

PRO-POOR & PRO-WOMEN POLICIES & DEVELOPMENT IN ALBANIA

Approaches to
Operationalising
the MDGs in Albania

2005

NATIONAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT ALBANIA

2005

NATIONAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT ALBANIA

**PRO-POOR
AND PRO-WOMEN
POLICIES AND
DEVELOPMENT
IN ALBANIA**

Approaches to Operationalising the MDGs in Albania



SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC
DEVELOPMENT AGENCY
TIRANA – ALBANIA



**UN
DP**

Albania

UNITED NATIONS
DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMME

National Human Development Report Albania 2005

Pro-Poor and Pro-Women Policies: Operationalizing MDGs in Albania

Prepared for the United Nations Development Programme in Albania
By the Sustainable Economic Development Agency

Team Leader

Genc Myftiu
Chairman – Sustainable Economic Development Agency

Poverty Principal Author

Adrian Civici – Director,
Department of National Strategy of Socio Economic Development

Gender Principal Author

Eglantina Gjermeni
Director - Gender Alliance for Development Centre

Poverty working group

Gelardina Ducka, Ina Kraja, Kloalda Kamberi, Shkelzen Marku, Arta Hoxha,
Shyqyri Llaci, Fran Brahimi

Gender working group

Marsela Dauti, Elvana Lula, Admir Meko

Human development indexes working group

Arjan Rukaj, Ariana Misha

With the institutional contribution of:

Albanian Association of Municipalities
Centre for Rural Studies,
Co-Plan
Gender Alliance for Development Centre
INSTAT
Partners Albania – Centre for Change and Conflict Management
United Nations Volunteers

Peer review

Ylli Bufi, Milva Ekonomi, Eda Haxhiymeri, Nora Malaj, Capajev Gjokutaj, Remzi Lani, Edmond Leka, Sotiraq Guga, Engjell Shkreli, Besnik Aliaj, Fatos Hodaj, Tim Scott, Hermine de Sotto, Sabine Beddies, Elira Sakiqi, Andrey Ivanov, Dono Abdurazakova, Dritan Tola, Gjergji Themeli, Ylli Dedja, Genc Demi, Vincenzo Bonvicini, John Channon, Keida Lulo.

MARCH 2005

Special thanks to:

HE. Mr. Alfred Moisiu – President of Albania
HE. Ms. Jozefina Topalli – Deputy Speaker of Albanian Parliament
HE. Mr. Arben Malaj – Minister of Finance
HE. Ms. Ermelinda Meksi – Minister of Integration
Ms. Anna Stjärnerklint – UNDP Resident Representative
and UN Resident Coordinator in Albania
Ms. Elzira Sagynbaeva – UNDP Deputy Resident Representative

The authors acknowledge the valuable contribution of all UNDP Albania programme and project staff for their reviews, insights and suggestions during the preparation of this report

Essay contributions

Albana Mustafaraj, Denisa Xhoga, Edi Lesi, Jerina Zaloshnja,
Luljeta Progni, Manjola Zeka

Editor of essays

Altin Raxhimi

Translators

Stavri Pone
Ana Gjokutaj

English language editing

Elisabeth Warn

Albanian language editing

Xhevat Lloshi

Photos

Roland Tasho

Technical advisor

Peter Gudgeon – Inter-regional advisor, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

Management, coordination and technical support

Eno Ngjela – Team Leader / Policy, UNDP Albania

graphic design

Studio grafike Elsi Kongo

Shtypi

Pegi

The views expressed herein are those of the authors and do not reflect the views of the United Nations Development Programme.

Information contained in this report is not subject to copyright. However, clear acknowledgment and reference and to the Albanian Human Development Report 2005 authorship is required, when using this information.

