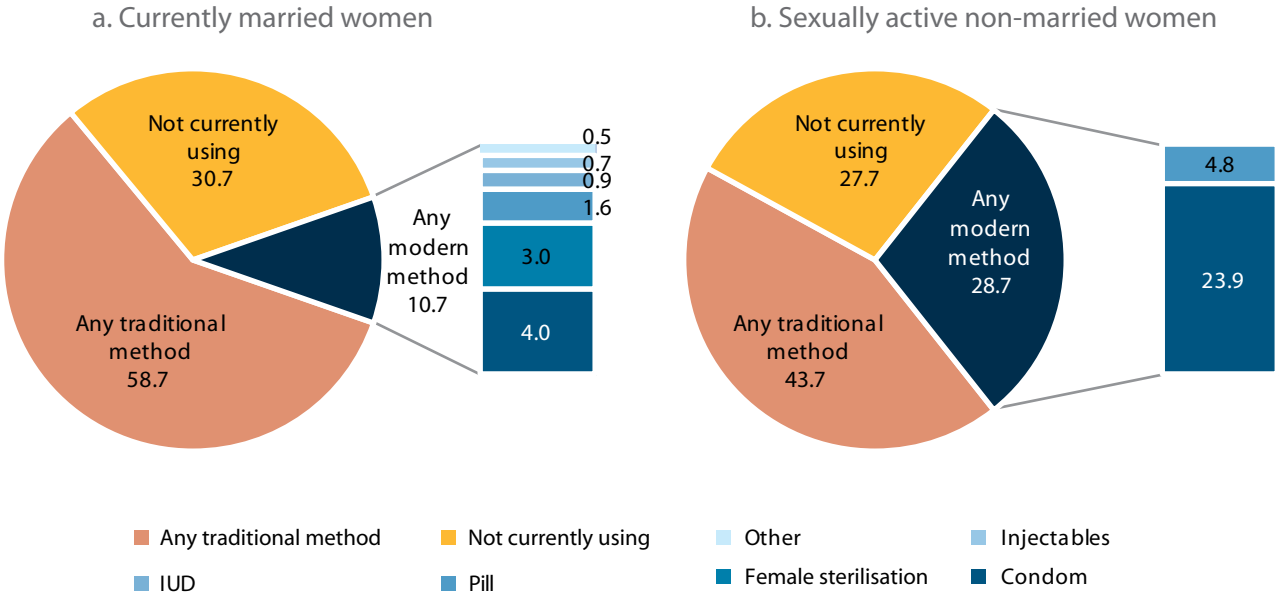
8.3.1 Contraceptive use

With the present low level of fertility in the country (a TFR of 1.7; see section 2.5), Albania has completed the fertility transition. One of the remarkable characteristics of this process in Albania is that the reduction in fertility was realized largely realised by the use of traditional contraceptive methods of abstinence and withdrawal (Gjonça et al. 2008). The 2008-09 Albania Demographic and Health Survey (ADHS) found that only 10.6 percent of currently married women used a modern contraceptive method, against 58.7 percent using a traditional method (*Figure 8.3a*) (INSTAT et al. 2010). This figure would imply a small increase from a modern contraceptive prevalence rate of 8 percent in 2002. Among currently married youth aged 15-29, the percentage using modern contraception was slightly higher in 2008-09, at 12.2 percent. Current use of modern contraceptives by sexually active non-married women was significantly higher at that time, with 28.7 percent.

Modern family planning methods are presently offered through the public and private sectors and through social marketing. In the public sector, the methods are offered for free since the legalisation of family planning in 1992. Provision is organized at all three levels of health services in all 36 districts: in health post centres, in maternity and mother- and child centres at district level, and in maternity hospitals at university medical centres. The methods offered in the public sector are pills (mycrogynon and mycrolut), injection, IUD and (male) condom.

For 2014, the Logistic Management Information System (LMIS) of the Institute of Public Health reported that of the four methods provided, the IUD was the most popular (34 percent), followed by the pill (25 percent), and injectables and the condom being the least often provided (each around 20 percent). The 2008-09 ADHS provided a very different picture, which can be explained by a change in use of contraceptive methods in the period 2008-09 to 2014, but more likely by contraception that is provided by the private sector, in addition to what is provided by the public sector. *Figure 8.3* indicates that of all modern contraception, the condom was the most applied method and the IUD was of very minor importance. The difference between the LMIS and ADHS figures may indicate that the private sector is more important for providing contraception then the public sector, especially for the supply of condoms and pills.

Figure 8.3: Current use of contraception by (a) currently married women and (b) sexually active non-married women (2008-09) (in percentages)



Source: Albania Demographic and Health Survey 2008-09

The 2008-09 ADHS also showed different contraceptive use patterns between currently married women (*Figure 8.3a)* and sexually active non-married women (*Figure 8.3b*), although the shares of non-users were relatively equal in size with close to 30 percent in each group. For both groups, traditional methods – almost exclusively withdrawal – were

the most used, but more so for married women than for the unmarried group. Unmarried sexually active women practiced considerably more modern contraceptives than married women (29 against 11 percent) and also far more preferred condoms (24 percent against 4 percent among married women) and the pill (5 percent). The long-term or permanent methods of IUD and sterilization were only observed for married women.

The most important reasons for not using contraception among women aged 15-29 in the ADHS 2008-09 were health considerations or fear of side effects (45 percent) and opposition against contraceptive use (either by the woman herself or by her partner) (33 percent). Lack of access to contraceptive means, costs and lack of knowledge did not figure in any important way.

The use of modern contraception methods has not increased in these last 2-3 years (Institute of Public Health 2014a). It has been noted a sustainable use but in some cases is demonstrated a drop of their use. The Couple Protection Rate (CPR) is no more than 4-5 percent[40]. Adolescents' access to modern contraceptive methods from the public sector poses difficulties because they do not frequent these services, as they are provided in clinics and maternity hospitals and even less in rural areas in local health centers. But in the market are two other operators as Nesmark sector[41] and private sector. But even from these two sectors it is reported a low contraceptive use. In some cases (Institute of Public Health 2014a) data show that young people use in an inappropriate way the emergency contraceptive method, but for this age there is no data on STIs, abortion and unwanted pregnancy.

The explanation why there is a decrease in fertility, while the use of contraceptives has been decreasing should probably need specific research studies in order to find the proper explanation.

8.3.2 Abortion

Since 1995, induced abortion can be legally performed in during the first 22 weeks for health and social motives, and during the first 12 weeks for psychological reasons. *Table 8.1* shows the recorded abortions – induced and spontaneous – performed in Albania in the period 1994 to 2013. The 6.4 thousand abortions recorded in 2013 imply a quite high abortion ratio:[42] for every thousand live births in 2013, there were 180 abortions and of every 6 pregnancies, about one was terminated by an abortion. However, this figure is much lower than that of 1994, when 434 abortions occurred for every thousand births. Unfortunately, no age-specific abortion figures were available for this analysis and, consequently, no separate youth abortion ratio can be given.

40 This was an indirect estimation, because the information system for contraceptives LMIS (Logistic Management Information System) provides data only for Couple-Years of Protection (CYP). The information systems collects aggregated data and for this reason it is hard to calculate the teenagers' contraceptive use.
41 The Albanian Contraceptive Social Marketing Program
42 The abortion ratio is defined as the number of abortions per thousand live births.

Table 8.1: Births, abortions and abortion ratio[a], by calendar year (1994-2011)

Year	Births	Abortions	Abortions / number of births x 1,000
1994	72,179	31,292	434
1995	72,081	32,268	448
1996	68,358	27,734	406
1997	61,739	22,133	358
1998	60,139	18,948	315
1999	57,948	16,360	282
2000	51,242	17,120	334
2001	53,205	15,700	295
2002	42,527	13,961	328
2003	45,313	12,087	267
2004	40,989	10,517	257
2005	38,898	9,403	242
2006	35,891	9,552	266
2007	34,448	9,030	262
2008	33,445	8,335	249
2009	34,114	8,139	239
2010	34,061	6,919	203
2011	34,285	7,042	205
2012	35,473	6,755	190
2013	35,750	6,442	180

a The number of abortions per thousand live births
Source: Civil Registration and IPH

According to the Public Health Institute, a small minority (10 percent) of abortions in Albania are performed in the private sector (Institute of Public Health 2014a). However, in the absence of reliable statistics on operations in the private sector this statement is difficult to verify and the actual number may be considerably higher. In addition to this, evaluation of abortion data produced a noticeable – and unlikely – increase in the share of spontaneous abortions, from 18 percent in 1996 to 66 percent in 2009. The Institute of Public Health has reasons to doubt the validity of this increase and calls for closer investigation (Institute of Public Health 2014a).

