

Understanding children's work in Albania

June 2013

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Country Report

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Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme

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As part of broader efforts towards durable solutions to child labor, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the World Bank initiated the interagency Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme in December 2000. The Programme is guided by the Oslo Agenda for Action, which laid out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labor. Through a variety of data collection, research, and assessment activities, the UCW Programme is broadly directed toward improving understanding of child labor, its causes and effects, how it can be measured, and effective policies for addressing it. For further information, see the project website at www.ucw-project.org.

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Understanding children’s work in Albania

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CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

1. The most recent ILO global estimates underscore the scale of the remaining challenge posed by child labour. The ILO estimates that there were some 153 million children aged 5-14 years in child labour worldwide in 2008, accounting for almost 13 percent of this age group. Child labour constitutes not only a serious rights violation but also an important barrier to national development. A growing body of evidence indicates that it is associated with negative health and educational consequences in childhood and later in life, exacting a heavy toll on the individuals concerned and on society as a whole. While there is no specific Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on child labour, progress towards a range of other MDGs will be much more difficult in the absence of success in combating child labour.

2. The current report examines the child labour in the context of Albania. Guided by the results of the 2010 Albania *National Child Labour Survey*, the report considers the extent and nature of child labour, its educational consequences and its economic and social causes. Four related objectives are served by the report: (1) improve the information base on child labour, in order to inform policy and programmatic responses; (2) promote policy dialogue on child labour; (3) analyse the relationship between early school leaving, child labour and future status in the labour market; and (4) build national capacity for regular collection and analysis of data relating to child labour.

3. The remainder of the report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the national economic and social context. Chapter 3 of the report focuses on children's involvement in work and schooling. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 assess the extent of children's involvement in employment and household chores, respectively, as well as how children divide their time between work and school. Section 3.3 assesses the nature of children's work and Section 3.4 examines the impact of work on children's education. Section 3.5 employs econometric tools to assess key determinants of children's work and schooling and their implications for policy. Section 3.6 reports estimates of the subset of working children in child labour as defined in national legislation and international legal standards. Section 3.7 assesses out of school children and the need for second chance learning opportunities. Chapter 4 discusses general policy priorities for accelerating progress towards eliminating child labour.

Panel 1. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme

The inter-agency research programme, Understanding Children's Work (UCW), was initiated by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), UNICEF and the World Bank to help inform efforts towards eliminating child labour.

The Programme is guided by the Roadmap adopted at The Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010, which lays out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour.

The Roadmap calls for effective partnership across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks. The Roadmap also calls for improved knowledge sharing and for further research

aimed at guiding policy responses to child labour.

Research on the work and the vulnerability of children constitutes the main component of the UCW Programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, the Programme produces research allowing a better understanding of child labour in its various dimensions.

The results of this research support the development of intervention strategies designed to remove children from the world of work and prevent others from entering it. As UCW research is conducted within an inter-agency framework, it promotes a shared understanding of child labour and provides a common platform for addressing it.

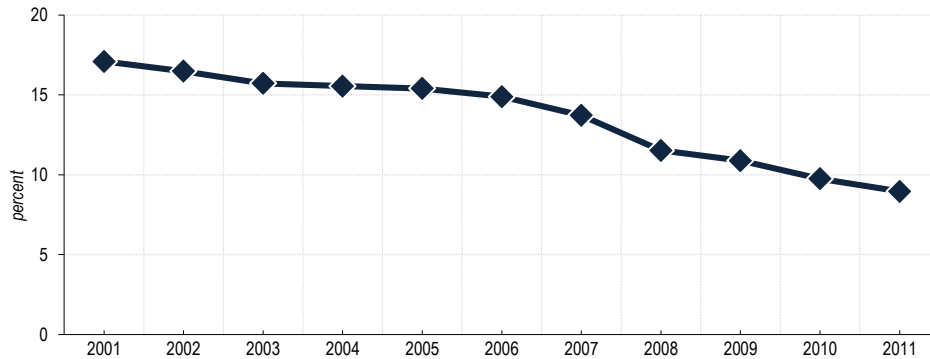
CHAPTER 2. COUNTRY CONTEXT



4. Albania is situated in Southeastern Europe, on the western side of the Balkan Peninsula. Its land mass of about 29,000 square kilometres consists of mostly mountains and hills with small plains along coast. Arable land accounts for about 22 percent of the total area and permanent crops for about three percent. Deforestation, soil erosion, water pollution from industrial and domestic effluents are among the environmental challenges facing the country. Albania is vulnerable to multiple natural disasters such as floods, droughts, earthquake and extreme temperatures.

5. Albania is made up of 12 regions (Berat, Diber, Durres, Elbasan, Fier, Gjirokaster, Korce, Kukes, Lezhe, Shkoder, Tirana and Vlore). Over 53 percent of the country's population of 2.8 million¹ (2011) resides in cities and towns.² Tirana is the capital and the most populous city of Albania. The population in Albania decreased by eight percent in the decade from 2001 to 2011, mainly due to the large scale emigration and fertility decline. In 2010, over 45 percent of the Albanian population lived abroad providing a key source of remittances.³ Although remittances from emigrants have been falling over the past decade; they still account for almost 10 percent of GDP (2011) (Figure 1).

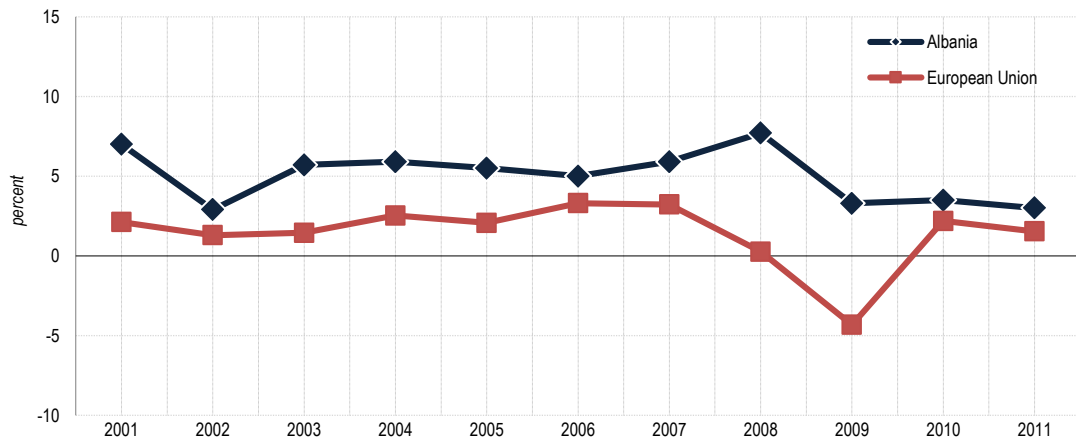
Figure 1. Remittances in Albania as a percentage of GDP, 1992-2011



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, Albania

6. Albania has been one of the fastest-growing economies in Europe over the past decade. Growth has however slowed somewhat in the aftermath of the global economic crisis and the accompanying fall remittances and exports. GDP grew by 7.7 percent in 2008, but growth slowed to 3.3 percent in 2009, 3.5 percent in 2010 and to three percent in 2011. Growth slowed further in 2012, owing primarily to the double-dip recession in the Eurozone. Positive economic performance notwithstanding, Albania's GDP per capita remains one of the lowest in the Europe (current US\$4,030; 2011).

Figure 2. GDP growth (annual %), 2001-2011



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, Albania and European Union

¹ INSTAT.2012. *Albania. Population and Housing Census: Main Results*

² World Development Indicators (WDI), Available at www.data.worldbank.org.

³ World Bank. 2011. *Migration and Remittances Factbook*.

7. Albania's labour market has experienced important changes over the last decade. Emigration and urbanization have contributed to a shift from agricultural employment to more formal employment in manufacturing and services. Employment in agriculture dropped by about 30 percent over the period from 1999 to 2009⁴ but nevertheless remains the main source of employment in Albania, accounting for 44 percent of the total employment (2009). Despite some positive developments, Albania's agricultural sector faces many challenges, including small farm size and land fragmentation, poor infrastructure, limited access to credit and grants and inadequate rural institutions. In 2011, the agricultural sector accounted for 19 percent of GDP, while the services sector accounted for 66 percent and industry for 16 percent.

8. Some 40 percent of Albanian population aged 15 and older is out of labour force (2011). The unemployment rate in Albania stands at 13 percent (2012) but the youth unemployment rate is double this figure.⁵ This pattern clearly discourages Albanian youth transitioning from education to work, pushing them to plan their future outside of their country.

9. During the period from 2002 to 2008, poverty in Albania decreased by half (from 25.4 to 12.4 percent) and extreme poverty fell to less than two percent of the population.⁶ The reduction in poverty was particularly pronounced in rural areas, where the poverty headcount decreased from 39.6 percent in 2002 to 14.6 percent in 2008. Progress in reducing poverty has not, however, been matched by progress in reducing income inequality. The Gini Coefficient, a measure of consumption inequality, increased from 28.2 in 2002 to 34.5 in 2008.⁷

10. Non-monetary indicators of poverty and human development are also improving. Life expectancy at birth, for example, rose to 77 years in 2011 from 72 two decades earlier, and the under-five mortality rate fell dramatically from 40 to 14 per 1,000 live births over the same period. Access to improved sanitation facilities rose from 76 to 94 percent over the period from 1991 to 2010. Albania's UN Human Development Index (HDI) improved from 0.661 in 1990 to 0.749 in 2012. Albania ranks 70th out of 187 countries in the 2012 Human Development Index. Albania has posted important progress towards the Millennium Development Goals, but reaching some of the MDG targets remains a challenge. Table 2 indicates the country's progress with respect to the primary MDG targets.

⁴ World Development Indicators (WDI), Available at www.data.worldbank.org

⁵ INSTAT, 2012.

⁶ World Bank. 2013. *Albania Country Program Snapshot*, Available at www.worldbank.org/en/country/albania.

⁷ World Development Indicators (WDI), Available at www.data.worldbank.org

Table 1. Albania and the Millennium Development Goals

MDG GOAL AND TARGETS	Probability of Meeting 2015 Targets			
	High	Medium	Low	ND
1. Eradicate extreme poverty and reduce the risk of social exclusion				
1.1. Eradicate extreme poverty and reduce 3-fold absolute poverty between 2002 and 2015	High			
1.2. Reduce unemployment rate toward EU employment rate, between 2002 and 2015			Low	
1.3. Improve income distribution so that the Albanian distribution model approaches the EU model between 2008 and 2015				ND
2. Achieve high quality basic universal education				
2.1. Ensure universal enrolment of basic education (1–9 yrs) by 2015			Low	
2.2. Improve education quality to approach OECD countries level				ND
2.3. Increase spending for basic education to the level of new EU member states	High			
3. Promote gender equality and empower women				
3.1. Eliminate gender disparities in basic (grade 1 to 9) education by 2015		Medium		
3.2. Eliminate gender disparities in elected bodies, in decision making in central and local government, and in judicial system		Medium	Low	
3.3. Proportion of budget allocated to gender equality and reduction violence against women and children increased by 50% between 2009 and 2015				ND
3.4. Eliminate gender inequality in employment by reducing women's dependence on informal employment, closing gender gaps in earnings and reducing occupational segregation		Medium		
4. Reduce child mortality				
4.1. Reduce under-five mortality rate to 10 per 1,000 by 2015			Low	
5. Improve maternal health				
5.1. Reduce maternal mortality rate 11 per 100,000 by 2015	High			
6. Combat HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis				
6.1. Halt by 2015 and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS				ND
6.2. Halt and eliminate mortality from tuberculosis, by 2015			Low	
7. Ensure sustainable environmental development				
7.1 Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the trend of loss of environmental resources		Medium		
7.2 Improve access to safe drinking water and sanitation to approach EU standards, by 2015		Medium		
8. Develop a global partnership for development				
8.1 Ensure partnership with donor community in order to increase aid effectiveness		Medium		
8.2 Improve access to trade markets of developed countries so that foreign debt is managed better and for a longer period				ND
8.3 Improve access to ICT to the level of EU new member countries		High		
9. Improve governance for all citizens & especially for the most disadvantaged groups				
9.1 Governance in Albania approaches EU governance standards by 2015			Low	
9.2 Implementation of electronic governance in accordance with EU standards	High			
9.3 Ensure access to services and resources for the most disadvantaged groups in accordance with the most advanced standards		Medium		

Source: Albania National Report on Progress Toward Achieving the Millennium Development Goals, Government of Albania with the support of the United Nations in Albania, July 2010

11. In 2006 Albania started the Education Excellence and Equity Project (EEE) to improve the quality of learning conditions for students; to increase the enrolment in general secondary education; and to initiate higher education reform. Table 1 reports the main results achieved due to the implementation of EEE Project in Albania. Over the period from 2006 to 2011 the participation rates increased at all levels. Further, the progression rates from primary to secondary education rose from 80 percent to 91 percent. Over the same period the upper secondary gross enrolment rate increased from 53 percent to 76 percent. The quality of school system was also improved due to the enlargement of school space, provision of chemistry and biology labs, introduction of new curriculum and textbooks, and trainings for the school principals and teachers. Considerable disparities nonetheless remain between urban and rural areas, among regions and for disadvantaged groups such as Roma, street children and disabled children. For example, Roma children attain on average 4-5 years of education, compared to 11 for the non-Roma population (2010).⁸

Table 2. Results achieved due to the Education Excellence and Equity Project in Albania

1. Between 2006 and 2011, participation rates at all levels increased. Further, the progression rate from primary to secondary education increased from 80 percent to 91 percent in that period.
2. The upper secondary gross enrollment rate increased from 53 percent in 2006 to 76 percent in 2011.
3. Reforms of pre-university education include the introduction of market forces and school-based choice in textbook publishing and purchasing, a curriculum for general secondary schools that now provides options, the introduction of a teacher professional development scheme, and the development of a centralized assessment of achievements and a university entrance system. Most of these reforms are now legally grounded on the recently approved pre-university law by Parliament.
4. Training was provided to all school principals in management and education leadership skills, and over 90 percent of primary and secondary schools have functioning boards. Additionally, about 12,500 teachers have received training under the project.
5. Teacher job satisfaction, according to a Ministry of Education and Science survey, shows signs of improvement from 2006 to 2012.
6. All primary schools are reported to be using the new curriculum and textbooks.
7. An information technology curriculum has been introduced. Computers have been purchased for over 2,000 basic and secondary-level schools and Internet access is widely available. The student-per-computer ratio in general secondary schools decreased from 61 to 16 students per computer.
8. Improvements are noted in the availability of school space, with the percentage of basic schools with multiple shifts dropping from 36 to 16 and for secondary schools from 15 to 8 (partially attributable to project interventions).
9. 250 chemistry labs and 250 biology labs were provided to basic education schools, and 100 chemistry labs and 100 biology labs were provided to general secondary education schools.
10. Important reforms are taking place in higher education that are expected to increase the efficiency and accountability of the institutions.