This report is available at
www.undp.org.al
www.seda.org.al

Table Of Contents

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	7
LIST OF BOXES, TABLES, FIGURES	8
FOREWORD	11
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	12
RECOMMENDATIONS	17
INTRODUCTION	19
CHAPTER 1: PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN POLICIES AND STRATEGIES – MAIN ISSUES AND APPROACHES	25
1.1 Conceptual Underpinnings of Pro- Poor and Pro- Women Policies and Strategies	26
1.1.1 The Human Development Approach – Development for All	26
1.1.2 Poverty – What Does It Mean?	26
1.1.3 Women, Gender and Development	27
1.1.4 Pro-poor and Pro-women Policies	28
1.1.5 The Importance of Pro-poor and Pro Women Development for Albania	30
CHAPTER 2: POVERTY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF MAIN REFORMS IN ALBANIA: 1990 – 2004	33
Introduction	34
2.1 Macro-economic Performance	35
2.2 Sectoral Reforms	36
2.3 Social Impact Analysis	38
2.4 The National Strategy for Social and Economic Development (NSSD)	41
2.5 The MDGs at the Regional Level – The Case for Regional Development	43
CHAPTER 3: A PROFILE OF POVERTY IN ALBANIA	45
Introduction	46
3.1 Poverty Indicators	46
3.2 Unmet Basic Needs; Poverty	52
3.3 Selected Poverty Profiles in Albania	52
3.4 Social Categories at Risk	54
3.5 Other Dimensions of Poverty	56
3.6 Poverty and Access assets – private and public	58
CHAPTER 4: GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT IN ALBANIA	61
Introduction	62
4.1 The Legal and Institutional Framework of Women’s Rights	62
4.2 Gender and Health	64
4.3 The Economic Status of Albanian Women	66
4.4 Gender and Poverty	69
4.5 Gender and Education	71
4.6 Albanian Women and Decision Making	73
4.7 Women and Migration	76
4.8 Domestic Violence and Violence against Women	77
4.9 Women and Crime	81
4.10 Trafficking And Prostitution of Albanian Women and Girls	81
4.11 The Women’s Movement in Albania	83
CHAPTER 5: POVERTY AND GENDER THROUGH THE LENSES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS	87
Introduction	88
5.1 The Human Development Index	88

5.2 Gender Empowerment Measure	91
5.3 The Human Poverty Indexes (Hpi-1/2)	91
CHAPTER 6: PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN DEVELOPMENT	97
Introduction	98
6.1 Pro Poor Policies and Strategies	98
6.2 The Importance of Economic Growth for Poverty Reduction	99
6.3 Pro-poor Policies and Strategies Linked To the NSSD	100
6.4 Poverty Social Impact Analysis as a Development Tool	104
6.5 Health Care from A Gender Perspective	105
6.6 Gender and Education	107
6.7 Economic, Political and Social Dimensions Of Pro-women Policies	107
CHAPTER 7: REGIONALIZING AND OPERATIONALISING THE POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES ON PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN DEVELOPMENT	111
Introduction	112
7.1 Towards Effective Regional Based Strategies and Programmes for Pro-poor and Pro-women Development	112
7.1.1 Pro-Poor Programmes and Initiatives	112
7.1.2 Policies and Strategies for Addressing Gender Issues and Women's Development at the Regional Level	115
7.2 Proposed Participatory Monitoring Tools at the Local Level	117
CHAPTER 8: THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY AND VOLUNTEERISM IN PROMOTING THE PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN AGENDA	119
Introduction	120
8.1 Increasing Civil Society Involvement in Issues of Public Concern	120
8.2 Participation of Civil Society in Poverty Reduction	121
8.3 Civil Society and the Millennium Development Goals	122
8.4 Volunteerism and Pro-poor and Pro-women Policies	123
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	130
ANNEXES	133
BIBLIOGRAPHY	155

“we will spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty.....”

UN Millennium Declaration

list of Abbreviations

CBO	– Community Based Organization
CDD	– Community Driven Development
CSO	– Civil Society Organization
EU	– European Union
GDI	– Gender Development Index
GDP	– Gross Domestic Product
GEM	– Gender Empowerment Index
GIS	– Geographic Information System
HDI	– Human Development Index
HPI	– Human Poverty Index
ICT	– Information and Communication Technology
ILO	– International Labour Organization
INSTAT	– Institute of Statistics
IOM	– International Organization for Migration
LGU	– Local Government Unit
LSMS	– Living Standards Measurement Survey
MDGs	– Millennium Development Goals
MDGRR	– Millennium Development Goals Regional Report
NHDR	– National Human Development Report
NGO	– Non-Governmental Organization
NPO	– Non-for Profit Organization
NSSD	– National Strategy for Social and Economic Development
OECD	– Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PRSP	– Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSIA	– Poverty and Social Impact Assessment
RDS	– Regional Development Strategy
SAA	– Stability and Association Agreement
SAP	– Stability and Association Process
SME	– Small and Medium Enterprises
UN	– United Nations
UNDAF	– United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	– United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	– United Nations Children’s Fund
VIO	– Volunteer Involving Organisations
WB	– World Bank
WHO	– World Health Organisation