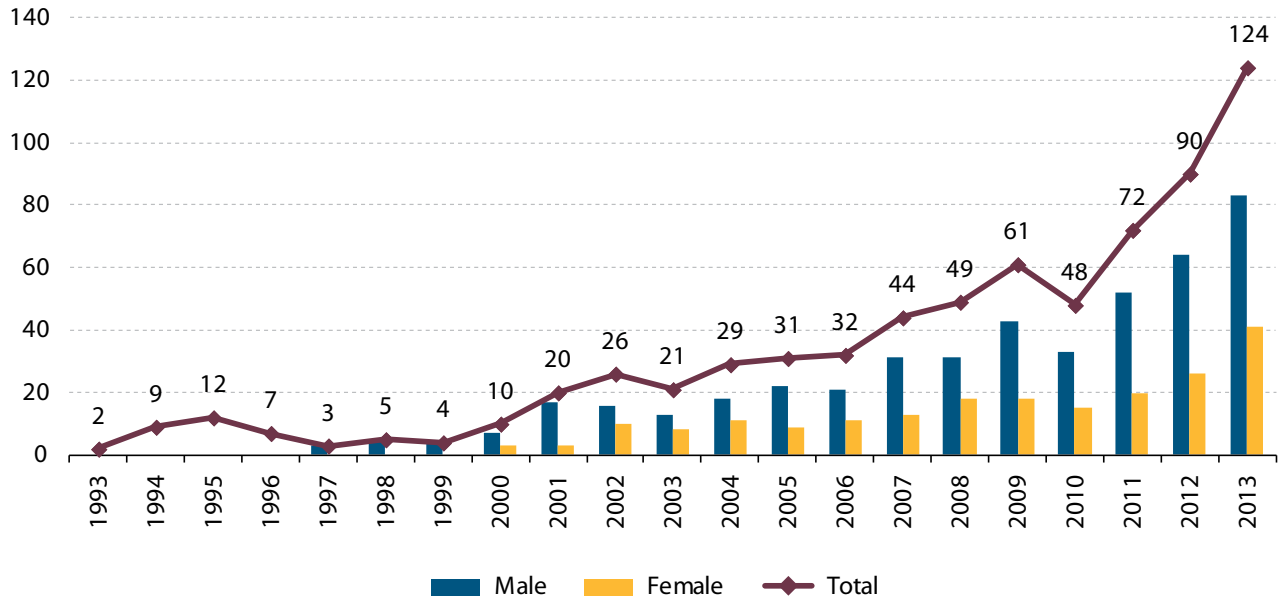
Given the large dependence on unreliable contraceptive methods, it is very likely that in many cases abortions are used as a method of family planning, like in many Eastern European countries. This would indicate a shortcoming in the performance of the health system to provide couples with reliable means to adequately plan and control pregnancies and childbirth. In addition, a census-based analysis by INSTAT (2014c) provided convincing evidence for the occurrence of sex-selective abortions because of a preference for sons. The strongly increasing sex ratio at birth (from a normal 106 boys for 100 girls for first-order births to 162 for fourth-order births) is a clear indication for this practice. An earlier study by World Vision and UNFPA (2012) came to a similar conclusion. Both issues – sex-selective abortions and the use of abortion as a method of family planning – warrant policy attention.

8.3.3 HIV/AIDS

Albania is still considered a country with low HIV prevalence with 699 individuals diagnosed with HIV in the country at the end of 2013 (WHO 2015a). This status is linked to several factors, including the isolation of the country until 1990, the low prevalence of commercial sex work and drug use before 1990, social and cultural factors that do not encourage premarital and sex at a young age as well as sexual relations with many partners, and the introduction of HIV/AIDS policies and programmes (UNAIDS and Institute of Public Health 2003). However, being a country with a large share of young people, rapidly changing social and cultural norms and massive migration, new risk factors have emerged in the last two decades.

The annual number of reported cases of HIV/AIDS is relatively low. According to the Institute of Public Health (direct correspondence), the total number of HIV-positive cases reported in the period 1993-2013 is 699. However, PHI statistics show an increasing trend in new infections (*Figure 8.4*). The last year 2013 marks the highest figure ever reported since the emergence of HIV/AIDS in Albania in 1993, with 124 new HIV cases. The number of reported cases and population estimates based on the 2011 census result in an HIV prevalence of 0.02 percent and an HIV incidence of 0.004 percent. These figures are far below the prevalence rate of 0.3 percent and the incidence rate of 0.02 percent for Western and Central Europe and North America (UNAIDS AIDSinfo). However, the actual number of cases in Albania is believed to be higher than reported figures, especially because of unreported or undiagnosed cases among men who have sex with men, people who inject drugs, and sex workers. Evidence suggests that the majority of people living with HIV in Albania are unaware of their infection and thus likely to be actively transmitting the virus and presenting late for treatment and care (WHO 2015a).

Figure 8.4: Total number of HIV positive reported cases by sex, 1993-2013

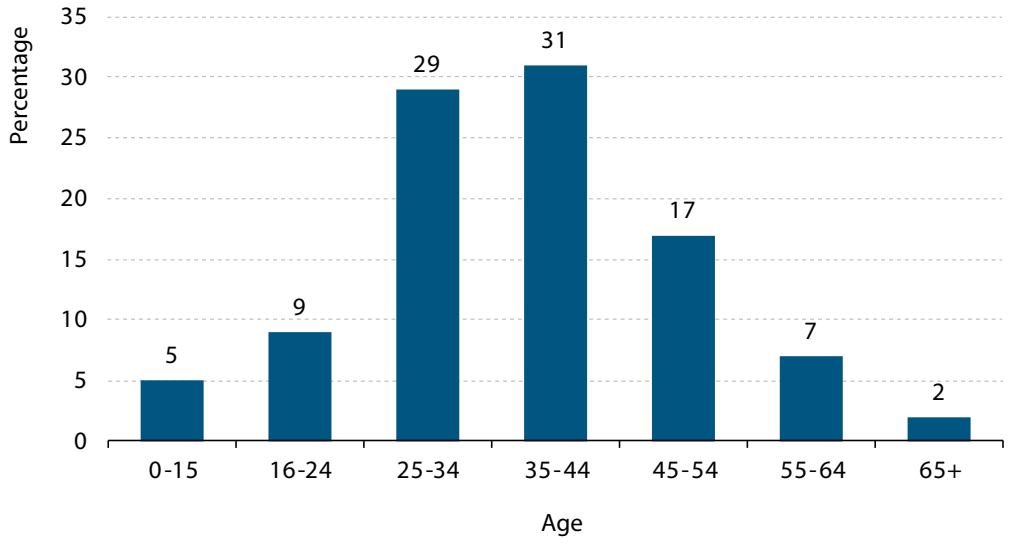


Source: UNAIDS and Institute of Public Health

HIV-infected men dominate compared to women, comprising 70 percent of the total number of reported positive HIV cases. The most common mode of HIV transmission is hetero-sexual contact, with 83 percent of the reported cases. Homo/bi-sexual contact accounts for 10 percent of new cases, but this is believed to be and underestimation.

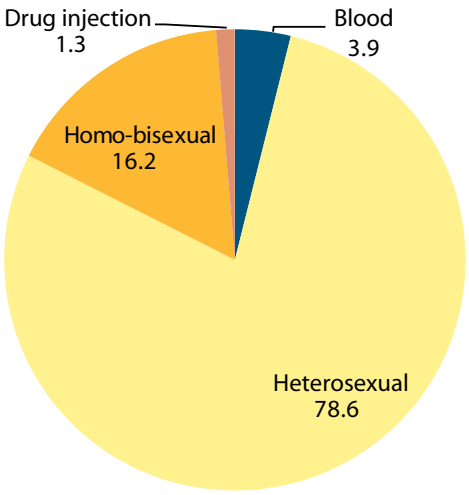
Figure 8.5 shows the age distribution of total reported cases for the period 1993-2013. In this period the number of reported HIV-positive cases for youth aged 15-29 was 154, or in relative terms, about 22 percent of the total number of cases. Compared to the overall total, young women were more represented among youth infections, with 38 percent against 30 percent overall. Sexual transmission is an even more common mode of transmission of HIV infection for youth: 95 percent of persons aged 15-29 were infected through sexual contact, of whom 79 percent were heterosexual contacts and 16 percent homo-bisexual contacts (*Figure 8.6*).

Figure 8.5: HIV reported cases by age group, 1993-2013, (in percentages)



Source: Institute of Public Health

Figure 8.6: HIV infections of persons aged 15-29, by mode of transmission, 1993-2013 (in percentages)



Source: Institute of Public Health

The ADHS 2008-09 indicated that knowledge of AIDS – although not universal – is high in Albania, with 93 percent of women and 94 percent of men reporting that they have heard of AIDS (INSTAT et al. 2010). For youth aged 15-29 the figures were similar to the overall levels of knowledge. However, the correct knowledge about how to prevent infection was lower, typically around 70 percent among respondents, with young people having somewhat better knowledge. Comprehensive knowledge about HIV and AIDS transmission[43] was even lower. Only 20 percent of men and 28 percent of women were adequately informed in this respect. The figures for male and female youth were again somewhat higher, 22 and 36 percent, respectively. The percentage expressing accepting attitudes with regard to people living with HIV/AIDS on a battery of four questions[44] was low for men and women alike, just 6 percent. Given available information on HIV/AIDS, the WHO strongly recommends to expand HIV testing in the country, combined with intensifying relevant information and education campaigns to better understand the HIV and AIDS epidemics in Albania and increase the number of people in treatment and care. It is also considered vital to improve clinical information systems and facilitate the availability of critical clinical data.