Source: Albania World Bank Group Partnership: Program Snapshot March 2013

⁸ Save the Children. 2012. *Child Rights Situation Analysis: Albania*

CHAPTER 3.

CHILDREN'S INVOLVEMENT IN WORK AND SCHOOLING

12. This chapter looks at the time use patterns of children in Albania, focusing in particular on the extent of children's involvement in work and schooling. The analysis in this and the remaining chapters is based on data from the 2010 Albania National Child Labour Survey (CLS 2010), a nationally representative household-based survey designed to study the extent and nature of child labour in the country. The survey collected information on the employment and other time uses of children, including schooling and household chores. It also generated information on working hours, sector and status of employment, workplace hazards and work-related ill-health.

3.1 Extent of children's employment

Summary

- Over 32,000 Albanian children aged 6-15 years are in employment, accounting for almost six percent of this age group
- Aggregate estimates of children's involvement in employment mask significant variation by age, household income and place of residence, with important implications for policy and targeting.

13. Children's involvement in employment⁹ remains an important policy concern in Albania. According to the Albania Child Labour Survey (CLS 2010), almost six percent of children aged 6-15 years, over 32,000 children in absolute terms, are in employment. Almost all of these children (some 27,000) are also in child labour for elimination in accordance with the Albanian legislation (see Section 3.6). In order to assess the interplay between employment and school attendance, the remainder of this chapter focuses primarily on children of schooling age, i.e., from the age of six years onwards.

14. One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by disaggregating the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children in employment exclusively, children attending school exclusively, children combining school and employment and children doing neither (Table 3). This disaggregation shows that 89 percent of children aged 6-15 years attend school exclusively, while about five percent of 6-15 year-olds are in both employment and school and less than one percent are in employment exclusively (i.e., are working without also going to school). The remaining five percent of 6-15 year-olds are neither in employment nor in schooling. In absolute terms, about 3,000 children work exclusively, 483,000 attend school exclusively and 29,000 children combine schooling in work. The

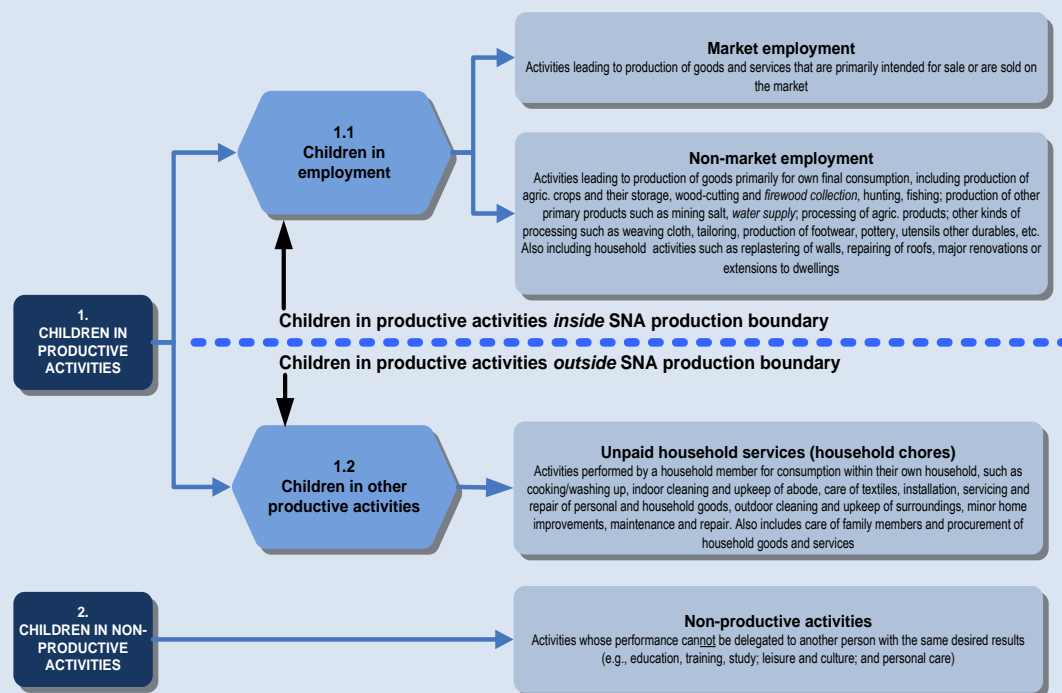
⁹ *Children in employment* is a broad concept covering all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods for own use) (see also Box 1). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings.

remaining 26,000 children neither work in employment nor attended school (Table 4).

Panel 1. Children's work and child labour: A note on terminology

In this study, “children’s work”, is used broadly to refer to all productive activities performed by children. Productive activities, in turn, are defined as all activities falling within the general production boundary, i.e., all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. This includes production of all goods and the provision of services to others within or outside the individual’s household.

In accordance with the standards for national child labour statistics set at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Res. II), the study distinguishes between two broad categories of child workers – children in employment and children in other productive activities. The definition of **children in employment** in turn derives from the System of National Accounts (SNA) (Rev. 1993), the conceptual framework that sets the international statistical standards for the measurement of the market economy. It covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. **Children in other productive activities** are defined as children in productive activities falling outside the SNA production boundary. They consist mainly of work activities performed by household members in service to the household and its members, i.e., household chores.



The term “child labour” is used to refer to the subset of children’s work that is injurious, negative or undesirable to children and that should be targeted for elimination. It can encompass both children in employment and children in other productive activities. Three main international conventions – the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) and ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) – provide the main legal standards for child labour and a framework for efforts against it. The specific statistical definitions employed to measure child labour in the context of Albania are discussed in section 0 of this report.

Table 3. Child activity status by sex and residence, 6-15 age group, percentages

Background characteristics		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Sex	Male	0.6	88.1	6.1	5.2	6.7	94.2	5.8
	Female	0.5	90.6	4.7	4.2	5.2	95.3	4.7
Total 6-15		0.5	89.3	5.4	4.7	5.9	94.7	5.2

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table 4. Child activity status by sex and residence, 6-15 age group, absolute numbers

Background characteristics		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Sex	Male	1,605	248,144	17,266	14,516	18,870	265,409	16,120
	Female	1,269	235,070	12,124	10,995	13,393	247,194	12,264
Total 6-15		2,874	483,214	29,390	25,510	32,264	512,603	28,384

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table 5. Child activity status by sex and residence, 16-17 age group, percentages

Background characteristics		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Sex	Male	10.4	65.0	15.1	9.5	25.5	80.1	19.9
	Female	7.9	71.3	5.4	15.4	13.3	76.7	23.3
Total 16-17		9.0	68.4	9.9	12.7	18.9	78.3	21.7

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table 6. Child activity status by sex and residence, 16-17 age group, absolute numbers

Background characteristics		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Sex	Male	5,513	34,629	8,029	5,080	13,542	42,658	10,593
	Female	4,894	44,054	3,307	9,518	8,201	47,361	14,412
Total 16-17		10,407	78,683	11,336	14,598	21,743	90,019	25,005

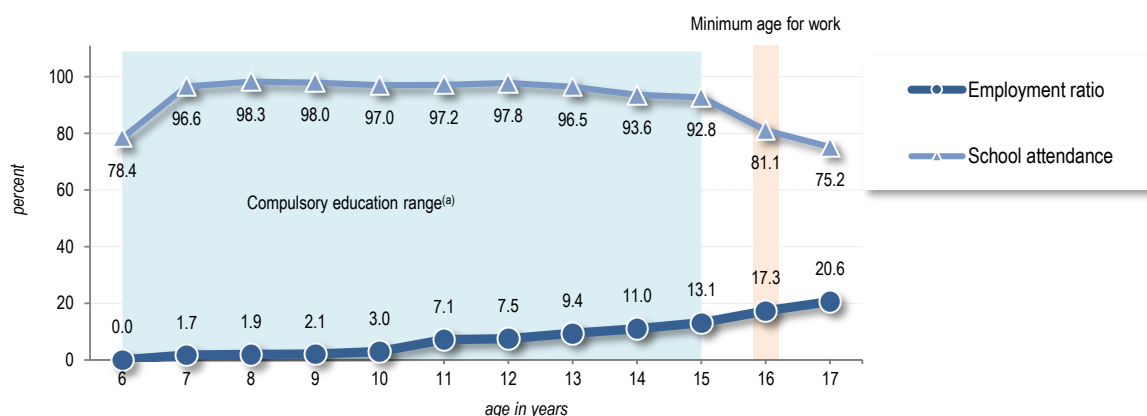
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

15. The share of older, 16-17 year-old, children in employment is much higher, at 19 percent, although fewer from this latter group are in child labour for elimination (see Section 3.6). Activity patterns differ somewhat for children in the 16-17 years age range: a smaller share is in school exclusively (68 percent) and a much greater share is in employment exclusively (nine percent) in 2010 (Table 5 and Table 6). This is not surprising, as the 16-17 years is the age range in which the transition from schooling to working life gathers pace in Albania.

16. Aggregate estimates of children's activities mask important differences by age and sex (Table 3 and Figure 3). The main patterns are discussed below. (Note that child-, household- and community-related *determinants* of child labour are discussed in Section 3.5 of this report).

- **Age:** Children's involvement in work rises with age (Figure 3). This pattern is undoubtedly in large part the product of the fact that children's productivity (and therefore the opportunity cost of keeping them in school) rises as they grow older. The percentage of children in employment increases slowly until the age of 10, when it stands at three percent, but rise more quickly thereafter, reaching 11 percent at the age of 14. Involvement in schooling peaks in the age range of 8-12 years at 97-98 percent and decreases thereafter as children drop out to work in employment and/or to undertake a greater share of household chores. The largest changes in children's employment and school attendance occur between age of 15 and 17 years, at the end of compulsory education.

Figure 3. Child activity status by age group

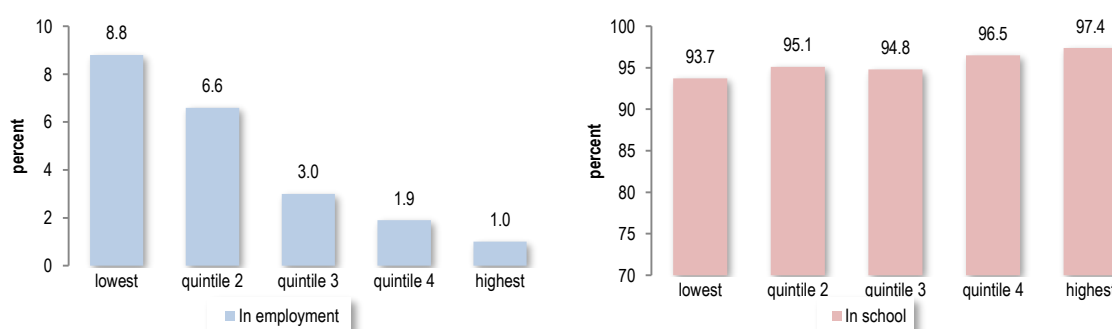


Note: (a) Albania provides 9 years of free and compulsory education. Children generally start school at the age of 6, making education compulsory up to the age of 15 years.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

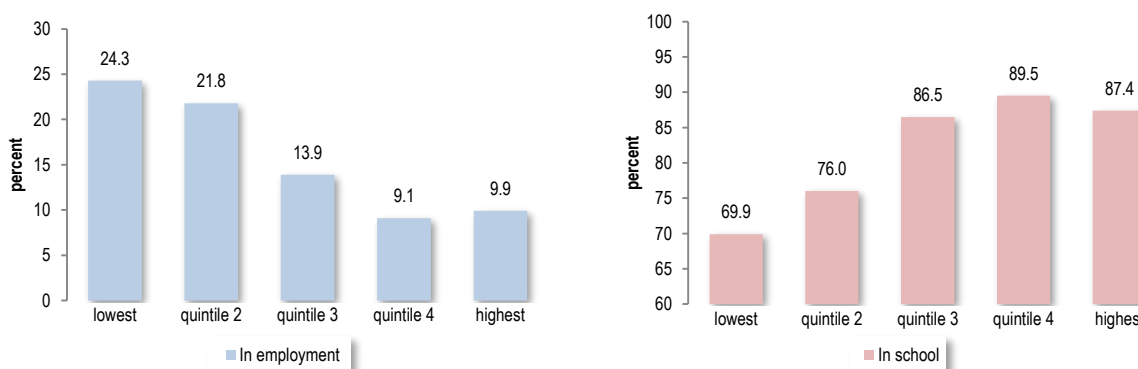
- Gender:** Girls aged 6-15 years are slightly less likely than boys to be in employment (five percent versus seven percent). Gender differences in employment are wider for the group of older, 16-17 year-old children. Boys' involvement in employment for this age group is almost twice that of girls (25 percent versus 13 percent). In interpreting these estimates it is worth recalling that household chores such as child care and household chores performed within one's own home, where girls typically predominate, are not considered (see section 2.2). It is also worth underscoring that girls are often disproportionately represented in less visible and therefore underreported forms of child labour such as domestic service in third party households.
- Household income.** Children's employment is negatively correlated with household income both for 6-15 years and 16-17 years age groups. In other words, the percentage of children in employment decreases as the income of the household (proxied by the household expenditure per capita quintile) increases (Figure 4 and Figure 5). About nine percent of children aged 6-15 years from poorest households, for example, are in employment against only one percent of children from richest households. Children's school attendance rises slightly with household income level, although differences in attendance by income level are not large. These results are consistent with a wide body of international evidence indicating that poverty (proxied by income, consumption, wealth index, etc.) is an important factor in child labour.

Figure 4. Children in employment and in schooling, 6-15 years age group, by household expenditure per capita quintile



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure 5. Children in employment and in schooling, 16-17 years age group, by household expenditure per capita quintile



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

3.2 Children’s involvement in household chores

Summary

- About 38 percent of children aged 6-15 years perform household chores as part of their daily lives, adding to their total work burden
- Four percent of children face the triple burden of employment, household chores and schooling, with obvious consequences on their time for study, rest and leisure.

17. A large proportion of Albanian children also work in unpaid household services (i.e., household chores). According to CLS 2010, about 44 percent of children aged 6-17 years perform household chores as part of their daily lives (Figure 6). This category of production falls outside the international System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary and is typically excluded from published estimates of child labour (see Panel 2 on terminology). Children’s involvement in household chores rises with age: 38 percent of children aged 6-15 years perform household chores, compared to almost 69 percent of older, 16-17 year-old, children. The share of girls performing chores is greater than that of boys, with the difference in involvement by sex rising with age, and ignoring this form of work therefore biases estimates of involvement children’s work in “favour” of boys (Figure 6).