List of boxes

- BOX.1: Definitions of Poverty
- BOX 2: A chronology of the definitions of poverty
- BOX 3: Historical approaches to women's role and gender equality in the development process.
- BOX 4: Migration and remittances
- Box 5: Fiscal decentralization
- Box 6: Some other MDG targets for Albania
- BOX 7: Challenges –as identified by the NSSED
- Box 8: Inequality In Albania: Lorenz Curve And Gini Coefficient
- BOX 9: The most vulnerable groups in Albania
- BOX 10: Health and the family in KUKES
- BOX 11: The Poverty and gender nexus of energy and climate change
- BOX 12: Creative women with creative hands
- Box 13: The Albanian Network Against Gender Violence and Women Trafficking
- Box 14: Gender equal opportunities through the use of Media
- Box 15: The law on domestic violence
- BOX 16: Human Development Index (HDI)
- BOX 17: The gender-related development index (GDI)
- BOX 18: Gender Empowerment Index (GEM)
- BOX 19: Human Poverty Index 1 (HP – 1)
- BOX 20: The Human Poverty Index 2 (HPI – 2)
- Box 21: Future prospects
- BOX 22: NSSED Macro Economic Targets
- BOX 23: Good Governance
- BOX 24: NSSED expected poverty related effects
- BOX 25: The need for data collection for poverty (and gender) analysis
- Box 26: The case of Stebleva
- Box 27: Raising Public Debate on Women's empowerment
- Box 28: Enhancing the status of women in rural areas
- Box 29: Women and Migration
- Box 30: Examples of public influence on political behaviour
- Box 31: Action priorities suggested by the civil society in the NSSED
- Box 32: "Volunteerism brings change" – at least for Radat women

List of tables

- Table 1: THE PRINCIPAL MDG POVERTY TARGETS for ALBANIA – absolute and extreme poverty
- Table 2: Level of poverty according to various definitions
- Table 3: Poverty and Inequality in Albania
- Table 4: Poverty, living conditions and access to basic services (in %)
- Table 5: Unmet Basic Needs
- Table 6: School enrolment rates – by category
- Table 7: Main budget shares by location
- Table 8: Categories of children at risk at the national level³⁴
- Table 9: Economic assistance
- Table 10: Self-assessment levels of health and poverty
- Table 11: Prenatal care
- Table 12: The extent of registered unemployment (in %) – men and women
- Table 13: Women' businesses in various sectors⁶⁷
- Table 14: The poverty index by the gender of the family head ⁷³
- Table 15: School dropout for various reasons, the dropouts analysed by gender:
- Table 16: The participation of women participation in University leading positions 2002–2003⁸⁴
- Table 17: Division by gender of Rectors, Deans and Heads of Department in Albanian Universities for the academic year 2003–2004:⁸⁵
- Table 18: The constitution of the Albanian Parliament from 1920⁸⁶
- Table 19: The gender constitution of the Albanian Parliament, June 2001
- Table 20: Women's participation in government, September 2003⁸⁷
- Table 21: Migrants vis-à-vis non-migrants by the official number of the family heads
- Table 22: Human Development Index – regional variations
- Table 23: Gender Development Index (GDI)

Table 24: GEM in the Balkans

Table 25: Human Poverty Index – 1

Table 26: Human Poverty Index – 2

Table 27: Growth rates, poverty elasticity and rate of poverty reduction

List of figures

Figure 1. Satisfaction with the current financial situation

Figure 2. GDP Growth

Figure 3. Real GDP Growth

Figure 4. Trends of GDP Growth per capita

Figure 5. The Unemployment rate

Figure 6. The Gini coefficient

Figure 7. The level of unemployment according to age groups and gender for the year 2003

Figure 8. Poverty and education (percentage of cohort in full time education)

Figure 9. Child Mortality (per 1000 births)



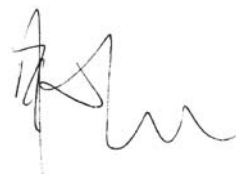
FOREWORD

The main purpose of the national human development report (NHDR) is to promote the development policy dialogue and debate within countries with the ultimate objective of advancing human development. NHDRs should serve as a vehicle for generating public and political debate and to help the government take measures to address gaps and problems.