43 Comprehensive knowledge means knowing that consistent use of condoms during sexual intercourse and having just one partner who is HIV negative and has no other partners can reduce the risk of getting the AIDS virus, knowing that a healthy-looking person can have the AIDS virus, and rejecting the two most common local misconceptions about AIDS transmission or prevention.

44 The questions asked whether the respondents would care for an HIV-positive family member in their own home, buy fresh food from a shopkeeper with AIDS, allow an HIV-positive female teacher to continue teaching, and not want to keep secret the HIV-positive status of a family member.

8.4 GENERAL HEALTH ISSUES

8.4.1 Smoking and alcohol use

Smoking is the single most preventable cause of premature mortality, increasing the risk of a number of diseases. The World Health Organisation has identified tobacco smoking as a serious cause of premature illness and death. The combined effect of nicotine (the main drug found in tobacco) and other gases which enter in the lungs when smoked greatly increases the risk of disease and ill-health. It is also recognised that secondary or passive smoking can put the health of others at risk. This is one of the reasons why smoking has been banned by law in public areas.

Smoking behaviours are very often acquired during adolescence, but the numerous health consequences of smoking, including cancer and coronary heart diseases, usually become evident only later in adulthood or even later in old age. As a result, unhealthy habits and persistent behavioural risks (such as tobacco and alcohol consumption) in young people may affect their future. Young daily smokers may acquire the habit and become addicted before reaching adulthood, making them less able to quit this addiction and more likely to suffer from tobacco-related health complications.

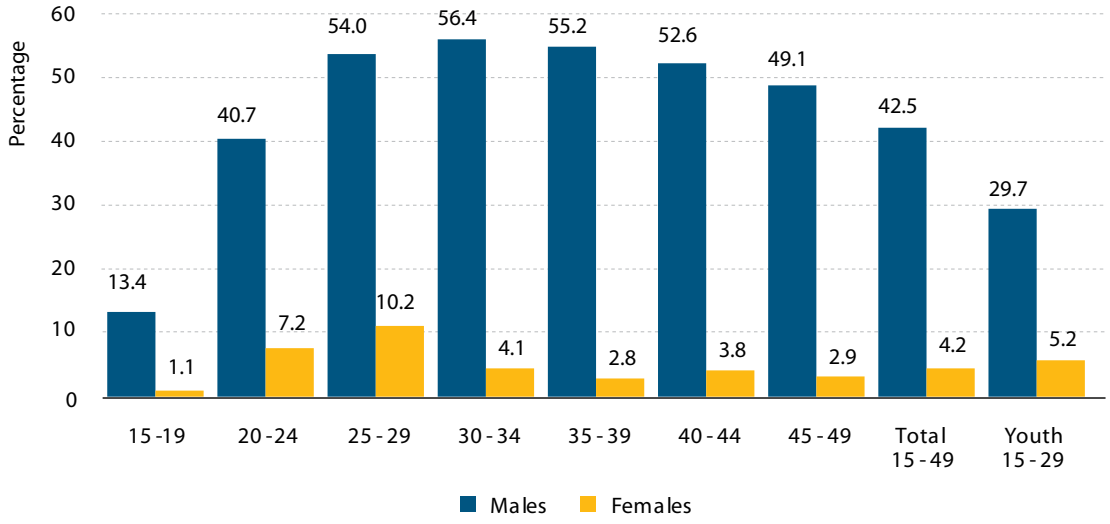
In 2010, smoking accounted for 22 percent of all deaths in Albania. In the past two decades during the rapid political and socio-economic transition, the mortality rate attributable to smoking has almost doubled for non-communicable diseases (Institute of Public Heath 2014).

The WHO estimates that in 2010 in Albania 24 percent of persons aged 15 years and older were currently smoking tobacco, 53 percent of men in this age category and 9 percent of women (WHO 2015b). The corresponding estimates for youth aged 15-24 were somewhat lower: 38 percent among young men and 7 percent among young women. Also daily tobacco smoking is somewhat lower than current use, but considerably higher than the LSMS figures: 42 for men of 15 years and older and 7 percent for women 15 and over.

The ADHS 2008-09 provided detailed information about smoking behaviour. Over the adolescent and young adult ages, tobacco smoking is rapidly increasing to well over 50 percent among men, while the prevalence among women remains much lower (*Figure 8.7*). For youth aged 15-29, the overall tobacco smoking is practiced by 30 percent of males and 5 percent of females.

The gender gap in smoking behaviour is not only reflected in the very large different in the shares smoking, but also in other patterns. Thus, not only do more Albanian men smoke, they are also more often heavy smokers. Some 93 percent of male smokers used 10 or more cigarettes in the past 24 days, compared to 61 female smokers. Men also start smoking earlier than women – with median age of starting 19.2 and 21.1 years respectively – exposing them for a longer period of health risks. An interesting finding of the ADHS was also that, tobacco use among men was negatively associated with wealth status, but that the association was the reverse for women. Only 1 percent of women in the lowest wealth quintile was smoking, but this percentage consistently increased to 12 percent in the highest quintile.

Figure 8.7: Percentage of population aged 15 to 49 currently smoking, by sex, and by age

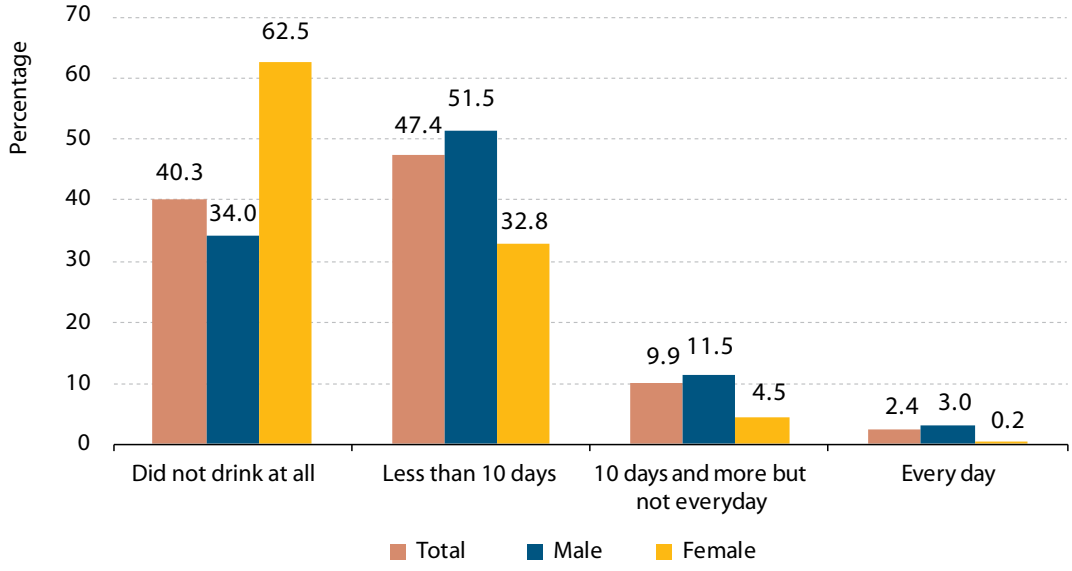


Source: Albania Demographic and Health Survey 2008-09.

Like smoking, alcohol use may start in young age and can easily develop into substance abuse, dependence, and further into chronic disease, whereas, when such behaviour is associated with driving and specific work activities, it dramatically raises the risks for accidents and premature death. The overall mortality rate and the total burden of disease attributable to alcohol use has increased 2.5 times in Albania during past two decades. In particular, mortality rates from cardiovascular diseases and liver cirrhosis due to alcohol consumption have doubled (Institute of Public Heath 2014).

Data collected in the LSMS survey reveal that in the month before the survey interview a large majority of young people consumed alcohol during less than ten days (47 percent) or not at all (40 percent) (*Figure 8.8*). Only some 2 percent consumed alcohol on daily basis and 10 percent used alcohol 10 days and more in the past month. As in the case of smoking, young men are more likely to consume alcohol. Some 3 percent of young men report drinking alcohol on a daily basis, while the percentage for women in negligible. On the other hand, around one third of men did not use any alcohol in the past month, compared to close to two-thirds of women.