Panel 2. Household chores and the measurement of child labour

Children’s involvement in household chores is also important to the discussion of children’s work. While boys tend to outnumber girls in employment, this pattern is reversed when looking at household chores. The gender implications of these differing patterns for child labour measurement are clear – excluding household chores from consideration as child labour understates girls’ involvement in child labour relative to boys.

But how should child labour in household chores be measured? There are unfortunately no clear measurement criteria yet established. The resolution on child labour measurement emerging from the 18th ICLS recommends considering hazardous household chores as child labour for measurement purposes, and, in line with ILO Recommendation No. 190., cites household chores “performed (a) for long hours, (b) in an unhealthy environment, involving unsafe equipment or heavy loads, (c) in dangerous locations, and so on” as general criteria for hazardousness.

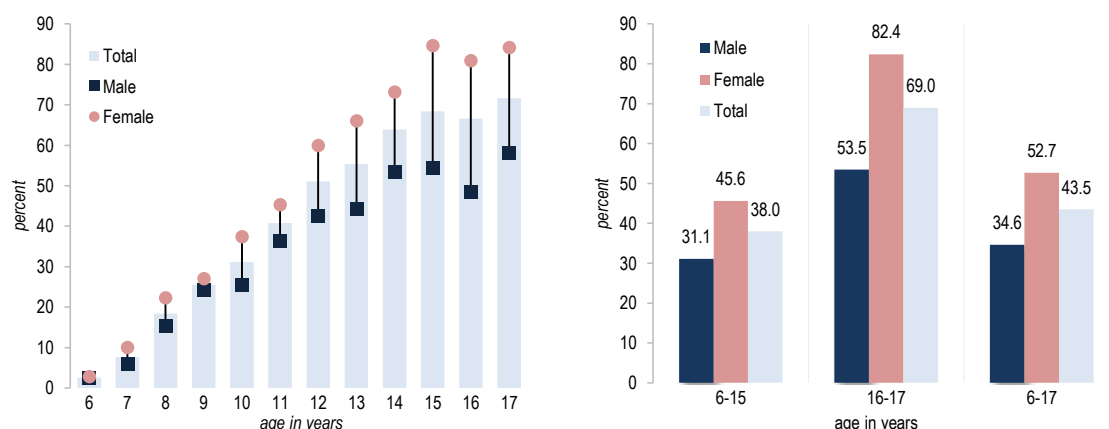
But the resolution contains no specific guidance in terms of what, for example, should constitute “long hours” or “dangerous locations” for measurement purposes, and states that this as an area requiring further conceptual and methodological development.

Some published statistics on child labour apply a time threshold of 28 hours, beyond which household chores are classified as child labour. But this threshold, while useful in advocating for the inclusion of household chores within statistical definitions of child labour, is based only on preliminary evidence of the interaction between household chores and school attendance, and does not constitute an agreed measurement standard.

At the same time, considering all children spending at least some time performing household chores as child labourers would clearly be too inclusive, as helping out at home for limited amounts of time is considered a normal and beneficial part of the childhood experience in most societies.

Source: UCW, 2010. *Joining forces against child labour: Inter-agency report for The Hague Global Child Labour Conference of 2010. Understanding Children’s Work (UCW) Programme – Geneva: ILO, 2010.*

Figure 6. Participation in household chores, by sex and age



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010

18. Shopping, cleaning and care giving are the most common forms of chores performed by children (Figure 7). Male children performing chores are much more likely than female children to be responsible for shopping (87 percent versus 57 percent) and are slightly more likely to undertake repairs. Girls performing chores are more likely to be responsible for cooking (28 percent versus 4 percent), cleaning (73 percent versus 12 percent), laundry (26 percent versus 2 percent) and care giving (25 percent versus 14 percent). The chore types included in Figure 7 are not mutually exclusive – indeed, over 50 percent of children performing chores are responsible for more than one type of chore within the household. Similar tasks and a similar gender division of tasks are also found for 16-17 years-old children (Figure A1).

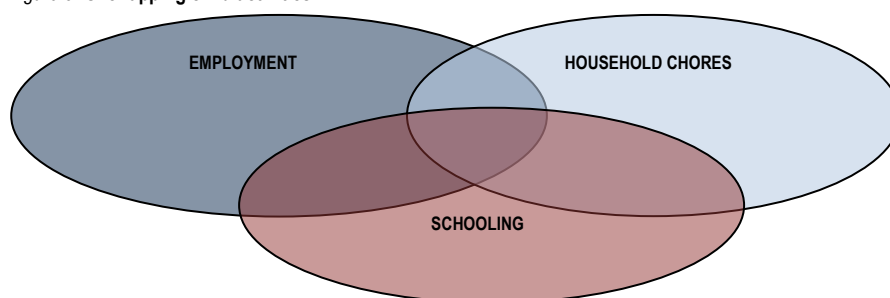
Figure 7. Types of household chores performed by children, 6-15 years age group, by sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010

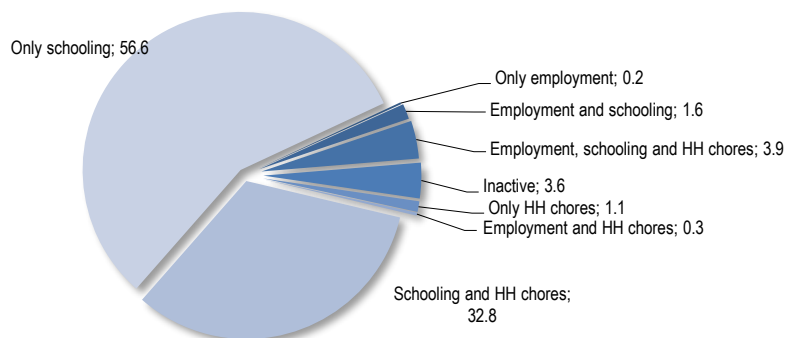
19. Considering household chores adds another layer of complexity to the discussion of children’s time use. As illustrated in Figure 8, children may perform chores in combination with school, employment or in combination with both school and employment. This more complex – but also more comprehensive – picture of children’s activities is depicted in Figure 9.

Figure 8. Overlapping child activities



20. Only about 57 percent of children are able to attend school unburdened by any work responsibilities. Of the remaining children, one third of children combine school and household chores, about two percent combine school and employment, and four percent of children aged 6-15 years face the triple burden of employment, household chores and schooling, with obvious consequences on their time for study, rest and leisure. The remaining four percent of Albanian children are completely inactive, i.e., not attending school or performing any form of productive activity¹⁰ (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Child activity status when household chores are also taken into consideration, 6-15 years age group, by sex



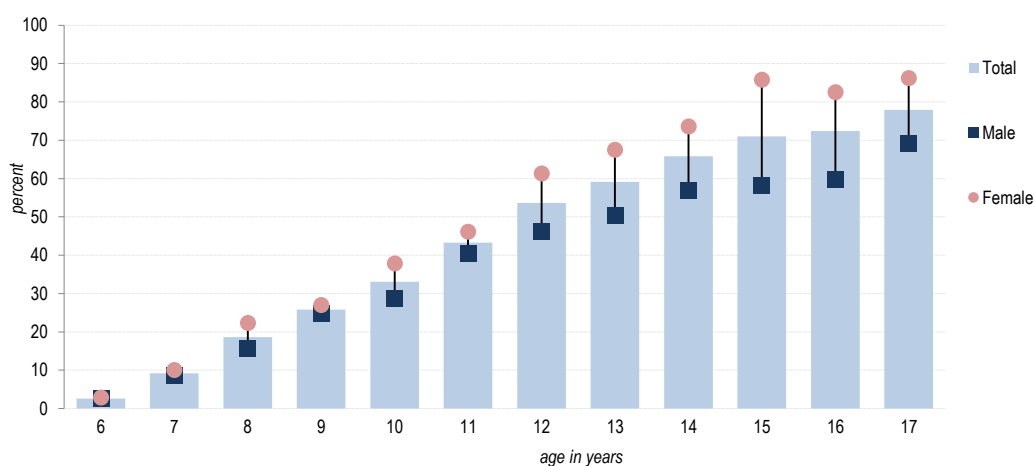
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010

¹⁰ It is likely that at least some in this putatively inactive group is in reality performing worst forms of work other than hazardous, which are not captured by the household surveys.

21. Children’s involvement in employment and household chores need to be combined for a measure of children’s total participation in work.

Developing such a combined measure, however, is not straightforward, as it requires decisions concerning how a unit of time in chores should be weighted vis-à-vis a unit of time in employment. This remains an area of some debate, as underlying it is the question of whether housework has similar implications on child welfare as work in employment (see Panel 2).

Figure 10. Children’s total^(a) work involvement, by age and sex



Notes: (a) Total work refers to household chores and/or employment
 Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010

22. Involvement in work rises to 46 percent among Albanian 6-17 year-olds, over 301,500 in absolute terms, using a combined measure of work.

This measure simply combines involvement in economic and non-economic activity as defined in the CLS 2010 questionnaire, i.e., children spending at least one hour in employment during the week prior to the survey and/or some time on household chores in the week prior to the survey. Girls’ work involvement using this combined measure exceeds that of boys at almost every age (Figure 10). This again underscores that using employment alone as the measure of work understates girls’ work involvement relative to that of boys.

3.3 Nature of children’s work

Summary

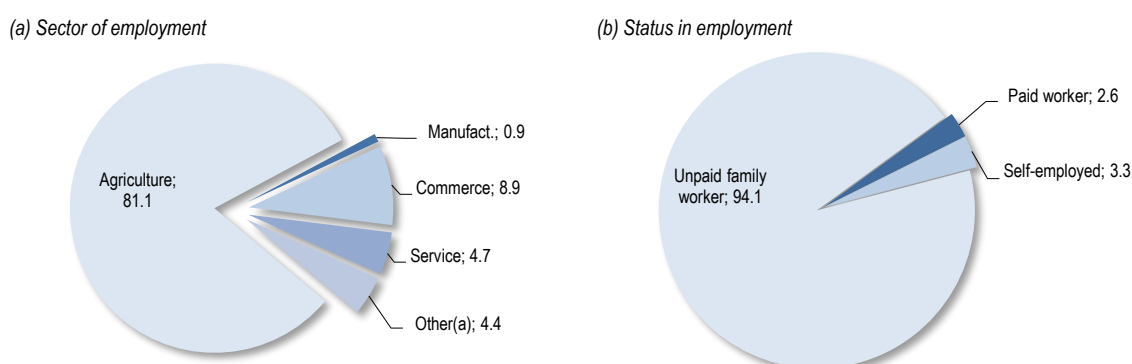
- Working children are concentrated primarily in unremunerated family work in the agriculture sector.
- Children’s work is time-intensive, limiting children’s time and energy for study and for leisure.
- Almost forty percent of all children in employment are exposed to hazardous conditions in the workplace.

23. Information on the various characteristics of children’s work is necessary for understanding the nature of children’s work and children’s role in the

labour force. This section presents data on broad work characteristics that are useful in this context. For children’s employment, the breakdown by industry¹¹ is reported in order to provide a standardised picture of where children are concentrated in the measured economy. A breakdown by children’s status in employment is also reported to provide additional insight into how children’s work in employment is carried out. Average working hours, an indirect indicator of the possible health and educational consequences of children’s work, is reported for both children’s employment and household chores. Finally, children’s exposure to dangerous conditions in the workplace is reported, using information from the child module of the Albania Child Labour Survey 2010.

24. The agriculture sector accounts for the largest share of children’s employment in Albania. Over 80 percent of total employed children aged 6-15 years work in this sector, followed by commerce (nine percent), services (five percent), and manufacturing (one percent) (Figure 11). Almost all children in employment (94 percent) work for their families as unpaid labour (Figure 11). The remaining six percent children in employment are equally divided between paid work and self-employment. Similarly, the overwhelmingly majority of employed children aged 16-17 years are found in agriculture (78 percent) and working in unpaid family work (83 percent) (Figure A4).

Figure 11. Sector and status of children in employment, 6-15 years age group



Note: (a) The category “Other sector” includes construction, mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply, extraterritorial organizations and bodies and other not classified activities.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

25. Gender considerations appear relevant in the composition of children’s employment. Female children are more likely than their male counterparts to be found in unpaid family work both in the 6-15 age group (98 percent versus 91 percent) and in the 16-17 age group (85 percent versus 82 percent). Male children in both age groups are more likely to be in paid and self-employment (Table 7).

¹¹ Based on the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC Rev. 3)

Table 7. Status of children in employment, years age group, by sex

	6-15 years		16-17 years	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Paid worker	4.1	0.5	12.0	7.7
Self-employed	4.7	1.3	6.3	6.7
Unpaid family work	91.2	98.2	81.7	85.6
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

26. Gender differences are small with respect to sector of employment but increase with age. The largest difference is in terms of involvement in agriculture among older, 16-17 year-old, children. The share of girls aged 16-17 years in agriculture is eight percentage point higher than that of their male counterparts.

Table 8. Sector of employment, by age group and sex

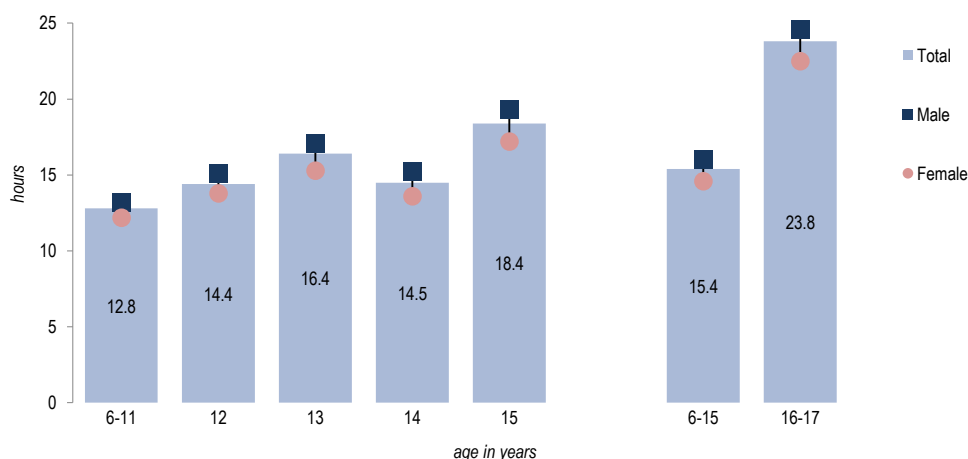
	6-15 years		16-17 years	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture	80.0	82.6	74.9	83.2
Manufacturing	0.9	1.0	3.4	2.7
Commerce	8.3	9.7	7.9	6.2
Service	5.1	4.2	6.6	6.7
Other sector ^(a)	5.8	2.5	7.2	1.3
Total	100	100	100	100

Note: ^(a) The category "Other sector" includes construction, mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply, extraterritorial organizations and bodies and other not classified activities.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

27. Hours worked provide insight into the possible health and educational consequences of work. Albanian children aged 6-15 years in employment log an average of 15 hours per week, while older, 16-17 years-old, children log an average of 24 hours per week (Figure 12). Male children work for slightly more hours on average than female children for both the 6-15 years and 16-17 years age groups.