The 2005 NHDR for Albania focuses on policy options that will fast track Albania towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goal (MDGs) – and to EU accession. It represents the culmination of an intensive three-year period promoting the MDGs and supporting the enabling environment such as the integration of the MDGs in the National Strategy of Social and Economic Development, linking the goals to regional and local development and addressing data issues.

The year 2005 also marks one third of the way to achieving the MDGs of 2015. It is a time to reflect not only on Albania's progress towards achieving its nationally determined MDGs but also the level of ambition of the goals themselves. Albania needs to ensure that it enters into the EU as a member that contributes to its overall development. Therefore, the government and people have the responsibility to be more ambitious and to identify a set of equally ambitious goals - "MDG plus". Setting these goals is not enough; achieving them will require hard work and determination on the part of the Albanian people and deserves the full support of the international community. It requires, in 2005, the launching of a "decade of bold ambition" an action that goes beyond party politics.

The report highlights the challenges of achieving the MDGs in Albania. Pro-poor and pro-women policies imply that the social and economic indicators for poor people and women should improve more rapidly than those for the rest of society. The report focuses on a possible forward agenda for all stakeholders and we hope that its recommendations represent a start on a process of accelerating the pro-poor and women's development in Albania.



Anna Stjärnerklint
Resident Representative
UNDP Albania

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The National Human Development Report (NHDR) 2005 attempts to deepen the analysis on human development building on an extensive experience in bringing the development issues through the lenses of MDGs in the forefront of public and policy debate. Its goal is to elaborate the status of poverty and gender issues in Albania in order to enrich the National Strategy for Social and Economic Development (NSSSED) with innovative pro-poor and pro-women's policies, programmes and projects at the national and local level to help Albania's efforts towards EU integration.

The main objectives of the NHDR 2005 for Albania are:

- (i) to contribute to improving the existing development policies outlined in the NSSSED 2003 progress report,
- (ii) to add new progressive elements in the form of advocacy for pro-poor and pro-women policy reforms, programmes, and actions,
- (iii) to promote successful existing development policies which reflect a pro-poor and pro-women's agenda.;
- (iv) to find, adapt or design successful approaches of pro-poor and pro-women development programmes or projects in Albania and support their dissemination; as well as
- (v) to ensure that the NHDR recommendations on policies, strategies and programmes are complementary with the existing policy guidelines of the government of Albania, as expressed in the NSSSED¹, additionally the recommendations should be consistent with the

MDGs and the Stabilisation and Association Process (SAP)

The report is divided into three main parts. Part A reviews the evidence on the extent to which there has been pro-poor and pro-women's development in Albania over the past 15 years. Part B sets out the policies and strategies necessary to have a more pro-poor and pro-women's focus in the future and Part C presents some recommendations and the skeleton of a forward agenda for major stakeholders.

What characterizes the National and Global Human Development Reports is that the analysis is undertaken around the general theme of human development. In the previous (2002) NHDR the issues surrounding decentralization were closely examined – and many of the issues arise again in the context of examining measures to address poverty, deprivation and women's development through “regionalizing the MDGs”. Thus the NHDR 2005 should also be considered as one of the national instruments for promoting the Objectives of the United Nations Millennium Project to which the Albanian Government is committed. The Millennium Project articulates the global framework for the implementation of the MDGs - the policy frame, the costs and financing and the capacity requirements for their achievement. This can be translated into action through the government's own development strategy – the NSSSED and its successor strategies.