Figure 8.8: Youth aged 15 to 29, by sex, and by frequency of alcohol consumption in the month preceding the survey interview (in percentages)



Source: Living Standard Measurement Survey, 2012

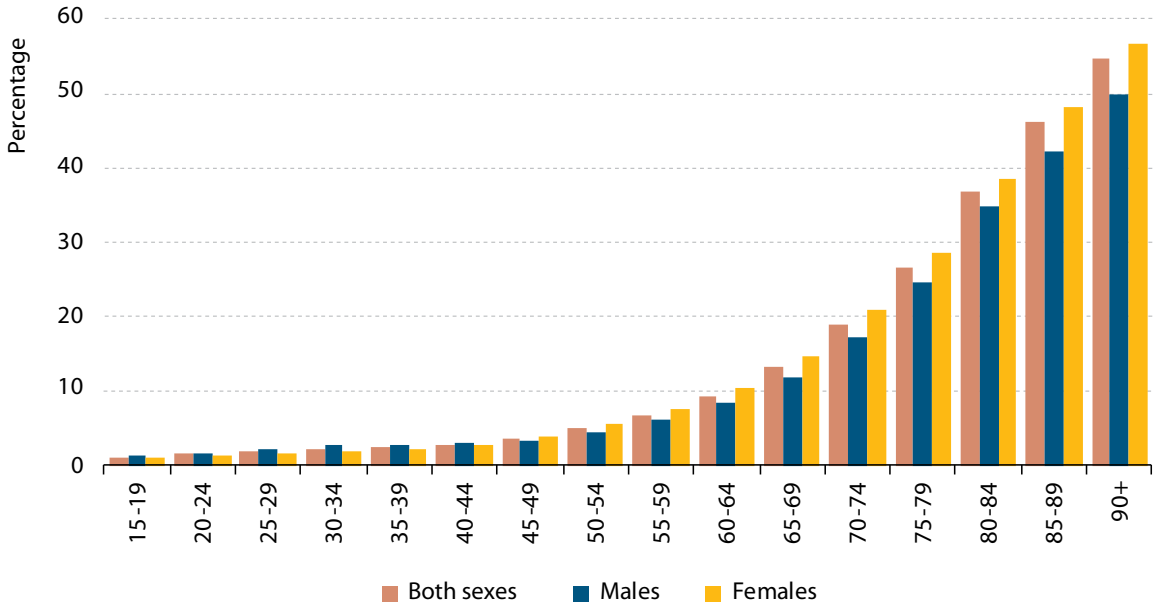
8.4.2 Disability

Disability has always been part of the human condition. Some individuals are born with a disability, while others acquire a disability later in life due to a variety of factors, including infectious disease, inherited conditions or accidents, as a consequence of malnutrition, lack of adequate preventive health care, exposure to environmental pollutants or as a result of violent action. Adolescents and youth with disabilities are among the neediest of all the world's population. Young people with disabilities regularly face social isolation, poverty and discrimination. They are often hidden from public view and disability has traditionally been treated as a personal tragedy. Furthermore, inadequate support for families and parents of young people with disabilities further perpetuate this exclusion. Families often lack information about specific ailments and thus trap the individual in predetermined set of expectations of what the individual can and cannot do. The level of social and economic exclusion is far greater for young people with disabilities than for their non-disabled peers. In Albania only a handful of people with disabilities live independently, though often in segregated settings and in severe poverty. Like all young people, those with disabilities need to live in safe and supportive environments; they need education, health services and access to sports and recreation. They also need to develop skills that will enable them to find work and that will serve them well in the work-place. It is important to emphasize the similarities between disabled young people and their able-bodied peers because in many nations the needs of young people with disabilities have been considered similar, if not identical, to those of adults with disabilities.

This section gives an overview of young people with disability, by using data is of the 2011 census data. The census applied the set of six questions defined by the Washington Group recommendations on disability: seeing, hearing, mobility, self-care, cognition, and communication. An individual is considered disabled if he or she reports a strong difficulty or inability to perform at least one of the above-mentioned activities.

Disability prevalence is very much linked to age, with older age cohorts being more affected by difficulties in performing daily tasks due to the cumulative effect of illnesses, injuries and degeneration. Only just over 1 percent of youth suffers from disability (with little difference between the three five-year age groups within youth), compared to 25 percent of elderly 65 years and older, increasing to 57 percent for those aged 95 and over (*Figure 8.9*).

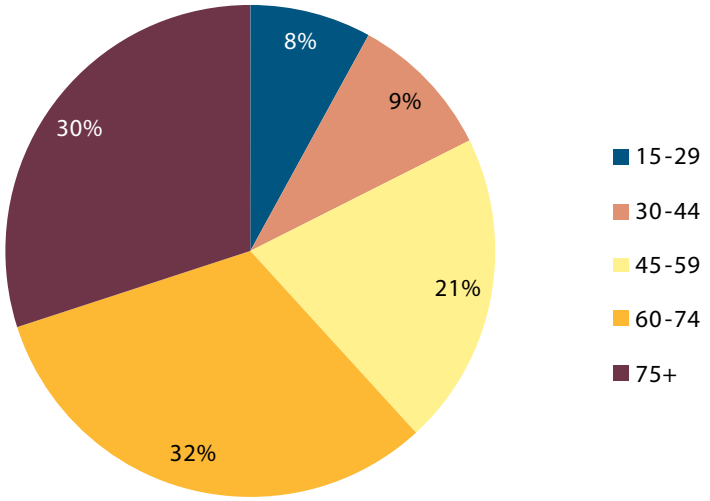
Figure 8.9: Percentage disabled population aged 15 and older, by sex, and by age group



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011

However, due to the relative large size of the youth population, the share of young disabled in the total disabled population is a significant 8 percent (*Figure 8.10*), representing around 11 thousand disabled young persons. More men than women were reported as disabled in the census: 6.3 thousand men (57 percent of the disabled youth) against 4.6 thousand women.

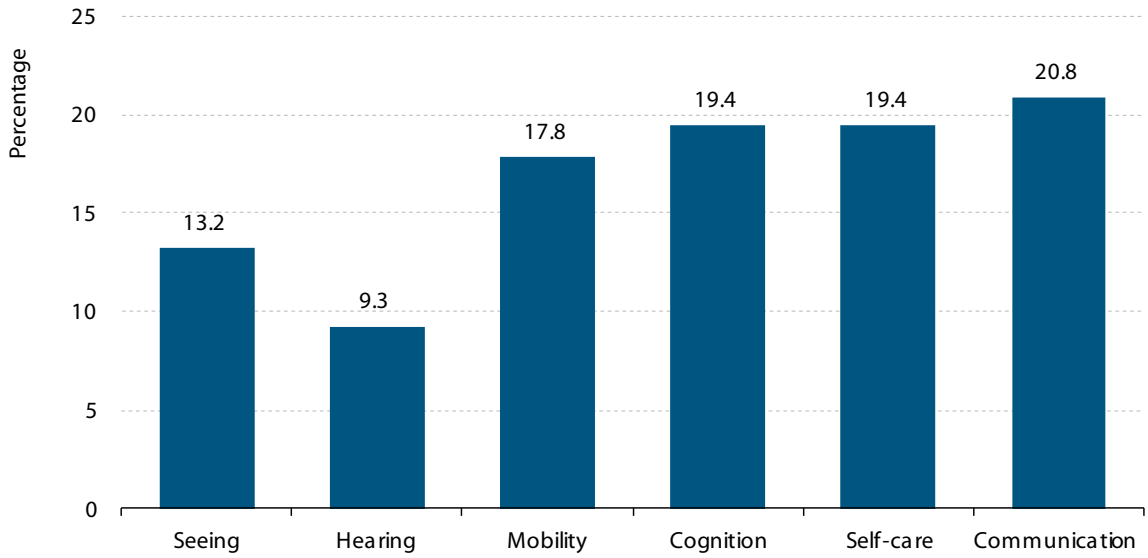
Figure 8.10: Disabled population aged 15 and older, by age group (in percentages)



Source: Population and Housing Census, 2011

The most commonly encountered disabilities among youth are problems with communication, self-care and cognition, each counting for around one-fifth of all reported disabilities (*Figure 8.11*). Compared to older age groups, young persons suffer relatively more often from mental disabilities (cognition and communication) than physical disability types (seeing, hearing and mobility).