Figure 12. Average weekly working hours, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

28. Not surprisingly, working hours are strongly negatively correlated with school attendance: non-students in employment put in more than twice as many working hours each week (32 hours) than students in employment (14 hours) (Table 9).

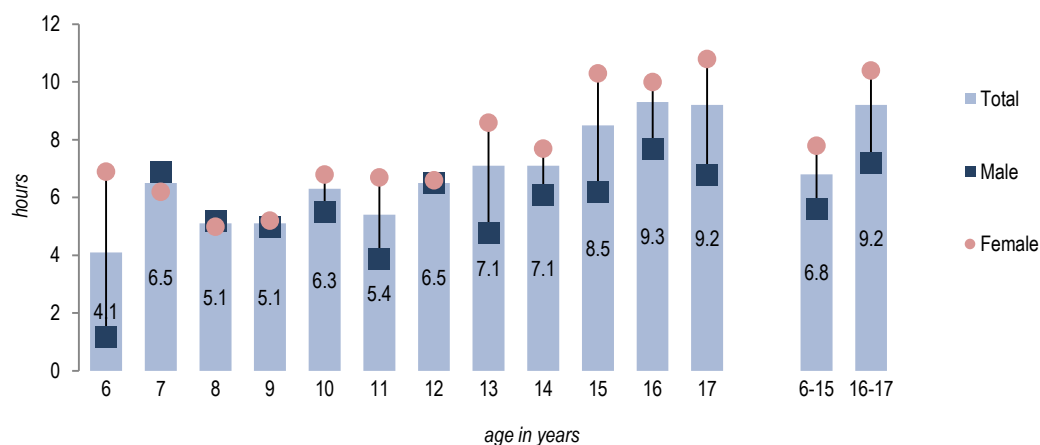
Table 9. Average weekly working hours, by age group, sex and schooling status

		6-15 years			16-17 years		
		Employment exclusively	Employment and schooling	Total ^(a)	Employment exclusively	Employment and schooling	Total ^(a)
Sex	Male	32.4	14.4	16.0	38.1	15.5	24.6
	Female	31.3	12.8	14.6	26.1	17.2	22.5
		31.9	13.8	15.4	32.4	16.0	23.8

Notes: (a) Refers to all those in employment, regardless of schooling status.
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

29. In interpreting these figures on working hours, it is worth recalling that over 70 percent of children in employment also spent a non-negligible amount of time each week performing household chores, adding significantly to the overall time burden posed by work. Children aged 6-15 years performing household chores do so for almost seven hours a week on average (Figure 13). Girls were more likely to have to perform chores than boys (see previous discussion), and girls spent on average over two hours more per week on them than boys (8 hours versus 6 hours). Household chores are more time intensive for older children: children aged 16-17 years spent more than nine hours a week in performing household chores (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Average weekly hours in household chores, by age and sex

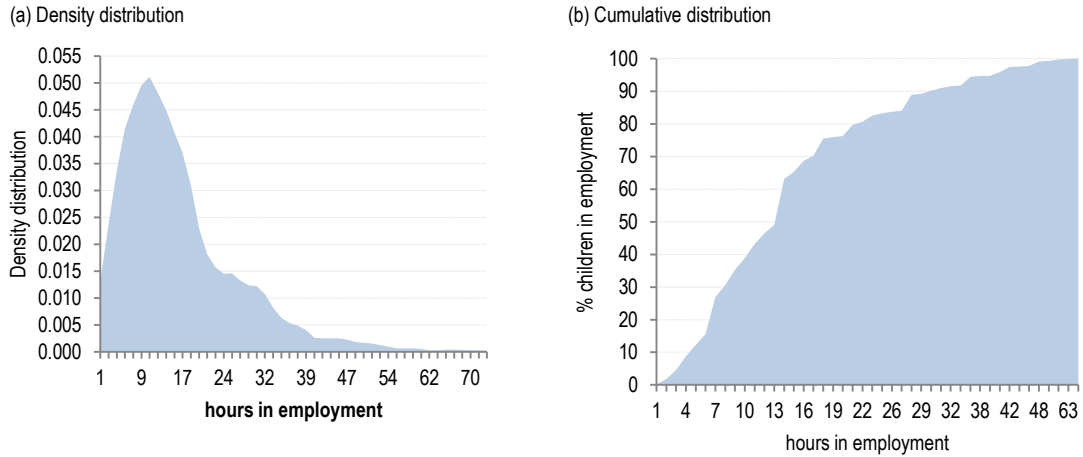


Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

30. Masked by these aggregate estimates of working hours are a non-negligible number of children putting in extremely long hours. This point is illustrated by Figure 14 which reports that density distribution and the cumulative distribution of working children by working hours. The density distribution of children in employment indicates that while working children are clustered around 10 hours per week, there is a non-negligible number of working children in the “tail” of the distribution performing exceptionally long working hours. Similarly, the cumulative distribution of children by working hours shows that more than 24 percent of children in employment log in at least 20 hours per week, and over 10 percent, some 3,500 in absolute terms, put in at least 30 hours per week. These are among the worst off working children, as their work responsibilities completely preclude their rights to schooling, study, leisure and adequate rest. Their prolonged exposure to workplace risks also undoubtedly increases their susceptibility to work-related

sickness and injury. Similar results are found for children aged 16-17 years (Figure A6 and Figure A7).

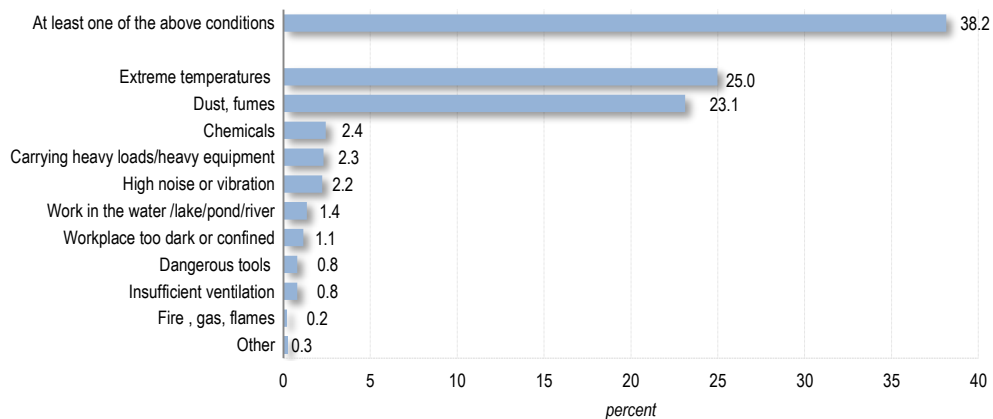
Figure 14. Children in employment by working hours, 6-15 age group



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

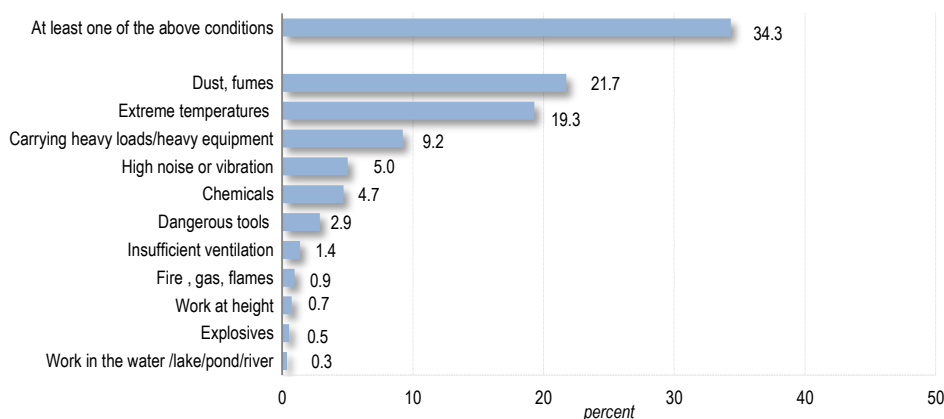
31. Dangerous conditions are alarmingly common in the workplaces where children are found in Albania, posing direct threat to their health and safety. In all, some 11,500 children aged 6-15 years of age, or 38 percent of total children in employment, are exposed to at least one of the dangerous conditions listed in Figure 15. Poor environmental conditions (i.e., exposure to dust and fumes), and extreme temperatures are the most common workplace dangers cited by children. Male children were more likely to be involved in dangerous work than female children (42 percent versus 35 percent) (Table A2). Exposure to dangerous conditions is widespread also among 16-17 years-old children: 34 percent of total children in employment in this age group are exposed to dangerous conditions (Figure 16).

Figure 15. Children's involvement in employment with dangerous conditions, 6-15 year-olds (as % of children in employment)



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

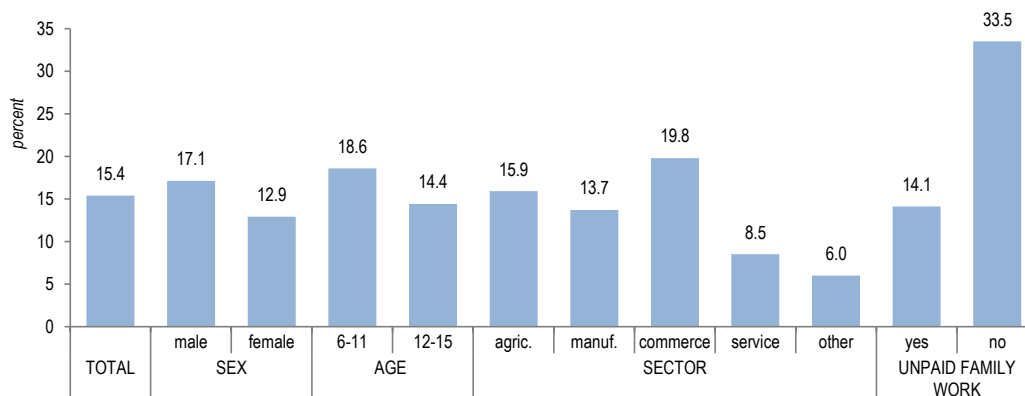
Figure 16. Children's involvement in employment with hazardous conditions, 16-17 year-olds (as percentage of children in employment)



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

32. Given the dangerous nature of children's employment it is not surprising that work-related health problems are common. In all, over 15 percent of children in employment, 4,600 in absolute terms, reported suffering work-related ill-health during the 12 months prior to the Albania CLS 2010 survey (Figure 17). Male children were slightly more susceptible to health problems than their female peers, and a greater share of younger (6-11 year-old) children experience health problems than older (12-15 year-old) children. The risk of ill-health among child workers appears to depend on the type of work they are involved in; the probabilities of work-related health problems are highest for the commerce sector and for paid work.

Figure 17. Percentage of children aged 6-15 years in employment experiencing work-related health problems in the last 12 months, by sex, age sector and family work



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

33. But the relationship between child work and health is complex, and often difficult to disentangle empirically, and this and other similar indicators are imperfect at best. The negative impact of child work on health, for example, may be obscured by the selection of the healthiest children for work. Health perceptions may also differ across population groups, and levels of reported illness among working children and non-working children may be affected by different perceptions of illness. Much of the relationship between child health and work is dynamic (i.e., current health is affected by past as much as present work, and current work affects future as much as present health), a fact that is

not captured by measuring reported illness over a short period. This is an area where further research is required.¹²

3.4 Educational impact of children's work

Summary

- Children's employment is associated with lower levels of school attendance and lower school life expectancy.
- Compromised education, in turn, constitutes the main link between child labour and youth employment outcomes.

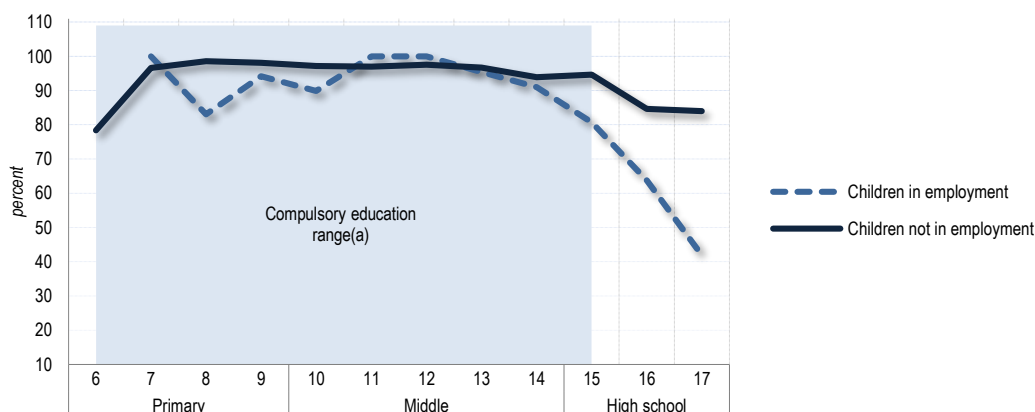
34. The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour, on the one hand, and youth employment outcomes, on the other. Clearly, if the exigencies of work mean that children are denied schooling altogether or are less able to perform in the classroom, then these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for more gainful employment upon entering adulthood.

35. **The school attendance¹³ of children in employment lags behind that of their non-working counterparts.** On average, 91 percent of 6-15 year-olds in employment attend school against 95 percent of children in the same age group not in employment. Not surprisingly, this attendance gap is particularly marked at the post-compulsory level of education (Figure 18). The gap in attendance between children in employment and children not in employment increases from 14 percentage points at the beginning of high school (at age 15 years) to 42 percentage points at the end of high school (at age 17 years). Data are not available in Albania on the *regularity* of school attendance, i.e. the frequency with which children are absent from or late for class, but attendance regularity is also likely adversely affected by involvement in employment.

¹² For a more complete discussion of measurement issues around child labour and health, see: O'Donnell O., Rosati F. and Van Doorslaer E. *Child labour and health: evidence and research issues*. UCW Working Paper, Florence, January 2002.

¹³ School attendance refers to children attending school at the time of the survey. As such it is a more restrictive concept than enrolment, as school attendance excludes those formally enrolled in school according to school records but not currently attending.