It must be emphasised that the NHDR 2005 does not intend to provide a comprehensive record of the economic and social trends in Albania over recent years. It only describes events in sufficient detail to establish the

¹NSSSED progress report 2003 and Objectives; Long term Vision and Priority Action Plan for 2004-2007. The NSSSED is the basic document of the mid-term and long-term government policies. The first document of NSSSED was prepared in 2001, called the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy, GPRS.

justification for the adoption of a more pro-poor and pro-women's stance in future Albanian development strategies (principally in the NSSD and successor documents). Instead, the thematic elements are introduced in outline form and the basic guidelines on approaches to be adopted are set out. Thus there are no detailed macro and sectoral policy and programming prescriptions – as would accompany a mainstream development plan or strategic document.

Pro-poor and pro-women policies imply that the social and economic indicators for poor people and women should improve more rapidly than those for the rest of society. It is not sufficient that the indicators for the poor and women improve; they have to improve at a faster pace because absolute poverty always has a relative dimension. Therefore, before being called 'pro-poor' or 'pro-women' the policy framework needs a thorough examination.

The NECESSITY TO PROMOTE AND PURSUE PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT

The analysis in **PART A** provides a wealth of detail on the performance of the Albanian economy and its impact on society over the past decade and the extent to which it can be characterized as either or both pro-poor and pro-women. It is clear that the record is mixed on the pro-poor development side and much needs to be done to intensify efforts on poverty reduction and to reduce the wide economic and social gaps that have emerged in society – in terms of social structures and within disadvantaged regions. Likewise the record over the past decade or more (since the demise of the communist regime) on women's development has been patchy.

The focus of the NHDR 2005 is based on the evidence of economic trends over the

past 10-15 years – primarily since the fall of the communist regime – and the impact these and other developments – including the packages of economic reforms have had on the incidence and nature of poverty and on women in society.

Understanding the nexus between human development and poverty and women's development

As the report indicates, poverty is an inherently complex phenomenon. The typologies of poverty include: income or consumption poverty; human (under) development; social exclusion; lack of well being; (lack of) capability and functioning; vulnerability; livelihood unsustainability; lack of basic needs; relative deprivation. The Human Development Index (HDI) and Human Poverty Indices (HPI) described in this Report combine elements of both income and non-income poverty measurements. Additionally there has been a concerted effort to understand the gender dimension of human development, which can be translated into follow-up policies and actions.

Tackling poverty and deprivation with a gender bias

The underlying assumption in this NHDR is that there should be a strong case for a marked corrective gender bias in development efforts to rectify the inherent discrimination against women which is evident in the transition period. Many of the development forces released by the reforms in Albania have led to a disproportionate share of the burden of economic and social adjustment being placed on women. Furthermore, this burden has been placed on the poorest and most vulnerable women in society. This establishes the essential link between poverty and women's perspectives of the NHDR.

Poverty reduction and economic growth

While much debate surrounds the nature of the relationship between economic growth and poverty reduction, it is clear that without direct intervention to promote the economic status of the poorest groups and regions, they can be left out of the growth process. Thus it is clear that while economic growth is necessary, it is not a sufficient condition for rapid poverty reduction. In Albania, “progressive” economic growth and sustainable development is considered to be the main vehicle for poverty reduction in Albania. This concept underpins the NSSED. This also implies that the policy position of the authorities cannot be neutral as to the poverty reduction and social impact of its economic policies and indeed this is the position adopted in the NSSED which now requires some reinforcement.

It is difficult to estimate in Albania the elasticity of poverty reduction (the percentage change/reduction in poverty incidence due to a one percent rise/fall in GDP) versus the economic growth, due to the lack of necessary data. However, what is clear is that the rate of overall poverty reduction (defined by income per capita) is very sensitive to the rate of economic growth and the interventionist measures necessary to ensure that it is maximized. Interventions however should not itself compromise economic growth, which is needed to raise standards of living and provide the resources for poverty reduction. Concentrating alone on growth may ignore the impact on income distribution (and the Gini coefficient) and the possible implications for the poorest regions, which could continue to grow poorer. Thus measures must be taken to improve the non-income components of poverty reduction – as outlined in PART B of this Human Development Report.

Poverty elasticity can be improved through direct socially oriented policies that are made more reflective of the real situation in the country. For example, the poverty elasticity in the poorest regions could be increased with targeted interventions and appropriate economic and social stimuli. This could be done through local employment generation, micro-credit, improved social service provision and other programmes. These measures could rapidly reduce poverty levels, improve the human development indicators and generate more sustainable and balanced development throughout the country.