Figure 8.11: Disabled youth aged 15 to 29, by type of disability (in percentages)



Source: Population and Housing Census, 2011

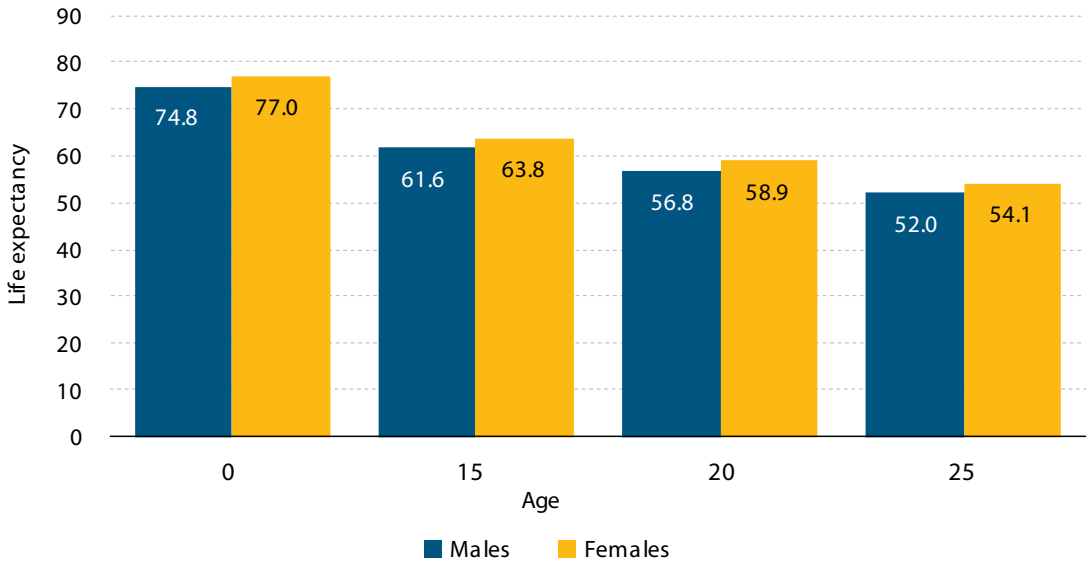
8.5 MORTALITY

8.5.1 Life expectancy

Over the years, Albania has made significant progress to improve the health situation of its population. Life expectancy has steadily increased for both sexes during the last decade. Various changes, among which demographic changes, have led to a clear epidemiological transition in Albania. However, the burden of chronic diseases such as cancer, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes and COPD are a central point of concern in Albania with a potential further increase in the next decades, if serious countermeasures will not take place. Apart from lining up an efficient, accessible and affordable healthcare system, opportunities exist in preventing young people from smoking, alcohol abuse, taking too little physical exercise and employing unhealthy diets, which all contribute to the future burden of chronic diseases in Albania. Interventions to reverse the NCD trends should start in early childhood with improved infant and young child feeding practices and, even earlier, with the provision of care for all pregnant women in the early stages of pregnancy (Institute of Public Health 2014b).

Census analysis estimated the life expectancy at birth at 79.4 for girls and 74.8 for boys (INSTAT 2014c), which are very close to the official UN estimates. This is much higher than would be expected on the basis of prevailing infant- and child mortality levels and other development indicators. *Figure 8.12* shows the life expectancy at birth, as well as the additional number of years Albanian youth on average can expect to live when they reach age 15, 20 and 25. The figures imply that, for instance, a man reaching age 25 can expect to live another 52 years and reach age 77, which was the life expectancy of women at birth.

Figure 8.12: Life expectancy at different ages, by sex (in years)

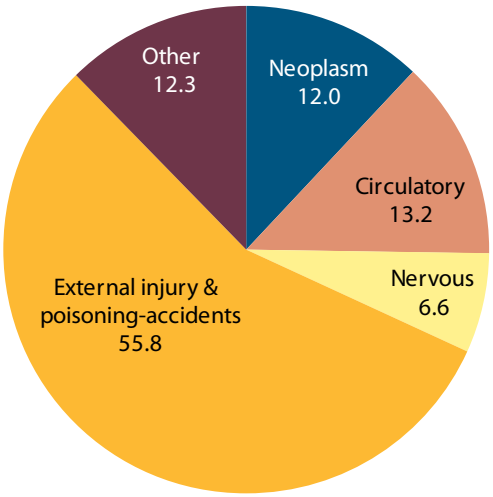


8.5.2 Causes of death

From 2001 to 2011, the vital statistics show the number of youth deaths fluctuating around 800 per year. Since then, the number seems to have declined. Most people over 50 years old die because of circulatory disease and cancer, whereas young people generally fall victim to external factors if they die. In 2010, external causes accounted for a 55.8 percent of deaths of young people aged 15 to 29 (*Figure 8.13*). External injuries, poisoning and accidents are the leading causes of death among young people.

A cluster of preventable risk factors such as smoking, alcohol abuse, unhealthy diet and lack of physical activity, have a high impact to the observed increase in the total burden of non-communicable diseases such as cancer, heart disease, liver and lung diseases. Preventing Albanian youth from starting to smoke and refraining from alcohol abuse and unhealthy diet and promoting their physical activity are major challenges (Institute of Public Health 2014b).

Figure 8.13: Deceased youth aged 15-29, by cause of death, 2010 (in percentages)



Source: Vital statistics, 2010

9 SUMMARY

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The present report on the living conditions of youth aged 15 to 29 in Albania is based on different information sources. The 2011 Population and Housing Census provided the backbone of the analysis. Administrative data and different surveys supplemented and gave more depth to the census information. For various topics, however, accurate and up-to-date information is scarce. This is especially felt in the area of health, and more specifically reproductive health, which is of particular importance for youth.

The general picture that emerges from available data is that Albanian youth experience – and notably bring about – societal change. This importantly relates to fertility and migration, employment and living arrangements. In several areas considerable improvement can be observed, although generally the living conditions of Albanian youth lag behind most of their European peers. Particularly worrisome is the position of youth on the labour market, which is also the basic factor in the large-scale emigration from and population decline in Albania. Considerable improvement is also warranted in the area of reproductive health, particularly as far as the reduction of induced abortion (including sex-specific abortion) and the use of reliable, modern contraception is concerned.

9.2 YOUTH IS A KEY FACTOR IN DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE …

The face of Albania's population has drastically changed in the last two to three decades. Free movement of the population, the opening up of the economy, the drop of fertility to below replacement level, ageing of the population and massive emigration and subsequent return-migration flows radically changed the population structure and society at large. Within this transformation and an overall declining population, the youth population aged 15 to 29 has remained fairly stable with a modest drop from 750 thousand persons in 1979 (29 percent of the total population) to 704 thousand in 2011 (25 percent). In this numerical sense, youth takes a pivotal position, given the major shift in this this period from the younger to the older population. In 1979 they lived with 958 thousand children under 15 year of age (37 percent of the total population) and in 2011 with only 579 thousand children (21 percent). On the other hand, the number of elderly age 65 and over they were living with more than doubled in the same period, from 136 thousand (just 5 percent) to 318 thousand (11 percent). In terms of future prospects, the present trend of dejuvination and ageing will continue. By 2030, the proportion of elderly will again have doubled (to 21 percent) and that of children under 15 will be only 16 percent. At that time the number of elderly (581 thousand) will also have surpassed the number of children (446 thousand).

This population change has main impacts at the individual and household level, as well as at the societal level. Whereas in 1979, there were 73 persons in the less-productive young and old ages per 100 in the more productive ages, in 2011 this figure was only 47. With this low dependency ratio of 47 percent, Albania is situated in the middle of a window of economic opportunity. Whether or not the country takes full advantage of this episode of 'demographic dividend' – with a large potentially economically productive population relative to a small number of young and old people – depends on the extent to which effective policies are implemented to adequately prepare its labour force for the labour market and whether appropriate economic and social policies are in place to provide these people with productive jobs. This is especially relevant for youth who need relevant education and experience, and adequate jobs when they enter the labour market.

Young people play a key role in the processes underlying population change. Obviously, they benefitted from improvement in living conditions and health services, as is reflected in increased life expectancies. The youngest youth age group of 15-19 year olds could, on average, expect to live another 61.3 years in 2005. By 2014 this has increased to 64.2 years, adding 2.9 years to their life expectancy. But the role of youth as key agents in population

change is particularly related to the fertility decline and migration. Around 74 percent of all births occur to women in the age group 15-29. For women in the age group 20-29 the average number of children they born was only 0.6 times the number born by women of the same age in 1989, which was the major factor for the drop in the Total Fertility Rate to 1.7 children per woman in 2011, well below the replacement level of 2.1. At the same time, birth data indicate a consistent increase in teenage fertility. The age-specific fertility under-20 increased from 0.016 in 1989 to 0.018 in 2001 and 0.020 in 2011. Although the absolute number of teenage births is relatively small – 2.8 thousand in 2011 – and is declining due to decreasing numbers of women aged 15-19, the increasing trend in teenage fertility is something that warrants attention by health policy makers.

9.3 … AND IN MIGRATION

As with fertility, young people are the main drivers of migration, both internal and international. The abolition of barriers to emigration, the social turmoil in the 1990s, high unemployment in the country and better job- and study opportunities abroad generated a continuous flow of emigration, for the largest part to Greece and Italy. The 2011 census showed that emigration was the most important factor in the net population decline of 269 thousand persons between 2001 and 2011, 8.8 percent of the population size in 2001. During this period an estimated 482 thousand Albanians left the country. As is common in migration, the age group that was most involved in the Albanian migration experience was that of young adults. The total number of youth that emigrated in the 2001-2011 inter-census period is estimated at 225 thousand persons, and the age groups 20-24 and 25-29 provided more emigrants than any other five-year age group. It is worth mentioning that in the last inter-census period emigration flows were fairly gender-balanced and in the last years even showing a significant overrepresentation of women, whereas in the 1990s men were much more likely to emigrate than women. This development indicates that migration has entered a more mature stage: after the initial male-dominated emigration for employment follows a diversification involving more women and children, as well as a larger variety of migration motives, such as family reunification, marriage migration and study. Nevertheless, economic motives for emigration are still predominant, among both men and women. In the 2011 census these were mentioned as the main reason for 74 percent of young persons who left the household to go abroad.