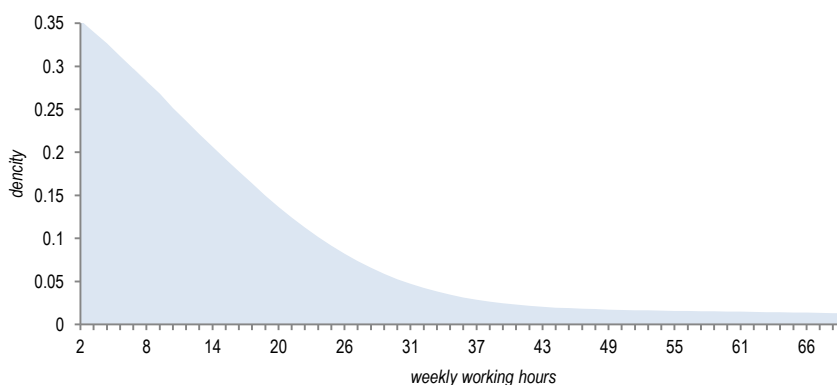
Figure 18. School attendance rate, by work status and age



Note: ^(a) Albania provides 9 years of free and compulsory education. Children generally start school at the age of 6, making education compulsory until the age of 15.
 Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

36. Attendance is negatively correlated not only with involvement in employment but also with the time children spend actually working. As illustrated in Figure 19, the probability of a working child attending school falls off sharply as the number of hours he or she must work each week increases.

Figure 19. Working hours and school attendance (non-parametric estimates) , children aged 6-15 years



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

37. Working children also have lower school life expectancy (SLE). School life expectancy (SLE) provides a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can be expected to complete.¹⁴ Relatively higher school life expectancy indicates greater probability of achieving a higher level of education.¹⁵ SLE, reported in Figure 20, indicates that working children entering schooling can expect to remain there for less time than non-working children. For children aged 7-14 years, at each age the difference in school life

¹⁴ SLE at an age a in year t is calculated as follows:

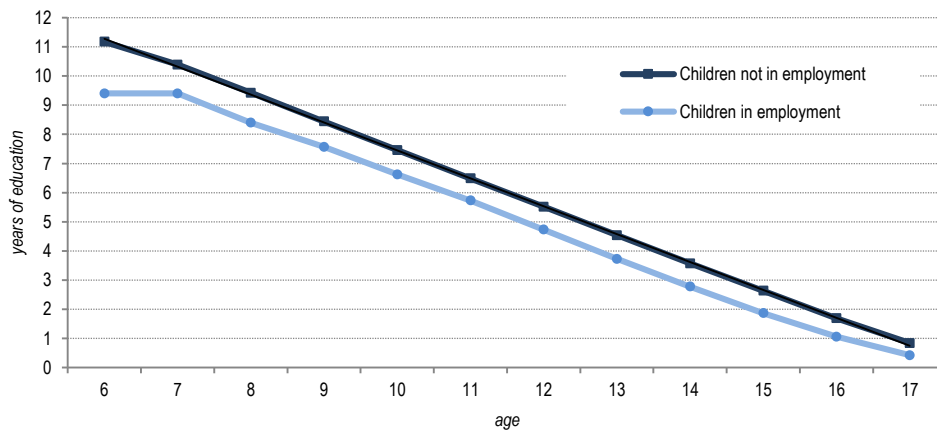
$$SLE_a^t = \sum_{i=a}^{i=n} \frac{A_i^t}{P_i^t}$$

where: A_a^t - attendance of the population of age i ($i=a, a+1, \dots, n$) in school year t ; n - the theoretical upper age-limit of schooling; P_i^t - population of age i in school-year t .

¹⁵ Although expected number of years does not necessarily coincide with the expected number of grades of education completed, because of grade repetition.

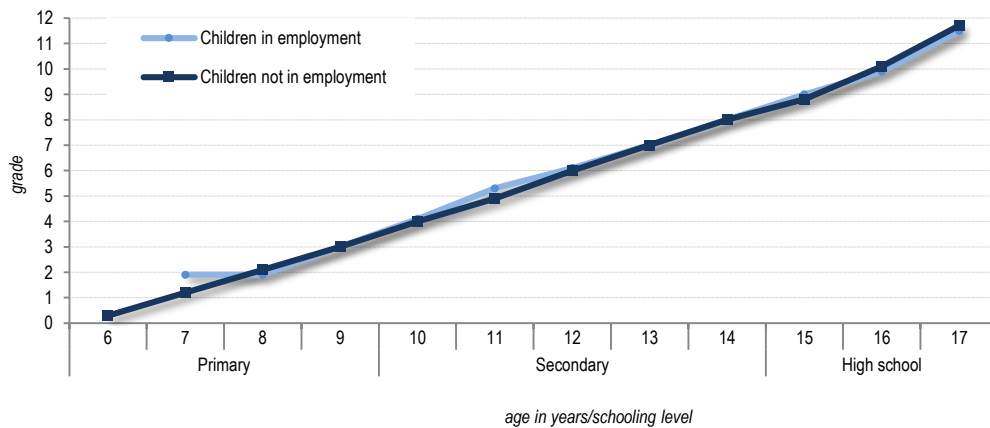
expectancy is about one year. Differences in school life expectancy diminish after age of 14 years, but nonetheless continue to favour non-working children.

Figure 20. School life expectancy, by employment status



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure 21. Highest grade attended, by work status and age, children attending school



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

38. Data on average grade-for-age do not indicate any difference in grade progression between children in employment and their non-working counterparts (Figure 21). But because child workers are more likely to drop out at an early age, and because drop outs are presumably those with higher accumulated delay, the true gap in completed grades, i.e., the gap that would be observed in the absence of selective drop out, is likely underestimated. Information on learning achievement scores is needed to obtain a more complete picture of the impact of work on children’s ability to benefit from their time in the classroom.

3.5 Determinants of children's work

Summary

- Household decisions concerning children's work and schooling are influenced by a number of individual and community background factors.
- Children's age and sex, household structure, household education level, land and livestock ownership and exposure to shocks, inter alia, all play a significant role in determining children's involvement in work.

39. As most children (excluding those that live on their own) exercise little control over their time allocations, determining why children work requires investigating why parents choose to engage their children in work rather than sending them to school or leaving them idle at home. Both socio-cultural and economic considerations are important in this context. Households are influenced by the perceived costs of child labour and benefits of schooling. But factors which influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics. Social norms, cultural attitudes and perceptions, e.g., regarding girls' schooling or early marriage, also affect household decisions on children's school and work.

40. This section makes use of econometric evidence from the Albania Child Labour Survey (2010) to identify some of the factors influencing parents' decisions concerning their children's time use.¹⁶ Table A6 in the Statistical Appendix presents the summary descriptive statistics of the variables included in the econometric analysis. The variables are described below:

- *Child and household characteristics.* We have employed a set of control variables to take into consideration individual and household characteristics. The control variables include: the age of the child (age, age squared); a gender dummy (male); the number of the household members; the number of children aged 0-4 in the household, the number of adults (aged 18-64 years) and the number of household members older than 65 years; and a series of dummy variables for the education of the household head (middle, high school or higher). A dummy variable is also included to control for the living in the capital city (Tirana).
- *Household ownership.* The questionnaire allowed identification of whether the household owned land and livestock. Two dummy variables were created to take into consideration the effects of these two variables: a dummy variable taking value of 1 if the household owned land irrespective of the size, and a dummy variable taking the value of 1 if the household owned livestock.
- *Shocks.* The Albania Child Labour Survey contains a set of questions pertaining the occurrence of shocks (see Panel 3 for an extended description). In order to isolate the likely effect of different shocks on the children's probability of going to school or working, we have created the following set of dummy variables taking the value of 1 if the event has occurred during the year previous to the survey. Whether the household has experienced a countrywide/communitywide collective shock; whether the household has experienced the following household level problems: 1) loss of harvest or/and livestock; 2) bankruptcy of family business or/and

¹⁶ A small sample size of children aged 6-15 years in employment exclusively does not allow using a biprobit model that jointly determines the correlated decisions on child schooling and work. Instead, three separate probit models on schooling exclusively, combination of schooling and employment and children's idleness were estimated.

incidents with household members¹⁷, and 3) fall in prices of products of the household business.

4.1. Results of the econometric analysis are reported in Table 10; some of the key qualitative inferences from the analysis are presented below.

Table 10. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after probit estimations, 6-15 year-olds

Explanatory variables		Only schooling		Schooling and employment		Neither in school nor in employment	
		dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Child characteristics	Age	0.0883***	6.97	0.0366***	4.51	-0.0540***	-8.75
	Age ²	-0.0047***	-8.11	-0.0011**	-3.16	0.0024***	8.35
	Male	-0.0270**	-3.21	0.0160***	4.03	-0.0012	-0.28
Sex and education of household head	Education of household head: Middle	0.0141	1.09	0.0087	1.34	-0.0146*	-2.37
	Education of household head: High school	0.0453***	3.58	0.003	0.43	-0.0263***	-4.65
	Education of household head: Post-school	0.0624***	4.8	-0.0190**	-2.91	-0.0199***	-4.34
Household characteristics	No of children aged 0-4	-0.0187	-1.88	0.0100*	2.09	0.0011	0.23
	Number of adults aged 18-64	0.0144*	2.3	-0.0053	-1.90	-0.0058	-1.78
	Number of aged members (65+)	0.0075	0.85	0.0042	1.07	-0.0099*	-2.15
	Household size	0.0009	0.19	-0.0011	-0.51	0.0017	0.72
	Access to tap water	-0.0044	-0.49	0.0106**	2.9	-0.0081	-1.58
	Logarithm of household expenditure p.c.	0.0360***	3.78	-0.0099*	-2.25	-0.0135**	-2.90
	Household own livestock	-0.0506***	-3.89	0.0333***	4.68	-0.0124*	-1.98
	Household own land	-0.0236	-1.85	0.0308***	4.86	-0.0083	-1.28
Individual shocks	Loss of harvest or/and livestock	-0.1120**	-3.02	0.0549**	2.58	-0.0209**	-3.05
	Bankruptcy of family business or incidents with hh members ⁽¹⁾	0.0217	1.77	-0.0019	-0.32	-0.0131*	-2.57
	Fall in prices of products of the household business	-0.0758**	-2.82	0.0460**	2.86	-0.0169*	-2.20
Collective shocks ⁽²⁾	YES	0.0071	0.7	0.0038	0.79	-0.0062	-1.20
Residence	Tirana	-0.0064	-0.54	-0.0131**	-2.75	0.0130*	2.01

Notes:

⁽¹⁾ Incidents with household members such as: Loss of employment/illness/death of a working household member; Abandonment by the household head.

⁽²⁾ The countrywide or communitywide shocks such as: Natural disaster; Epidemics; Business closing due to economic recession; Falling agricultural prices; Price inflation; Public protests and other, in the last 12 months

Reference categories: Education of household head: Primary or less education; Household level problems: household has not experienced given problem in the last 12 months;

*** Statistically significant at 1% level; ** at 5% level; * at 10% level

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

4.2. **Age.** In line with the descriptive evidence presented earlier, the analysis shows that the probability of a child combining schooling and employment increases with age. The available information is insufficient to provide a precise idea of the relative importance of the two most probable reasons for this, i.e., the rising opportunity cost of schooling as a child grows older, or the lack of access to schooling at the post-primary level.

4.3. **Sex.** Parents' decisions concerning whether to involve their children in school or work also appear influenced by gender considerations in Albania. Holding constant household income, parents' education and other relevant factors, boys are less likely to attend school exclusively and more likely to combining schooling and work than their female counterparts. But it is worth noting that these results do not extend to involvement in household chores, a variable not included in the multivariate analysis. The descriptive evidence

¹⁷ The incidents with household members such as: loss of employment/illness/death of a working household member; abandonment by the household head.

presented above suggests that gender considerations are an important factor in the assignment of responsibility for chores in the household – a greater proportion of girls than boys perform chores at almost every age.

44. Household structure. Children from households with more young children, and therefore more dependant mouths to feed, are more likely to combine education and employment and less likely to study exclusively. The presence of more prime-age adults aged 18-64 years in the household has the opposite effect, increasing the likelihood of schooling exclusively and reducing the likelihood of schooling and work.

45. Education of household head. The effect of an increase of parents' education levels on the reduction of child labour is significant but not large. Higher household head education levels make it more likely that a child attends school exclusively and less likely that he or she combines schooling and employment or does neither. It is worth reiterating that these results are obtained holding income constant, i.e., independent of any disguised income effect. One possible explanation is that more educated parents might have a better knowledge of the returns to education, and/or are in a better position to help their children exploit the earning potential acquired through education.

46. Household income. The level of household income (proxied by the logarithm of household expenditure per capita) also appears to play a role in decisions concerning children's work and schooling. Children from better-off households are more likely to go to school exclusively and less likely to combine schooling and employment or to do neither. The results underscore that children's earnings or productivity can play an important role in household survival strategies among low-income families.

47. Household access to basic services. Access to water may affect parents' decision about children's activity status in different ways. One way in which water access affects parents' decisions relates to the time requirements associated with water collection. A lack of ready water access, means having to carry water from long distances, poses a significant time burden on children, leaving them less time and energy for studying. The regression results, however, show only a small positive effect of water access on the probability that a child combine work and school.

48. Household ownership of land and livestock. Household ownership of land and livestock has a significant influence on children's time allocation between work and school. Holding other factors constant, children belonging to household owning livestock are about five percentage points less likely to attend school exclusively. At the same time, they are over three percentage points more likely to combine work and school and less likely to do neither. Similarly, children belonging to households owning land are over three percentage points more likely to combine work and school and about two percentage points less likely to only go to school. One reason for these results is that when household owns land or livestock there is an increase in the demand for labour within the family unit, outweighing the income effect associated with land and livestock ownership.

49. Exposure to shocks. Over 30 percent of Albanian children belong to a household experiencing a shock (see Panel 3), and therefore the impact of shocks on decisions concerning children's employment and schooling is of considerable policy interest. The econometric evidence suggests that some individual or idiosyncratic shocks have an important impact on children's time use. A shock involving loss of harvest or livestock reduces the probability of schooling exclusively by 11 percentage points; it increases the probability of combining study and employment by five percentage points and reduces the probability of being neither in school nor in employment by two percentage points. A shock involving fall in prices of products of the household business

has a similar impact. These results point to the need for policies aimed at reducing household vulnerability as part of a broader effort against child labour.

50. Region of residence. Children’s living location has an influence on their time use, highlighting the importance of targeted, area-specific approaches to reducing child labour and raising school attendance. Again holding other factors constant, children living in Tirana are less likely to combine education and employment and more likely to be neither in school nor in employment than children in other regions.

51. But children’s employment is a complex phenomenon and the factors mentioned above clearly represent only a partial list of determinants. Better data and more in-depth analysis are needed for a more complete understanding of why children become involved in work. More information on availability of infrastructure, school quality, access to credit markets, coverage of social protection schemes, is especially needed. As stated at the beginning of this section, decisions concerning children’s work and schooling are driven by both economic and socio-cultural factors, and a better understanding is also needed of the role of the latter. The unique circumstances causing children’s involvement in worst forms of child labour other than hazardous, not captured by traditional household surveys, is an area requiring particular research attention.