EVIDENCE OF ADVERSE TRENDS IN POVERTY AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT

Transition, poverty and gender inequalities

Despite an enviable record of almost sustained economic growth in the Albanian economy since 1995 (about 5% per annum), there have been some serious social and economic costs. These costs have included growing income inequalities, massive emigration from the poorest regions, and crumbling economic and social infrastructure. Despite the economic growth record, 25 - 30 per cent of the population of Albania is still living under the national poverty line, and a disproportionate number of these are women. In addition, a further 30 per cent are very close to the poverty line, and can be considered as potentially very vulnerable to an economic downturn.

While the results of recent economic reforms have been generally positive, the benefits, however, appear to be accruing mostly in urban areas, and particularly Tirana, the rural and more remote areas are still being left behind. It is clear that the outcome of

the reforms in the form of liberalisation, decentralisation and privatisation have not always been as expected. The logic is rather simple, economic growth is not reaching a significant share of the population and it is actually leading to considerable social inequalities.

Additionally, the situation and social position of women in Albania has NOT changed markedly over the past decade. There is an increasing gap between rich and poor, opportunities and benefits between men and women, and rural and urban sectors of society. Gender inequalities can be seen in leadership and decision-making, employment and income generation, domestic violence, trafficking of women, education and the health sector. Economic and career opportunities for women are still restricted. Societal attitudes are of critical importance in keeping women in a secondary place in society, and out of public life and public management.

The gender dimension of development in Albania is now acknowledged to be significant from a number of standpoints. Firstly, women make up one of the largest components of the poor groups in the country; secondly the economic and social status of women in society has not changed much over the past two decades despite intensive efforts by the government and civil society to make a difference.

The NHDR describes a wide range of gender specific consequences of recent development trends in Albania, not all of which are unfavourable as compared to men. These include:

- Domestic violence and violence against women;
- Gender discrimination in the

workplace;

- Women and crime;
- Migration and status of women as migrants;
- Trafficking in young women;
- Women representation in decision making level;
- Women and educational achievements;
- Economic opportunities for women;
- Women and employment;
- Lack of access of women to credit facilities.

Policies and strategies for a pro-poor and pro-women's development

In PART B the future task and challenges ahead are closely examined in terms of policies that will address pro-poor and pro-women's development most effectively. The requirement to meet the challenges in these areas is reinforced by the demands placed on Albania in terms of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – and especially MDG 1- on poverty reduction and MDG 3 – on women's development and empowerment. The core instrument in both areas will be the NSSD and its successor programmes – the need to gear up to meet the challenges ahead.

Successful pro-poor and pro-women policies require a sound macro-economic framework and a rational and transparent administration of resources. They also require the accurate monitoring of results so that unintended consequences can be taken into account and failures can be analysed and corrected. These policies which aim to reduce the absolute number of the poor need also to secure the confidence, and if possible, the active participation of the poor themselves. Likewise equality between women and men (gender equality) is recognized as critical for the achievement of sustainable development including the

improvement of quality of life for all, human rights and the proper functioning of a democratic society.

Pro-poor growth measures It is generally agreed that macroeconomic policies can influence whether growth is pro-poor, but that such policies cannot be an adequate substitute for an equitable distribution of productive assets. Provided that measures are taken to help secure poor people's access to productive assets, such as land, housing and equipment for micro-enterprises, employing macroeconomic policies to then help raise the returns to these assets is considered the most useful approach. According to UNDP: "Economic growth contributes most to poverty reduction when it expands the employment, productivity and wages of poor people and when public resources are spent to promote human development". Therefore, for growth to be poverty reducing it should direct resources disproportionately to:

- Sectors in which the poor work (e.g. agriculture);
- Areas in which they live (i.e. underdeveloped regions);
- Factors of production which they possess (such as unskilled labour);
- Outputs, which they consume (such as food).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Two major areas of intervention are identified in the NHDR, namely a reorienting of the national poverty reduction strategy – the NSSD to make it more pro-poor and pro-women, and secondly the strengthening regional development strategies – as a part of the proposal to operationalise the MDGs through regional development.