Where large-scale emigration occurs, usually also significant return migration is generated. Also people returning to Albania are heavily concentrated in the young adult ages. There are twice as many men than women coming back, a reflection of the male dominance in emigration in the past decades. The profiles of returned youth yield interesting differences between male and female migrants: young males left the country predominantly as unemployed (68 percent) or student (24 percent). Abroad, before returning to Albania they were predominantly in employment (48 percent) or unemployed (46 percent). And after return to Albania, 66 percent of them were again unemployed, 30 percent found a job – either in employment or self-employed – and hardly any took up education (3 percent). Although for women the starting points of emigration were also predominantly unemployment (46 percent) and student (26 percent), a significant share also left as housewife (20 percent). Their activity status abroad was much more varied, with 31 percent being employed, 28 percent unemployed, 21 percent being housewife and a significant share (18 percent) being a student. Also after return to Albania, more women than men entered the education system (10 percent), while 30 percent became housewife, 23 percent found a job and 36 percent remained unemployed.

The high unemployment figures indicate that emigration is a prime background for emigration, that emigration is not a guarantee for employment abroad, and that upon return, many young migrants relapse to unemployment. Consequently, from an employment perspective, young return migrants seem to be in a particularly vulnerable position. As such they represent a target group for more systematic support to guide them to job opportunities.

9.4 YOUTH ON THE LABOUR MARKET: THE POLICY MAKER'S CHALLENGE

For many young people, emigration served as a safety valve for the pressure of high unemployment in Albania. Youth marks the stage in life where the transition from education to work happens. This poses already a challenge under favourable labour-market conditions, but the more so in the faltering labour market of Albania in the 1990s and beyond. In addition, employment both in Albania and abroad was negatively affected by the economic crisis since 2008, which particularly hard hit youth employment.

Labour market participation in 2011 was very low among the youngest youth, aged 15 to 19. The labour market participation rate only reaches a considerable level of 60 percent of the working-age population in the oldest youth age group 25 to 29, with a sizable difference between the rate for men and women (70 and 48 percent, respectively). Overall, 46 percent of male youth are active on the labour market and 29 percent of female youth. A discouraging outlook on job opportunities may be a factor to low labour market participation by youth, but low participation rates are not a priori a negative indication of poor labour market performance. A positive reason for being economically inactive can be prolonged enrolment in education and training. This was the main reason for almost two-thirds (66 percent) of the economically inactive youth in 2011. For men this reason was more important than for women (being the main reason for 74 and 60 percent, respectively), because only for women also domestic responsibilities were a major and competing motive (for 18 percent) not to look for a job. This is an indication of the persisting traditional gender roles in Albanian society.

For 2011, the youth unemployment rate was estimated at 22 percent, suggesting that some 86 thousand persons aged 15-29 – 52 thousand young men and 34 thousand young women – could not find a job. This unemployment rate is twice as high as that of older adults, which indicates the vulnerable position of youth on the labour market. In addition to outright unemployment, an additional 14 percent of the youth labour force is under-employed, working in insufficiently productive and rewarding jobs. Together with the unemployed, this results in a share of 36 percent of the youth labour force – 142 thousand people – that is not gainfully employed. Moreover, analysis of the labour market transitions indicated that in 2011, 58 percent of all youth made the transition from inactivity to the labour market, but only 9 percent also made the transition to decent work.

A large proportion (63 percent) of unemployed youth is also long-term unemployed, which is higher than in any country in the EU and requires particular attention from policy makers. Empirical research has shown that the duration of unemployment negatively affects the likelihood of finding a (new) job, as it implies loosing acquired skills and making a person less attractive for potential employers. Especially relevant for unemployed youth is that prolonged unemployment early in one's career can permanently reduce future earnings, diminish job prospects, and delay the acquisition of valuable on-the-job skills.

The relation between employability and attained education level is quite complex. Education had little effect on unemployment for male youth, but higher education seems to have a negative effect for female youth. Apparently, advanced education is not a guarantee for finding a job or raises job expectations beyond realisable levels. This calls into question to what extent especially tertiary education is effectively geared to the labour market needs. This issue is further highlighted by the high level of skill mismatch, which occurs when a person has higher or lower educational qualifications than the level that is assigned to the person's job. The mismatch rate for tertiary-educated youth workers was found to be a very high 34 percent in 2011. As this is the group with the highest education, a mismatch here implies that people were over-qualified for their job. Such high mismatch rates are an indication of either labour markets with high unemployment or a bad fit between the education system output and labour market demand, or a combination of both. Follow-up research is required to investigate into the opportunities to make the education system better fit labour market demands.

Another education-related indicator to measure the untapped potential of youth is the proportion not in employment, education or training (NEET). These youth are particularly at risk of both labour market and social exclusion, because they are neither improving their future employability through investment in skills, nor gaining experience through employment. The NEET rate of Albania in 2011 indicated that 30 percent of the persons aged 15 to 29 did not engage in employment, education or training, which is very high compared to the EU countries.

The proportion of young people that did have a job was for 2011 estimated at 43 percent against 59 percent for the total working-age population. The figure of 43 percent represented 306 thousand young persons in employment, which was 27 percent of all employed persons in Albania. A large share of working youth were in vulnerable employment, since they worked as unpaid family workers or as own-account workers. These types of jobs tend to lack formal work arrangements and adequate social security that are conditions for decent work. In this regard youth did not distinguish themselves much from the older working population.

The series of Labour Force Surveys show a further deterioration between 2011 and 2014 in many labour market indicators for youth, including the labour force participation rate (from 43 down to 28 percent), the unemployment rate (from 22 up to 33 percent) and the percentage not in employment, education or training (from 30 up to 35 percent).

9.5 EDUCATION: PREPARING FOR LIFE

Up to elderly ages, literacy is almost universal in the Albanian population and reaches 99 percent for the youth population aged 15 to 29. There is more differentiation in the level of attained education, which has significantly improved in recent decades. In 2011 the percentage with completed tertiary-level education among the age group 25 to 29 – who mostly have completed their education – stood at 24 percent, compared to only 8 percent in 2001. Despite such improvements, Albania lags behind in educational achievement compared to the EU countries. Thus, 82 percent of the EU population aged 20 to 24 completed at least an upper secondary level of education, but only 59 percent of Albanians of this age did so. As in many other European countries, women tend to have more frequently continued to complete advanced education. In 2011, 17 percent of women had done so, compared to 11 percent of men.

Census 2011 data showed that school attendance in compulsory education – primary and lower secondary school up to grade 9 – is almost universal in Albania. However, after that, usually starting with age 15, attendance rates drop steadily. While a majority of 68 percent of the 15-19 year olds is still participating in education, this share is only 26 percent for the middle youth age group 20-24 and 6 percent for the oldest youth aged 25-29. With these figures, Albania was considerably below the corresponding EU rates. Nevertheless, data from the Ministry of Education shows that enrolment in tertiary education is rapidly increasing. While the gross enrolment ratio in school year 2009-10 was around 39 percent, in 2013-14 it had risen to around 70 percent.

High education dropout rates occur at the transition from lower to upper secondary school (around 8 percent), and especially between upper-secondary and tertiary education (around 17 percent). However, during upper secondary education also sustained levels of dropout were observed in the census.

Tertiary education reveals marked gender differences in enrolment and attendance. While in the 2011 census the number of girls in upper secondary education was slightly lower than the number of boys (with a gender parity index of 0.93), in tertiary education women were much more represented, as shown by the tertiary gender parity index of 1.28. Enrolment figures indicate the same and an even increasing difference for tertiary education: gross enrolment in the school year 2009-10 was 44 and 34 percent for boys and girls, respectively, increasing to, respectively 58 and 83 percent in 2013-14.

Increasing inflow in advanced education levels also implies that the number of years that Albanians can expect to spend in education is rising. In 2011, this school expectancy was 13.8 years for a 6-year old child at the beginning of the educational career. A 15-year old can expect to stay on average 5.2 more years in education.

9.6 YOUTH HEALTH: CRITICAL CHOICES

During the adolescent and young adult years, many choices are made that involve the adoption of specific lifestyles. These, in turn, are critically important for health and wellbeing, not only during the life stage of youth, but also later in life,

The Albania Demographic and Health Survey (ADHS) 2008-09 indicated that during the years of the youth life stage, tobacco smoking rapidly increases, although there is a large difference between men and women. More than half (54 percent) of the men aged 25 to 29 was smoking in 2008-09, compared to 10 percent of women in that age group. The rate of tobacco smoking for youth overall was 30 percent for males and 5 percent for females. In addition, males started smoking earlier and were more often heavy smokers than women. Compared to smoking, alcohol use among youth generally seems to be less of a problem. Only 2 percent of youth mentioned drinking alcohol on a daily basis.