Panel 3. Exposure to shocks and child labour

There is a growing body of evidence at the international level indicating that exposure to shocks matter for household decisions concerning children’s work and education (see, for example, Guarcello et al., 2008). Specifically, evidence suggests that households can be forced to use their children’s labour as a buffer against negative shocks. In other words, some households, when faced with a shock, respond by pulling children out of school and sending them to work in order to help make ends meet. Policies that reduce household vulnerability and help them cope with the negative consequences of shocks can therefore be helpful in reducing children’s work and in safeguarding their education. But shocks experienced by household can take a variety of forms and their consequences may depend on their specific nature. As a result, the policies required to manage and help cope with risk might also vary depending on the kind of shock experienced.

The 2010 Albania Child Labour Survey contains a set of questions pertaining to the occurrence of shocks. Shocks are grouped in two broad categories: collective and individual (idiosyncratic) shocks. Collective shocks include events like drought, epidemic, general increases of the prices etc. Individual shocks include a number of specific household problems that resulted a fall in income, for example death/illness of an active household member, loss of employment/business of a household member, loss of harvest or livestock. Households reported the main collective shock and all individual shocks they experienced in the last 12 months (Table A and Table B).

Table A. Distribution of households, by type of collective shock

	%	No
YES	18.6	142,454
Natural disaster	2.0	15,639
Epidemics	0.3	2,536
Business closing due to economic recession	0.1	953
Falling agricultural prices	2.6	19,990
Price inflation	12.7	97,569
Public protests	0.2	1,564
Other	0.6	4,203
NO	81.4	624,674

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table B. Percentage of household experiencing household specific problems resulted a fall in household income

	%	No
YES, at least one of the below shocks	18.3	140,152
Loss of employment of any member	6.7	51,572
Bankruptcy of a family business	0.9	7,119
Illness or serious accident of a active member of the household	3.0	23,034
Death of a working member of the household	1.3	9,860
Abandonment by the household head	0.3	2,211
Fire in the house/business/property	0.2	1,458
Criminal act by household member	0.2	1,223
Land dispute	0.3	2,492
Loss of cash support or in-kind assistance	0.5	3,963
Fall in prices of products of the household business	4.0	30,582
Loss of harvest	1.6	12,009
Loss of livestock.	0.9	6,706
Other	3.1	23,844
NO	81.7	626,977

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

How many children belong to households hit by shocks? This question is of particular relevance for the discussion of the impact of shocks on children's schooling and on child labour. Table C shows the distribution of children aged 6-15 years exposed to individual shocks or collective shocks, or both types of shocks or no shocks. Over 30 percent of children reported experiencing one or more type of shocks during the year previous to the survey; of these, twelve and a half percent reported experiencing a collective shock, over 12 percent an individual shock and over seven percent reported experiencing both types of shocks.

As illustrated in Table D, exposure to collective and individual shocks is correlated with greater involvement in employment among children. Employment among children exposed to individual shocks in the past year is almost twice as high as employment among children not exposed to shocks (10 percent versus five percent). Exclusive school attendance on the other hand is slightly lower among children exposed to shocks.

Table C. Percentage of children aged 6-15 years affected by collective and individual shocks

		Individual Shock		
		Yes (%)	No (%)	
Collective shock	Yes (%)	7.3	12.5	Total 100
	No (%)	12.4	67.9	

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table D. School attendance and employment of children aged 6-15 years, by involvement in collective and individual shocks

		At school exclusively	In employment
Collective shock	Yes	89.4	7.5
	No	89.3	5.6
Individual shock	Yes	86.9	9.5
	No	89.9	5.1

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

3.6 Child labour for elimination

Summary

- Child labour is a narrower concept than children’s employment or work, and refers to work that is injurious, negative or undesirable to children as set out in national legislation and international labour standards.
- Child labour is very common in Albania: almost 36,000 children aged 5-17 years, five percent of this age group, are in child labour measured in accordance with national legislation.

52. Before leaving the discussion of children’s work, it is worth addressing one final question – the extent to which this work constitutes “child labour”. Child labour is a narrower concept than children’s work, and refers to work that is injurious, negative or undesirable to children as set out in national legislation and international labour standards.¹⁸ It is this smaller group of child labourers that is most relevant for policy purposes. Lower-bound estimates of child labour are presented below following the global guidelines for child labour measurement¹⁹ and with reference to national child labour legislation.

53. Albania has made a number of important legal commitments in the areas of child labour. The Government has ratified the ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) and ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age). According to the Albanian Labour Code (Article 98), children below the age of 16 are prohibited from work; however, children aged 14-15 years can be employed during the holidays from school, provided that this employment doesn’t harm their health and growing up. The Council of Ministers defines light work and sets specific rules for the maximum duration and conditions for performing this work; night work is prohibited all children under age of 18 years (Albania Labour Code, Art. 99 and Art. 101).

54. For a complete estimation of child labour in Albania,²⁰ it is necessary to look at (1) all children aged 5-13 years in employment; (2) all 14-15 year-old children working in excess of 14 hours per week and/or in hazardous occupations, industries or conditions; and (3) all 16-17 year-olds working in excess of 48 hours per week and/or in hazardous occupations, industries or conditions. The detailed list of hazardous occupations, industries and conditions is provided in the Panel 4.

55. Child labour based on these measurement criteria is not uncommon in Albania. Almost 17,200 children aged 5-13 years are in employment, while 9,900 children aged 14-15 years work in excess of 14 hours per week and/or in hazardous occupations, industries or conditions and some 8,700 children aged 16-17 years work in excess of 48 hours per week and/or in hazardous

¹⁸ Three main international conventions – the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) and ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) – define child labour and provide a framework for efforts against it.

¹⁹ Global guidelines for child labour statistics are set out in Resolution II (2008) of the Eighteenth International Conference of Child Labour Statisticians (ICLS). For further details, see: Resolution II, Resolution Concerning Statistics of Child Labour, as cited in: International Labour Organization, *Report of the Conference, 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva, 24 November–5 December 2008. Resolution II*. Rpt. ICLS/18/2008/IV/FINAL, International Labour Office, Geneva, 2009.

²⁰ For further details see: “Working Children in the Republic of Albania: The Results of the 2010 National Labour Survey”, ILO-IPEC Report, 2013.

occupations, industries or conditions. Summing these three groups yields a total of over 35,700 children aged 5-17 years in child labour (Table 11).

Table 11. Lower-bound estimate of child labour involvement, based on national legislation

Sex	(a) Children aged 5-13 years in economic activity ⁽ⁱ⁾		(b) children aged 14-15 years in hazardous work ⁽ⁱⁱ⁾		(c) Children aged 16-17 years in hazardous work ⁽ⁱⁱⁱ⁾		(a)&(b)&(c) Total in child labour, 5-17 years	
	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.
	Male	4.3	10,427	9.1	5,731	11.6	6,165	6.2
Female	3.1	6,741	6.8	4,195	4.0	2,488	3.9	13,424
Total	3.7	17,168	8.0	9,926	7.5	8,653	5.1	35,746

Notes:

(i) National child labour legislation prohibits the employment of children under the age of 16 years. This prohibition does not apply to the juveniles from 14 to 16 years of age, when they are employed during the holidays from school, provided that this employment doesn't harm their health and growing up (Albanian Labor Code, Article 98).

(ii) Includes 14-15 year-olds working over 14 hours per week and children aged 14-15 years involved in *hazardous occupation/industry* or exposed to *hazardous conditions* (see Panel 4) irrespective of working hours.

(iii) Includes 16-17 year-olds working over 48 hours per week and children aged 16-17 years involved in *hazardous occupation/industry* or exposed to *hazardous conditions* (see Panel 4) irrespective of working hours.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Panel 4. Hazardous occupations, industries and conditions in Albania

The hazardous occupation include: (a) Works in the mines, underground, and in other works, underground, carried out by: mineral, armature and fire and their assistants (ISCO-08=811); technical manager (engineering-technical personnel); Mining engineering technician (ISCO-08=311); loading and transportation laborers (ISCO-08=931); rescue and inspection personnel, mining, and the staff of the department of inspection and rescue (ISCO-08=821); rescue and inspection personnel, mining, and the staff of the department of inspection and rescue, mining, Tirane (ISCO-08=311); (b) Works in civil aviation, performed by: commander; aviation pilot (ISCO-315); navigator (ISCO-315); mechanic (ISCO-723); radio-telegraphers (ISCO-311); radio-telephonist (ISCO-311); (c) Works in factories for enrichment of copper, chromium, coal, in foundries and in the enrichment plant of coastal sands and quartz enrichment plants, including: works in the foundry; works in the blacksmith; works on boilers and vessels under pressure; electric arc welding and working with operators to automate the welding; welding oxyacetylene (ISCO-721); (d) Works such as: scuba gear, welder electro-welder reservoirs, towers and tanks, employees of cleaning the interior of reservoirs, employees working with solution aerosols, radioactive; employees working with radioactive rays and radioactive environments; drivers and aid drivers (ISCO-754); (e) Works in the fields of education and culture, such as: ballet dancers and dancer ensembles; acrobats and circus gymnast; soloist of the opera; musician wind instruments, the orchestras and bands (ISCO-265); (f) Works in the field of health with ionizing radiation (cobalt-therapy, imagery, classical radiology, scanner, magnetic resonance) (ISCO-221); the microbial laboratories (ISCO-221); the infectious service, in surgery and anesthesia in operating rooms with gas (ISCO-211); (g) Works in the copper industry (ISCO-721); (h) Works in chemical and processing industries such as: the production of batteries; the processing of leather and fur (ISCO-815); in paper factories (ISCO-814). (i) Works in the metallurgical industry, oil production and its by products, such as: in black metallurgy of ferrochrome; in the rolling mill plants; in the pig iron plants; in units of furnace; the production of synthetic substances, extruded, polyethylene, etc.; (j) Works in the electrical industry: hanging about 5 feet from the surface of the earth; services operating at 110 kw sub-stations and higher; services of devices that emit coherent monochromatic beam (laser), electromagnetic rays, high frequency, very high, low and very low; in electro derrick services, with mobile tower; operative services in electrical filial and distribution, (k) Works in bricks and tiles production and ceramic items as: the manufacture of cement (ISCO-811); the manufacture of glass, glass and electric lamps; in the leather industry; in the wood industry, paper and plates carpentry tiles; (l) Works in the fermentation of the tobacco industry and cigarette manufacturing industry; (m) Construction of: employee of asphalt and asphalt production worker (ISCO-931); employee prepares concrete (ISCO-931); employee raises industrial chimneys (ISCO-931); a worker who makes the pylon; probe worker; excavator worker (ISCO-834); miner to quarrying (ISCO-811); plating operator (ISCO-812); roller worker; in the careers of clay miner; poly-graphic worker; (n) Jobs in military enterprises: the dismantling of ammunition; the extraction of explosives from shells un-mountable; the extraction of powder from the ammunition cartridges to be dismantled; transportation of munitions, propulsion and explosives; the manipulation of pressure vessels; the ranges of tests and rounds of cartridges; the manufacture of dry batteries (electrolytes preparation and blending agglomerate); on production lines in the tunnel; galvanic processes; the manufacture of fireworks; in tire production (preparation of pulp); the welds with tin; in the process of cleaning the sand and shiny detail; the production of detonators; in processing lines and production of propulsion and explosives; the manufacture and manipulation of explosives, initials, propulsion, explosive.

The hazardous industries include: construction, mining and quarrying.

The hazardous conditions include: carrying heavy loads, operating any machinery/heavy equipment, exposure to adverse conditions such as dust/fumes, fire/gas/flames, loud noise or vibration, extreme cold or heat, insufficient ventilation; working during night, underground, at heights, in water/lake/pond/river, in dark or confined workplace; using dangerous tools, chemicals, explosives, etc. as well as children who are verbally or physically abused at work.

Source: "Working Children in the Republic of Albania: The Results of the 2010 National Labour Survey", ILO-IPEC Report, 2013.

56. It is worth emphasizing that this constitutes a lower-bound estimate of child labour, as it excludes so-called "worst forms of child labour other than hazardous". These extreme forms of child labour include child trafficking, child

commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and child involvement in illicit activities.²¹ In Albania as in most countries, information about children involved in worst forms other than hazardous is very scarce. This is due both to the methodological difficulties inherent in investigating them and to their cultural sensitivity. The Albania National Child Labour Survey (2010) and similar household survey are not designed to generate information about children involved in worst forms of child labour other than hazardous. Further, targeted research utilising specialised survey instruments is needed in order to generate more complete information on this especially vulnerable group of child labourers.

57. The group of 5-13 year-olds in child labour include a significant number of children in hazardous forms of child labour. In all, over 6,000 children in this age group are exposed to hazardous conditions in the workplace and some 2,600 children are verbally or physically abused at work. Poor environmental conditions (i.e., exposure to dust and fumes), and extreme temperatures are the most common workplace hazards cited by children. For these children, the risks and damage associated with child labour go far beyond compromised education. They face direct threats to their health, safety and morals, and therefore constitute an especially important policy priority.

²¹ In more specific terms, worst forms other than hazardous refer to Art. 3(a)-(c) of ILO Convention No. 182: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; and (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties.

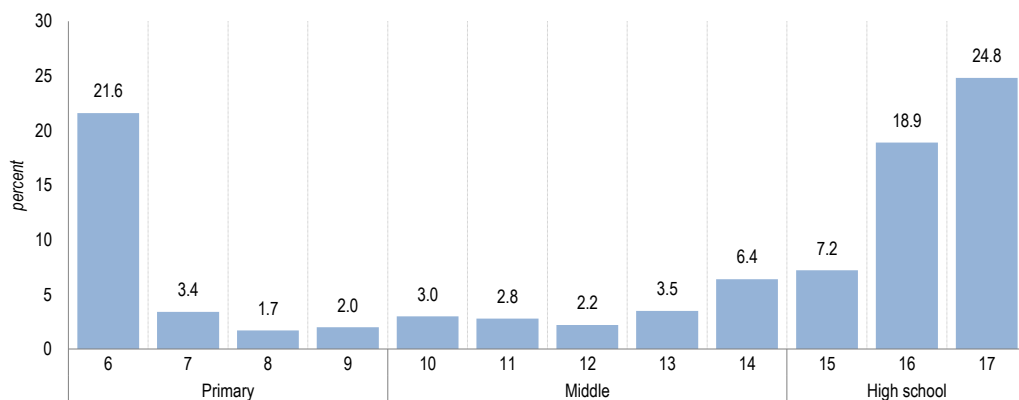
3.7 Out-of-school children and remedial education needs

Summary

- There remain a non-negligible number of out-of-school children in Albania, in part due to the exigencies of work.
- Most out-of-school children suffer what UNESCO terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, underscoring the need for second chance learning opportunities.

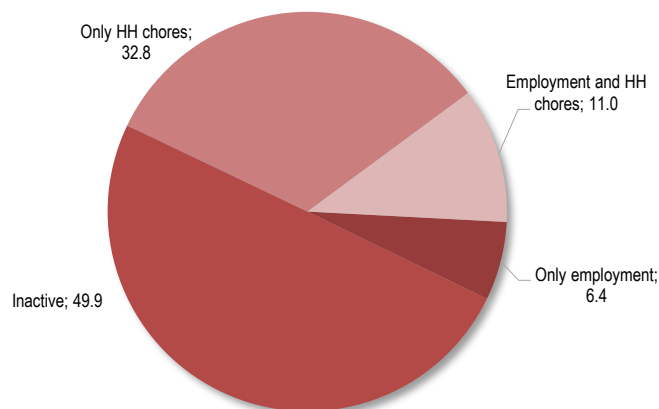
58. **There remains a non-negligible number of out-of-school children in Albania.** Some 28,000 children aged 6-15 years, over five percent of this age group, are out-of-school according to Albania CLS 2010.²² Some of these children are simply late entrants, i.e., children who will eventually enter school but have not yet done so. Taking the narrower group of 8-15 year-olds, who are largely beyond the age of late entry, some 16,600 (almost four percent) are out of school.

Figure 22. Out-of-school children, by age



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure 23. Activity status of out-of-school children, 8-15 years age group



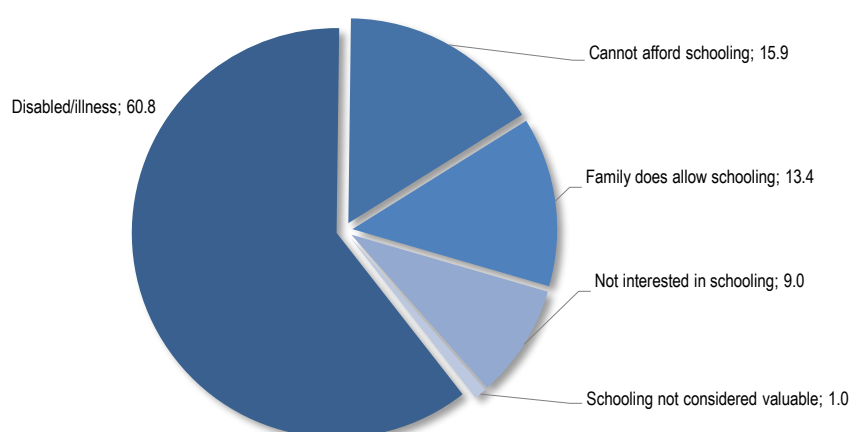
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

²² Compulsory schooling in Albania extends to the entire basic (primary and middle) cycle, i.e., from age six to 15 years.

59. Over half of out of school children work in some form of productive activity. Six percent of out of school children are in employment exclusively, 33 percent in household chores exclusively and 11 percent in both. These results underscore the close link between getting children out of work and getting them into school (Figure 23).

60. But the demands of work are not the only reasons for children’s absence from school. Of the around 4,500 Albanian children aged 8-15 years never entering school,²³ more than 60 percent cite disability or illness as the primary reason (Figure 24). An additional 23 percent indicate not being in school because they saw it as unimportant or uninteresting, or were not allowed by their family. School-related supply factors, and specifically school costs, are cited by 16 percent of respondents.

Figure 24. Reasons for never attending school, children aged 8-15 years



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table 12. Out of school children aged 10-17 with less than 2 and 4 years of education

Age	Extreme education poverty (OOSC with <2 years of education)		Education poverty (OOSC <4 years of education)		Total OOSC
	No.	% of total OOSC	No.	% of total OOSC	
10	918	53.9	1,521	89.4	1,702
11	388	26.7	388	26.7	1,454
12	346	29.1	346	29.1	1,191
13	107	6.1	107	6.1	1,755
14	1,156	30.4	1,315	34.6	3,806
15	1,038	22.1	1,234	26.3	4,692
16	688	6.2	688	6.2	11,179
17	370	2.7	370	2.7	13,878
Total 10-17	5,011	12.6	5,970	15.1	39,657

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

61. Reaching out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important to ensuring that they do not graduate into adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life. Table 12 looks in more detail at the second chance learning needs of out of school children. It suggests that second chance learning needs are very significant: some 6,000, or

²³ The question on reasons for not being in school in the CLS 2010 survey was only addressed to the group of children who had never entered school.

15 percent, of out-of-school children in the 10-17 years age group²⁴ suffer what UNESCO terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Of this group, 5,000, or 13 percent, suffer and “extreme education poverty”, i.e., possess less than two years of schooling. It is likely that these education poverty indicators actually underestimate second chance learning needs as basic literacy skills alone are a less and less adequate “skills floor” for successful entry into the labour market.

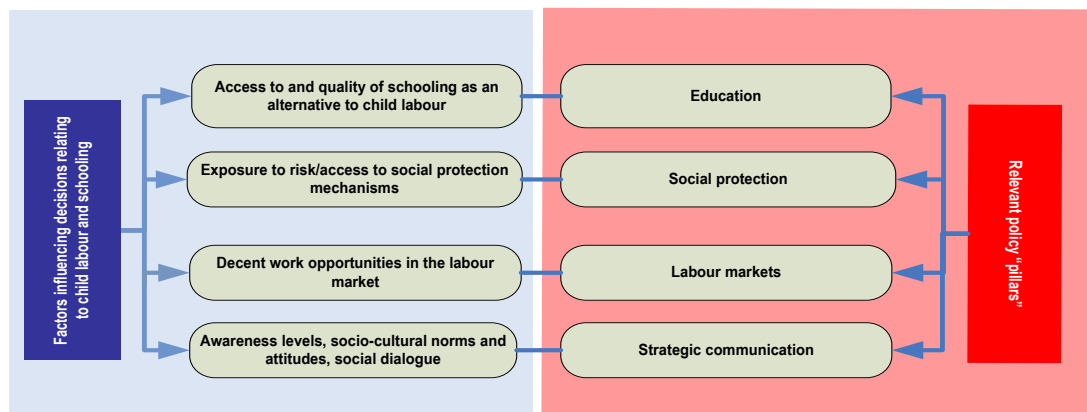
²⁴ Younger children under the age of 10 years have by definition have not accumulated a sufficient number of schooling years for the UNESCO indicator of education poverty are therefore excluded from consideration here. Older, 16-17 year-old, children are included because many from this group have also had their education compromised by premature involvement in work and therefore are also relevant to the discussion of second chance learning needs.

CHAPTER 4.

TOWARDS ELIMINATING CHILD LABOUR: A DISCUSSION OF POLICY OPTIONS

62. This section presents policy priorities for accelerating progress in the fight against child labour in Albania, drawing on empirical evidence concerning its causes presented in Chapter 3 of this report. As shown in previous sections, child labour is a complex phenomenon that cuts across policy boundaries. In order to achieve continued progress against it, a policy response is required that is cross-sectoral, coordinated and comprehensive in nature.

Figure 25. Key determinants of child labour and schooling and policy pillars to address them



Source: UCW Project, Joining forces against child labour : Inter-agency report for The Hague Global Child Labour Conference of 2010. Unpublished draft, Rome, March 2010

63. Some of the key factors determining household decisions regarding child labour are depicted in the left side of Figure 25. More accessible and better quality schools are important because they affect the returns to schooling and child labour, making the former more attractive as an alternative to the latter. Households without adequate social protection may resort to child labour as means of coping with shocks and social vulnerability. In the absence of decent work opportunities upon graduation from school, there is little incentive for households to invest in their children's education. Finally, if households are insufficiently aware of the benefits of schooling (or of the costs of child labour) they are also less likely to choose the classroom over the workplace for their children.

64. The right side of Figure 25 lists primary policy "pillars" addressing these economic and socio-cultural determinants of child labour – education, social protection, labour markets and strategic communication and advocacy. These pillars are discussed in the sections below. Above and beyond these general policy priorities, there is a need for immediate, direct actions to ensure the removal, recovery and reintegration of children in worst forms of child labour. Such action is relevant in all cases of trafficked children, children in other forced labour situations, children subjected to commercial sexual exploitation, and children facing other forms of hazard in the workplace.

Education access and quality

65. Combating child labour requires investing in education as its logical alternative. The empirical results presented in this report indicate that Albanian working children are less likely to be attending school, and, if enrolled, are more likely to drop-out prematurely. These results underscore the need to address the access and quality issues influencing parents' decisions to enrol and keep their children in school. School attendance needs to be made an attractive prospect for children and parents/guardians both by addressing the costs of school attendance and by ensuring that schooling is inclusive and relevant. Indeed, there is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school age children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so.

66. Extending access to early childhood development (ECD) and adult education are also relevant to efforts against child labour. Evidence from a range of countries suggests that ECD programmes can promote learning readiness, increase school enrolment and school survival, and help keep children away from work in their early years. The empirical evidence presented in this report also indicates that parents' education has a significantly positive effect on children's time use, pointing also to the importance of investing in adult education as part of the strategy against child labour. Developing and expanding efforts in promoting good parenting, functional literacy and numeracy, work-related skills training and basic education equivalency programmes are all important in this context.

Expanding social protection

67. Expanding social protection is critical to preventing households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against negative shocks and social vulnerability. There is no single recipe for implementing social protection programmes to address child labour. Unconditional cash transfers, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs-based social assistance and social pensions, are relevant in easing household budget constraints and supplementing the incomes of the poor. Conditional cash transfers offer a means of alleviating current income poverty *and* of addressing the under-investment in children's education that can underlie poverty. Public works schemes can serve both the primary goal of providing a source of employment to household breadwinners and the secondary goal of helping rehabilitate public infrastructure and expand basic services, both being potentially relevant in terms of reducing reliance on child labour. Micro-loan schemes can help ease household budget constraints and mitigate social risk. While there are already a number of such schemes in place in Albania, many are stand-alone and poorly linked to other development initiatives.

Labour markets

68. Even when equipped with a good skills base, Albanian young people can experience difficulties in finding gainful employment. Indeed, government figures indicate that more than one-quarter of all Albanian young persons in the labour force are unable to find work, more than twice the national

unemployment rate.²⁵ These employment difficulties can feed back on household decision concerning the investment in the education of their children and the age of their entry in the labour market. A number of policy options are available to help improve employment outcomes for youth within the constraints of the macro-economic environment. Extending the reach and effectiveness of technical and vocational education training programmes, including through apprenticeships and industry partnerships, is important to ensuring that youth are equipped with the skills needed by Albanian employers. Employment services, career guidance and job counselling can all be helpful in addressing transition problems rooted in a lack of job search skills or a lack of labour market information. Establishing a legal framework to protect the large number of Albanian young persons working in the informal sector is also important. Offering micro-credit in conjunction with a broader range of enterprise support services is a means of helping young people start and develop small businesses.

Strategic communication and social mobilisation

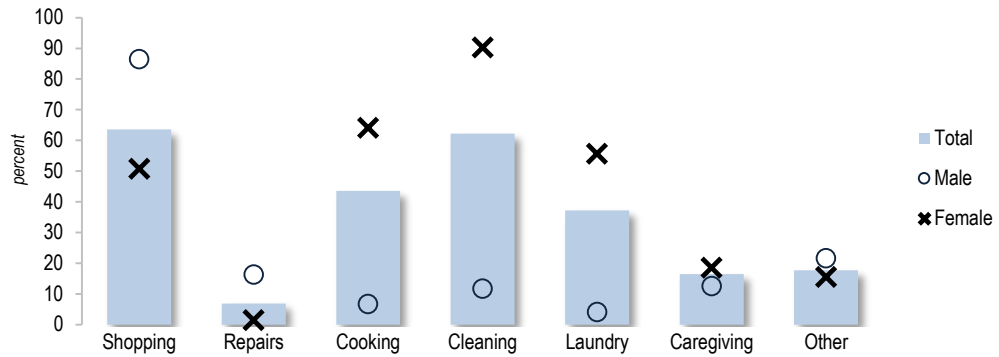
69. Policy responses to child labour are unlikely to be effective in the absence of a broad-based consensus for change. Building this consensus requires, firstly, strategic communication efforts aimed at providing households with better information concerning the costs of child labour and benefits of schooling. Such communication efforts need to be based on knowledge of the economic considerations as well as the social norms that underlie child labour and schooling decisions. Both national- and local-level strategic communication efforts are relevant in reaching households with required information. Use of a wide variety of conventional (e.g., radio, television and print media) and non-conventional communication channels (e.g. religious leaders, schoolteachers, health care workers) is important in achieving maximum outreach. Localised studies looking at the knowledge, awareness and behaviour on child labour are important to providing a baseline against which progress in bringing about attitudinal change can be assessed.

70. Social mobilisation is also critical to engaging a broad range of social actors in efforts against child labour. Care providers in direct contact with children, including teachers and health workers, are in an especially good position to identify and refer child labourers, and therefore constitute particularly important allies in the fight against child labour. Also important are employers' and workers' organizations, which together can work to ensure that children are not present in the workplace. Labour inspectorates also have a key role to play in this context. The creation and strengthening of institutional structures such as community-based child protection networks provide useful vehicles for bringing together a wide variety of stakeholders to combat child labour.

²⁵ Albania Institute of Statistics (INSTAT), 2013, as cited in <http://europeandcis.undp.org/blog/2013/03/07/albania-youth-employment-as-a-priority-for-the-post2015-development-agenda/>.