Risk factors, such as smoking and alcohol abuse, have a high impact to the observed increase in the total burden of non-communicable diseases such as cancer, heart disease, liver and lung diseases. Preventing Albanian youth from starting to smoke and refraining from alcohol abuse and unhealthy diets, and promoting their physical activity are major challenges. Morbidity and mortality related to these life-style choices are often only experienced later in life. Causes of death of young people are mostly external causes (56 percent), such as injuries, poisoning and accidents.

Youth are also critically faced with reproductive health choices. In this respect it is worth noticing that the fertility

decline to below replacement level has largely been achieved in the absence of modern contraceptive use. The large majority of couples regulated pregnancy and childbirth by relying on traditional contraceptive methods – particularly withdrawal – and abortion. The 2008-09 ADHS found that among married women in the age group 15 to 29, only 12 percent used modern contraception. The use by sexually active non-married women was higher, with 29 percent. The most important reasons for not using modern contraception among female youth were health considerations or fear of side effects (45 percent) and opposition against contraceptive use (either by the woman herself or by her partner) (33 percent). As a probable consequence, condoms are by far the most preferred contraceptive method. In this area of contraceptive health effects, provision of more thorough information and education seems warranted.

The 7 thousand abortions recorded in 2011 imply a quite high abortion ratio: for every thousand live births in 2011, there were 205 abortions, and of every 6 pregnancies, about one was terminated by an abortion. However, this figure is much lower than that of 1994, when 434 abortions occurred for every thousand births.

Albania is still considered a country with low HIV prevalence, with 699 individuals diagnosed with HIV in the country at the end of 2013. Available information indicates that HIV prevalence is 0.02 percent and HIV incidence is 0.004 percent. These figures are far below the respective rates for Western and Central Europe. However, the actual number of cases in Albania is believed to be higher than the figures reported, especially because of unreported or undiagnosed cases among men who have sex with men, people who inject drugs, and sex workers. Evidence suggests that the majority of people living with HIV in Albania are unaware of their infection and thus likely to be actively transmitting the virus and presenting late for treatment and care. In addition, statistics show an increasing trend in new infections. In 2013, 124 new HIV cases were recorded, the highest figure reported since recording started in 1993. Although most young people in Albania have heard about HIV/AIDS, correct knowledge about how to prevent infection was considerably less widespread in 2008-09, and comprehensive knowledge about HIV and AIDS transmission among youth was reported for only 22 of men and 36 percent of women.

The 2011 census identified around 11 thousand disabled youth, 8 percent of all disabled in the country. This number of young disabled persons implies that a little less than one of every 100 youth had serious difficulties in performing daily tasks, because of functional problems with seeing, hearing, mobility, self-care, cognition, and communication.

9.7 CHANGING LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

Demographic and social change had an impact on the living arrangements of youth. Generally, households became smaller, especially because of fewer children, and family nuclearisation. Also, the share of persons living outside family arrangements – those in single-person households or living with unrelated persons – gained prominence, especially in the middle youth age group of 20-24 year olds. These households often consist of students and young people who left the parental home, but did not yet engaged in marriage and started a family of their own. Young women tend to live far more often independently than men, either being part of a non-family household or being an unmarried or widowed head of household.

The period of youth often marks one of the most significant transitions in people's lives in Albania: that of marriage. Census 2011 data indicate that at age 29, more than half of the men (55 percent) and three quarters of the women (76 percent) had engaged in marriage during youth. The gender difference in the proportion married is caused by a relatively large difference in age at first marriage: on average men marry at age 29 and women at age 25.

Although for European standards the proportions married are relatively high, they signify a substantial drop compared to the 2001 census. At that time the percentages married at age 29 were 71 for males and 85 for females. This marriage postponement is likely related to extended education, developments in the finding a suitable job on the labour market and the impact of migration experiences during the young adult life stage. There are also indications that an increasing share of people choose to remain unmarried and that the principle of universal marriage is being challenged.

Divorce rates among youth are low, basically because they have only been exposed to the risk of divorce for a very brief time. However, divorce rates of youth aged 25 to 29 has more than doubled in the last inter-census period, a trend that is expected to be strengthened, given the experience of other European countries.

9.8 LIVING CONDITIONS: IMPROVING, BUT STILL POOR

Generally, the material living conditions of Albania youth have improved over the last decades, even though by European standards conditions are poor. According to the 2012 Living Standards Measurement Survey data, some 15 percent of youth aged 15 to 29 lived in conditions that are insufficient to produce a minimum level of material well-being. Although comparable statistics are not available for the past, it is likely that the proportion poor has declined compared to previous decades. At least the possession of durables by households with youth household members has markedly increased between the 2001 and 2011 censuses, not only for relative new types of amenities, like air conditioners and computers, but also for more conventional amenities, such as refrigerators, washing machines and cars. In 2011, 22 percent of youth lived in households that owned a computer and 13 percent in households with internet connection.

In terms of key characteristics of housing quality, substantial improvement has been achieved with regard to access to piped water and adequate sanitation. Whereas in 2001, only 40 percent of youth lived in households that had piped water inside the dwelling, by 2011 this share had increased to 62 percent. Similarly, the youth population with access to a flush toilet increased in the inter-census period for from 65 to 92 percent. The share of youth living in an overcrowded dwelling – with three or more persons per room – has decreased from 26 to 9 per cent.

A marked shift occurred in the tenure status of households of young household heads, a change that is likely related to urbanisation: the share of youth households that rented their dwelling increased from 7 percent in 2001 to 23 percent in 2011.

ANNEX I

Concepts and definitions

Contributing family workers. Those workers who hold a 'self-employment' job in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household, who cannot be regarded as partners, because their degree of commitment to the operation of the establishment, in terms of working time or other factors to be determined by national circumstances, is not at a level comparable to that of the head of the establishment.

Dwelling. The census differentiates between two main types of dwellings: conventional and non-conventional dwellings. Conventional dwellings are defined as independent rooms or suites of rooms and their accessories (for example lobbies, corridors) in a permanent building or structurally separated part thereof which, by the way they have been built, rebuilt or converted, are designed for habitation all the year round. Houses and apartments are common examples of dwellings.

Some housing units do not come fully within the category of a 'conventional dwelling', either because they are mobile, semi-permanent or improvised, or are not designed for permanent human habitation, but which are nevertheless being used at the Census moment as the usual residence of one or more persons.

Educational attainment. The highest level successfully completed in the educational system of the country where the education was received, even if this was received outside schools and universities.

Employed. all persons who, during the reference week, (1) did any work for pay or profit, or (2) were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent for reasons such as: maternity leave, sickness or temporary incapacity to work, training directly connected with their actual work, etc.

Employment-to-population ratio. The proportion of the working-age population that is employed.

Gender parity index (education attendance). The ratio of the number of female students attending primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education to the number of male students in each level (based on the gross attendance ratios).

Gross attendance ratio. The total number of students within a country in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education.

Head of household. The person commonly regarded by the household members as their head. Usually it is the main income earner and decision maker for the household.

Headcount index. The percentage of the population whose monthly per capita consumption expenditure is below the poverty line.

Household. A group of people, either related or unrelated, who live together as a single unit in the sense that they have common housekeeping arrangements, that is, they share or are supported by a common budget. They live together, pool their money, and eat at least one meal together each day.

Inactive population or persons not in the labour force. All persons who, during the reference week, were neither employed nor unemployed, such as pupils/ students, housekeepers, persons in retirement, people with a disability, discouraged unemployed, etc.

Labour force. The economically active population – the employed and unemployed – in the working-age (15-64).

Labour force participation rate. The ratio of the labour force to the working-age population (15-64), expressed as a percentage.

Literacy. The ability both to read and to write. A persons who can with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his everyday life is literate.

Long-term unemployment. Unemployment that lasts 12 months or more.

Long-term unemployment rate. The number of persons unemployed for 12 months or more as a percentage of the

labour force in the same period.

Net attendance ratio. The number of pupils of the theoretical school-age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Occupation. A set of jobs whose main tasks and duties are characterised by a high degree of similarity. Persons are classified by occupation through their relationship to a past, present or future job.

Own-account workers. Those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of job defined as a self-employed job, and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them during the reference period.

Poverty gap. The average distance between the consumption levels of the poor and the poverty line.

School attendance. Regular attendance at any accredited educational institution or programme, public or private, for organised learning at any level of education.

Status in employment. The status of an economically active person with respect to his or her employment, or the type of explicit or implicit contract of employment with other persons or organisations that the person has in his/her job.

Total Fertility Rate. The Total Fertility Rate is the mean number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the fertility rates by age of a given year.

Underemployed. Employed persons of working age, who worked in the reference week 35 hours or less in all jobs, and who are willing to work more hours.

Unemployed. All persons of working age who, during the reference week, were:

- neither had a job nor were at work (for one hour or more) in paid employment or self-employment, and
- were actively seeking work, and
- were currently available for work.

Unemployment rate. The number of unemployed as a percentage of the labour force.

Working age. Age 15 to 64.

Young-age dependency ratio. The ratio between the number of young persons aged under 15 to the number of persons in the most productive ages of 15-64, expressed as a percentage.