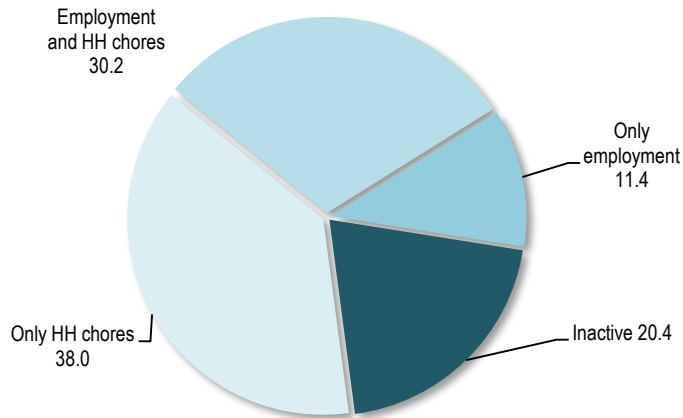
STATISTICAL APPENDIX

Figure A1 Types of household chores performed by children, 16-17 years age group engaged in household chores, by sex



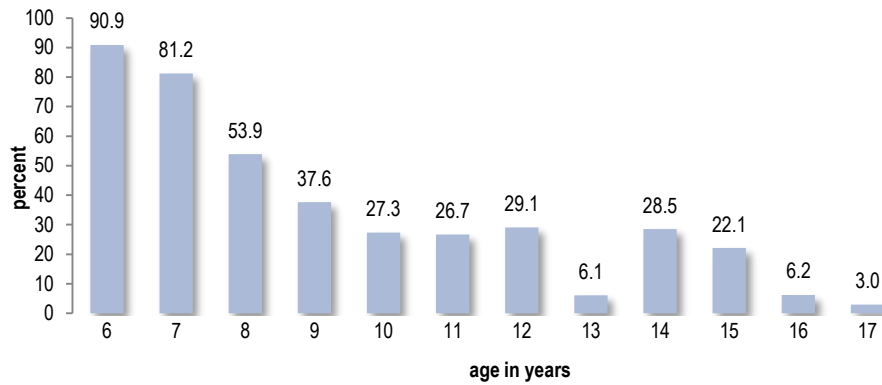
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010

Figure A2 Activity status of out-of-school children, 16-17 years age group



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure A3 Rate of illiteracy^(a) among out-of-school children, by age



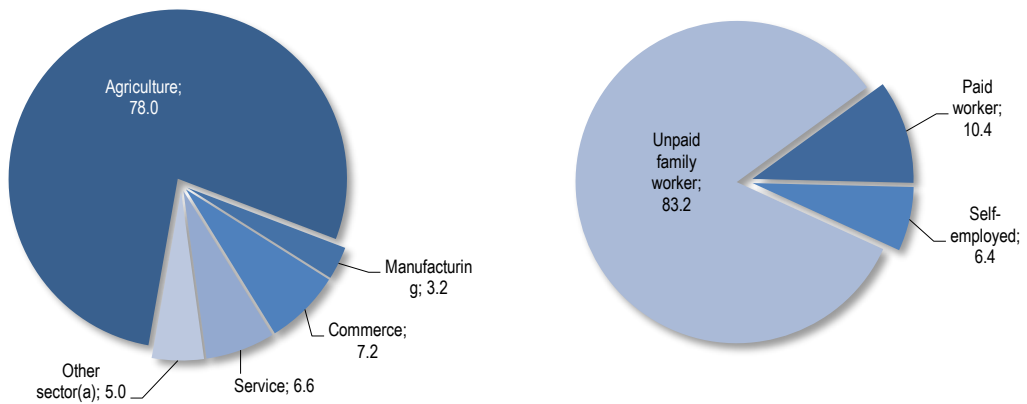
Notes: (a) Literacy is defined as the ability to read and write a short simple statement with understanding in any language.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure A4 Sector and status of children in employment, 16-17 years age group

(a) Sector of employment

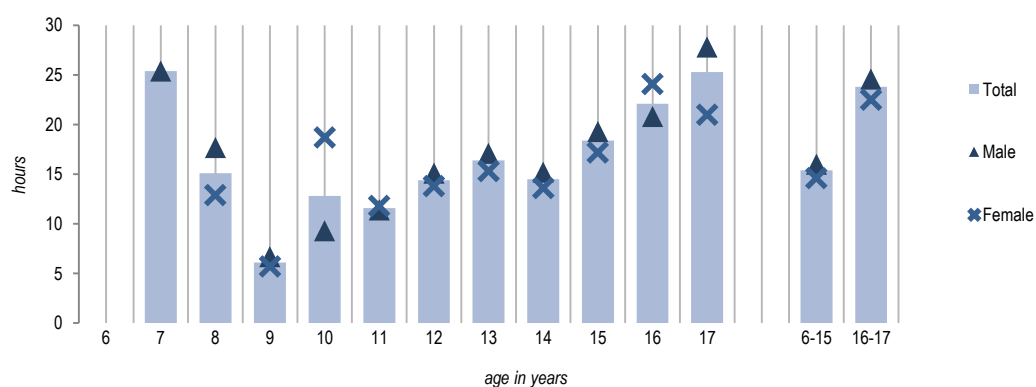
(b) Status in employment



Note: (a) The category "Other sector" includes construction, mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply, extraterritorial organizations and bodies and other not classified activities.

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure A5 Average weekly working hours, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

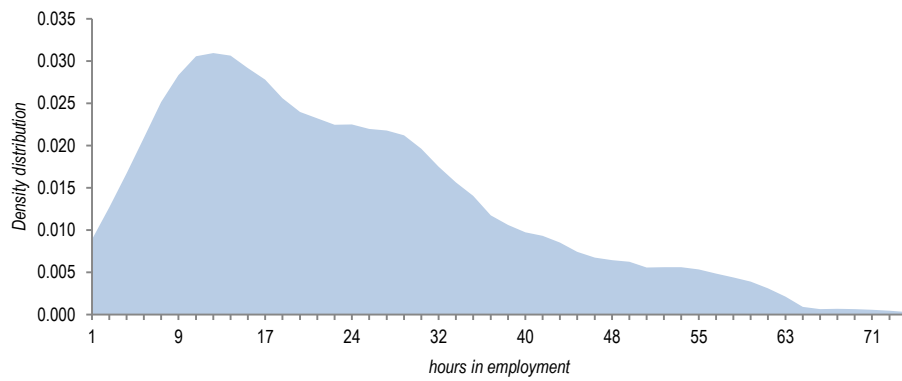
Table A1. Average weekly working hours in the main job, by sex, employment sector and status in employment, children aged 16-17 years

		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
Sector of employment	Agriculture	22.1	19.9	21.2
	Manufacturing	44.1	33.1	40.6
	Commerce	18.7	27.7	21.7
	Service	45.9	29.5	39.7
	Other sector ^(a)	25.2	56.0	28.3
Status in employment	Paid worker	43.0	32.3	40.0
	Self-employed	32.4	37.9	34.6
	Unpaid family work	21.1	19.7	20.6
Total hours in the main job		24.4	21.9	23.5

Note: (a) The category "Other sector" includes construction, mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply, extraterritorial organizations and bodies and other not classified activities.

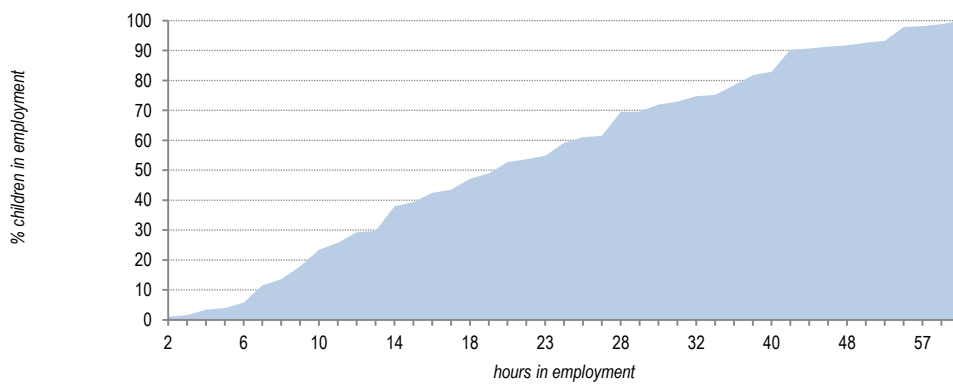
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure A6 Distribution of children in employment by working hours, children aged 16-17 years



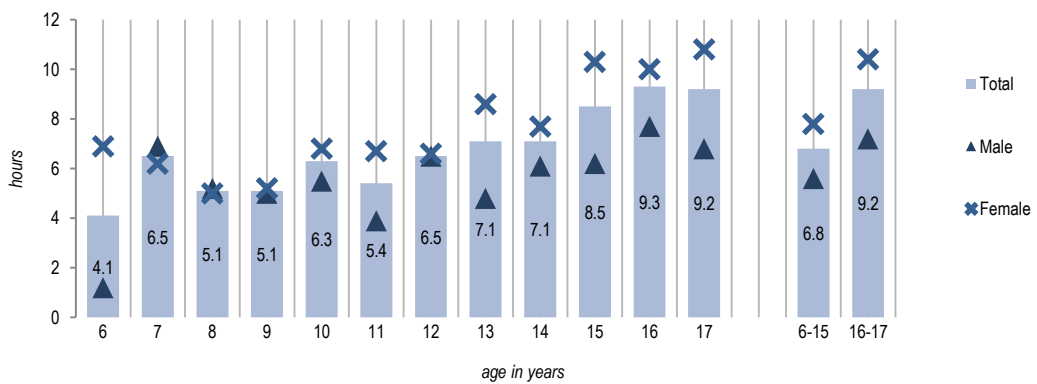
Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Figure A7 Cumulative distribution of children in employment by working hours, children aged 16-17 years



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Average weekly hours in household chores, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A2. Children's involvement in employment with hazardous conditions, by sex, 6-15 year-olds (as percentage of children in employment)

	No.	%
Male	6,263	35.3
Female	5,192	42.4
Total	11,456	38.2

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A3. Children's involvement in employment with hazardous conditions, by sex, 16-17 year-olds (as percentage of children in employment)

	No.	%
Male	4,812	37.3
Female	2,261	29.4
Total	7,074	34.3

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A4. Children aged 6-15 belonging to household experiencing countrywide/communitywide shocks, by type of the most important shock in the last 12 months

	No	% (tot. pop. aged 6-15 years)
Natural disaster	13,136	2.4
Epidemics	1,666	0.3
Business closing due to economic recession	529	0.1
Falling agricultural prices	14,025	2.6
Price inflation	73,082	13.5
Public protests	1,406	0.3
Other	3,054	0.6
No shocks indicated above	434,089	80.2
Total	540,988	100

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A5. Children aged 6-15 belonging to household experiencing household specific problems in the last 12 months

	No	% (tot. pop. aged 6-15 years)
Loss of employment of any member	42,899	7.9
Bankruptcy of a family business	6,579	1.2
Illness or serious accident of a working member of the household	15,356	2.8
Death of a working member of the household	5,320	1.0
Abandonment by the household head	1,801	0.3
Fire in the house/business/property	1,835	0.3
Criminal act by household member	682	0.1
Land dispute	2,060	0.4
Loss of cash support or in-kind assistance	1,222	0.2
Fall in prices of products of the household business.	21,957	4.1
Loss of harvest	7,852	1.5
Loss of livestock.	3,471	0.6
Other	19,497	3.6
At least one of the above shocks	106,433	19.7

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A6. Summary descriptive statistics of the variables included in the econometric analysis, 6-15 year-olds

		Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Dependent variables	In employment	4662	0.0781	0.2683	0	1
	At school	4662	0.9562	0.2046	0	1
	Employment exclusively	4662	0.0066	0.0813	0	1
	Schooling exclusively	4662	0.8848	0.3193	0	1
	School and employment	4662	0.0714	0.2576	0	1
	Neither activity	4662	0.0371	0.1890	0	1
Child characteristics	Age	4662	1.1194	0.2755	6	15
	Age ²	4662	1.3289	0.5984	36	225
	Male	4662	0.5204	0.4996	0	1
Sex and education of household head	Education of household head: Primary or less	4657	0.1346	0.3414	0	1
	Education of household head: Middle	4657	0.4419	0.4967	0	1
	Education of household head: High school	4657	0.3431	0.4748	0	1
	Education of household head: Post-school	4657	0.0803	0.2718	0	1
Household characteristics	No of children aged 0-4	4662	0.1894	0.4394	0	3
	Number of adults aged 18-64	4662	2.3762	0.8589	0	10
	Number of aged members (65+)	4662	0.3466	0.6228	0	3
	Household size	4662	5.1510	1.3412	2	14
	Access to tap water	4662	0.8078	0.3941	0	1
	Logarithm of household expenditure p.c.	4662	11.0221	0.5362	8.85	13.41
	Household own livestock	4662	0.4650	0.4988	0	1
	Household own land	4662	0.5738	0.4946	0	1
Individual shocks	Loss of harvest or/and livestock	4662	0.0251	0.1564	0	1
	Bankruptcy of family business or incidents with hh members ⁽¹⁾	4662	0.1096	0.3124	0	1
	Fall in prices of products of the household business	4662	0.0431	0.2031	0	1
Collective shocks⁽²⁾	YES	4662	0.2128	0.4093	0	1
Residence	Tirana	4662	0.2192	0.4138	0	1

Notes:

⁽¹⁾ Incidents with household members such as: Loss of employment/illness/death of a working household member; Abandonment by the household head.

⁽²⁾ The countrywide or communitywide shocks such as: Natural disaster; Epidemics; Business closing due to economic recession; Falling agricultural prices; Price inflation; Public protests and other, in the last 12 months

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

Table A7. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after probit estimations, 6-15 year-olds

Explanatory variables		In employment		In school	
		dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Child characteristics	Age	0.0329***	3.64	0.0682***	10.11
	Age ²	-0.0008*	-2.07	-0.0031***	-9.97
	Male	0.0183***	4.12	0.0001	0.02
Education of household head	Education of household head: Middle	0.0022	0.32	0.0192**	2.83
	Education of household head: High school	-0.008	-1.17	0.0357***	5.74
	Education of household head: Post-school	-0.0242***	-3.75	0.0247***	5.01
Household characteristics	No of children aged 0-4	0.0124*	2.31	-0.0019	-0.35
	Number of adults aged 18-64	-0.0048	-1.53	0.0046	1.34
	Number of aged members (65+)	0.0017	0.38	0.0132*	2.55
	Household size	-0.0012	-0.49	-0.0016	-0.62
	Access to tap water	0.0084*	1.99	0.0141*	2.43
	Logarithm of household expenditure p.c.	-0.0121*	-2.43	0.0156**	3.01
	Household own livestock	0.0405***	5.08	0.0068	0.97
	Household own land	0.0288***	4.17	0.0137	1.82
Household level problems	Loss of harvest or livestock	0.0694**	2.84	0.0053	0.36
	Bankruptcy of family business or incidents with hh members ⁽¹⁾	-0.0035	-0.52	0.0149**	2.6
	Fall in prices of products of the household business	0.0517**	2.94	0.015	1.59
Collective shocks ⁽²⁾	YES	0.0015	0.28	0.0101	1.88
Residence	Tirana	-0.0119*	-2.15	-0.0141*	-1.99

Notes:

⁽¹⁾ Incidents with household members such as: Loss of employment/illness/death of a working household member; Abandonment by the household head.

⁽²⁾ The countrywide or communitywide shocks such as: Natural disaster; Epidemics; Business closing due to economic recession; Falling agricultural prices; Price inflation; Public protests and other, in the last 12 months

Reference categories: Education of household head: Primary or less education; Household level problems: household has not experienced given problem in the last 12 months;

*** Statistically significant at 1% level; ** at 5% level; * at 10% level

Source: UCW calculations based on Albania National Child Labour Survey, 2010.

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