Youth. The population aged 15 to 29.

Youth literacy rate. The percentage of literate persons aged 15–24 years.

ANNEX II

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is an instrument suitable for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable statistics and indicators on education. It presents standard concepts, definitions and classifications and covers all organised and sustained learning opportunities for children, youth and adults including those with special needs education, irrespective of the institution or entity providing them or the form in which they are delivered.

LEVEL 0 — Pre-primary education: programmes at level 0, (pre-primary) defined as the initial stage of organized instruction are designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education).

LEVEL 1 — Primary education or first stage of basic education: programmes at level 1 are normally designed on a unit or project basis to give students a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics along with an elementary understanding of other subjects such as history, geography, natural science, social science, art and music. In some cases religious instruction is featured.

LEVEL 2 — Lower-secondary or second stage of basic education: the contents of education at this stage are typically designed to complete the provision of basic education which began at ISCED level 1. In many, if not most countries, the educational aim is to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may expand, systematically, further educational opportunities. The programmes at this level are usually on a more subject-oriented pattern using more specialized teachers and more often several teachers conduct classes in their field of specialization. The end of this level often coincides with the end of compulsory education where it exists.

LEVEL 3 — Upper-secondary education: this level of education typically begins at the end of full-time compulsory education for those countries that have a system of compulsory education. More specialization may be observed at this level than at ISCED level 2 and often teachers need to be more qualified or specialized than for ISCED level 2. The entrance age to this level is typically 15 or 16 years. The educational programmes included at this level typically require the completion of some nine years of full-time education (since the beginning of level 1) for admission or a combination of education and vocational or technical experience with, as minimum entrance requirements, the completion of level 2 or demonstrable ability to handle programmes at this level.

LEVEL 4 — Post-secondary non-tertiary education: ISCED level 4 captures programmes that straddle the boundary between upper-secondary and post-secondary education from an international point of view, even though they might clearly be considered as upper-secondary or post-secondary programmes in a national context. ISCED 4 programmes can, considering their content, not be regarded as tertiary programmes. They are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at level 3.

LEVEL 5 — First stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification): this level consists of tertiary programmes having an educational content more advanced than those offered at levels 3 and 4. Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3A or 3B or a similar qualification at ISCED level 4A. All degrees and qualifications are cross-classified by type of programmes, position in national degree or qualification structures (see below) and cumulative duration at tertiary. There is a distinction between the programmes which are theoretically based/research preparatory (history, philosophy, mathematics, etc.) or giving access to professions with high skills requirements (e.g. medicine, dentistry, architecture, etc.), and those programmes which are practical/technical/occupationally specific. The first type is called 5A, the second, 5B.

LEVEL 6 — Second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification): this level is reserved for tertiary programmes which lead to the award of an advanced research qualification. The programmes are therefore devoted to advanced study and original research and are not based on course-work only.

REFERENCES

- Bloom, D.E., D. Canning and J. Sevilla 2003. The demographic dividend: a new perspective on the economic consequences of population change. RAND Population Matters Program MR-1274, Santa Monica CA.EC (2013), Working together for Europe's young people. A call to action on youth unemployment. Brussels, EC.
- Carletto, G., Davis, B., Stampini, M. and Zezza, A. 2006. A country on the move: international migration in post-communist Albania. *International Migration Review*, 40(4): 767-85.
- Eurostat (2009), *Youth in Europe*. Luxembourg, Eurostat. http://eapyouth.eu/sites/default/files/documents/eurostat_2009_report.pdf
- Eurostat (2011), 6.5% of the EU population are foreigners and 9.4% are born abroad. *Statistics in focus*, 34/2011.
- Eurostat (2015a), Youth unemployment, 2012. Statistics Explained http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/ - Accessed 23/06/2015
- Eurostat (2015b), Population structure and ageing. http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Population_structure_and_ageing - Accessed 15/08/2015
- Eurostat (2015c), Tertiary education statistics. http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Tertiary_education_statistics - Accessed 20/08/2015.
- Eurostat (2015d), School enrolment and early leavers from education and training. http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/School_enrolment_and_early_leavers_from_education_and_training - Accessed 20/08/2015
- Eurostat (2015e), *Being young in Europe today. 2015 edition*. Luxembourg, European Union.
- Eurostat (2015f), *Quality of life, Facts and views*. Luxembourg, Eurostat.
- Ferré, C., E. Galanxhi and O. Dhono (2015), *Profile of the Disabled Population in Albania* . Tirana, UNDP.
- Gjonca, A., A. Aassve and L. Mencarini 2008. Albania: Trends and patterns, proximate determinants and policies of fertility change. *Demographic Research* 19(11): 261-292.
- ICLS (1982), *Resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment*, adopted by the Thirteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians. Geneva, ILO.
- ILO (2008), *Child labour statistics. Report III. 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians Geneva*, 24 November–5 December 2008. ILO Geneva.
- ILO (2012), *The youth employment crisis: time for action*. Geneva, ILO.
- ILO and INSTAT (2012), Working children in the Republic of Albania. The results of the 2010 National Child Labour Survey. Geneva, ILO.
- ILO (2014a), *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*. Eighth edition. Geneva, ILO.
- ILO (2014b), *Skills mismatch in Europe*. Geneva, ILO.
- INSTAT (2004), *Population projections for Albania 2001-2021*. INSTAT, Tirana.
- INSTAT (2010), *Albania Demographic and Health Survey 2008-09*. INSTAT, Tirana.
- INSTAT (2014a), *Labour market 2013*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT (2014b), *Albania labour market dynamics 2001-2011*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT (2014c), *Population and population dynamics in Albania. New demographic horizons?* Tirana, INSTAT.

- INSTAT (2014d), *Albania Population Projections 2011-2031*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT (2014e), *Migration in Albania*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT (2015), *Women and Men in Albania 2015*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT and IOM (2014), *Return migration and reintegration in Albania*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- INSTAT, Institute of Public Health and ICF Macro (2010), *Albania Demographic and Health Survey 2008-09*. Tirana, INSTAT.
- Institute of Public Health (2014a), *Health Bulletin No. 1 2014*. Tirana, Institute of Public Health.
- Institute of Public Health (2014b), *National Health Report*. Tirana, Institute of Public Health.
- Lesthaeghe, R. 2010. The Unfolding Story of the Second Demographic Transition. *Population and Development Review* 36(2): 211-251.
- Lesthaeghe, R., L. Neidert and J. Surkyn (2007), Household Formation and the "Second Demographic Transition" in Europe and the US: Insights from Middle Range Models.
- Ministry of Health (2015), *Dokument politik i strategjisë shqiptare për parandalimin dhe minimizimin e dëmeve alkool-lidhura (2011-2015)*. Tirana, Ministry of Health.
- Ministry of Social Welfare and Youth (2014), Employment Promotion Programmes in Albania: An assessment of its quality in the formulation and implementation processes (2008-2014).
- Pipero, P., A. Ylli, E. Gjebrea, A. Spaho, J. DaVanzo, M. Pipero (2015), Risky Health Behaviors among Albanian Youths: Smoking, Drinking, Body Mass Index (BMI) and their Correlates. *International Journal of Science and Research*, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 846-855.
- UNAIDS and Institute of Public Health (2003), *Let's keep Albania a low HIV prevalence country. The National Strategy of Prevention and Control of HIV/AIDS in Albania 2004 – 2010*.
- UN-HABITAT (2007), *The state of the world's cities 2006-7*. London, Earthscan.
- UNICEF (1999), *An Overview of Young People Living with Disabilities: Their needs and their rights*. New York, UNICEF
- UNICEF (2006), *ALBANIA Most-at-risk adolescents and young people, HIV and substance use Country Mission Report*. UNICEF Romenia.
- UNICEF, UNAIDS and WHO (2002): *Young people and HIV/AIDS Opportunity in Crisis*.
- Van de Kaa, D.J. 1987. Europe's Second Demographic Transition. *Population Bulletin*, 42(1), Population Reference Bureau, Washington (D.C.).
- WHO (2012), *HIV/AIDS Country Profiles, 2011*. Geneva, ILO.
- WHO (2015a), HIV Programme Review in Albania: Antiretroviral therapy and procurement and supply management. Copenhagen, WHO.
- WHO (2015b), *WHO global report on trends in prevalence of tobacco smoking 2015*. Geneva, ILO. http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/156262/1/9789241564922_eng.pdf.
- World Bank 2007. *Albania: Urban growth, migration and poverty reduction: A poverty assessment*. Report No. 40071-AL. Tirana, World Bank.
- World Vision and UNFPA (2012), *Sex imbalances in Albania*. UNFPA, Tirana.

INSTAT
Republic of Albania
Institute of Statistics

INSTITUTE OF STATISTICS
Bul. "Zhan D'Ark", No. 3, Tirana, Albania
Tel: +(355) 4 2222411 / +(355) 4 2233356
Fax: +(355) 4 2228300
E-mail: info@instat.gov.al
Web: www.instat.gov.al

ISBN 978-9928-188-32-8