Macroeconomic and sectoral policies and strategies included in the NSSD need to be redesigned to be sensitive to their poverty impact and should facilitate employment and income generation for the poor at a faster rate than for average income earners – if poverty rates are to decline over time. Among the areas of focus recommended in the NHDR 2005 are:

- Strengthened micro and sectoral policies for poverty reduction;
- Strengthening the NSSD for pro-poor and pro-women's development
The NHDR 2005 concludes that the NSSD should be subject to the upgrading of several policy intervention areas to speed up its pro-poor and women's focus, and to respond to the human development of Albania which are now geared toward achieving the MDGs. This should provide special measures to identify and target vulnerable groups and to include the Roma, and Egyptians etc.
- Re-focusing government policy in Gender and development;
- Economic empowerment of women;
- Political representation of women in decision making: in order to achieve a higher level of participation for women in decision-making and political spheres;
- Domestic violence and violence against Women;

- Women and Crime,
- Trafficking and Prostitution of Albanian Women;

Regionalizing and operationalising the policies and programmes on pro-poor and pro-women development

The regional government's role in articulating and implementing the MDGs will be critical for the success of the pro-poor and women development agenda. In this respect the role of local government is defined in the Law on Local Government, the Strategy of Decentralization and Local Autonomy, the National Strategy on Social and Economic Development (NSSD) as well as other sectoral strategies.

Regional development strategies and MDG Reports

Within this general framework, the government, in conjunction with its donor partners, has commenced the preparation of a number of Regional Development Strategies (RDS) and MDG Regional Reports which constitute a major step towards the operationalisation of MDGs. The regional strategies should be considered as operational documents which documents, which need to be backed up with funding, monitoring and evaluation. They have been built largely on the basis of the MDG regional reports (MDGRRs) that have been prepared by UNDP over the past 2 years, and mark a positive step towards ensuring that regional plans move beyond the drawing board to incorporate "bankable" pro-poor and pro-women programmes.

A FUTURE AGENDA FOR STAKEHOLDERS

The final section of the NHDR focuses on a possible forward agenda for all stakeholders. As stated at the outset, it is envisaged

that the recommendations in this Human Development Report represent a start on a process of accelerating the pro-poor and women agenda in Albania. The principal partners in this endeavour will be the Government – operating through the central Ministries and Local Government, UNDP, the donor community, and private entrepreneurs and Civil Society – especially the CBOs in the regions at the local level.

The Millennium Compact is the prime vehicle for driving the MDG agenda over the period 2015, which marks the end of the first real programme period for all the MDGs. To support the country MDG programmes, the UN system has recently revamped the guidelines for the Millennium Project – and established the needed action for the achievement of the MDGs².

The Millennium Project recommends that every developing country structure its short-term poverty reduction strategy within the context of a 10-year MDG framework. At the core of a national strategy to achieve the MDGs, there should be a strategy for increasing investments in infrastructure, human capital, and the private sector. This approach requires good governance, a strategy to promote investments, and increased financing—largely donor financing—for public investments in the poorest countries. The international community should ensure that each developing country has the technical, financial, and organizational support needed to implement a national poverty reduction strategy, and most urgently an investment strategy, sufficiently bold to achieve the MDGs at the country level.

In the next 10 years, development partners need to ask three very different questions:

“How much aid is needed at the country level to achieve the MDGs; How should that aid be shared among donors?; and how should the aid be dispersed over time?” All development partners need to ask the question of how to finance the required increases in investment spending, that are at the heart of achieving the MDGs.

²See “Global Plan to Achieve the Millennium Development Goals”.

INTRODUCTION

This is the sixth National Human Development Report (NHDR) for Albania since 1995. The theme adopted is a challenging one which goes to the heart of the long term structural development problems facing Albania, namely the nature of poverty and women's development. The report includes the past performance and the future prospects in reducing poverty, and promoting a more women friendly development path.

Focus of the Report

As the title implies, the focus in the Report is not only on the issues, the policy and strategy domains relating to "pro-poor and gender sensitive" development but how the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) can be operationalised in Albania through the medium of practical initiatives, projects and programmes within a conducive policy and legal framework. The linkage to the MDGs is significant, in that the Government of Albania has a strong commitment through the MDGs to tackling the twin core issues of poverty (Goal 1) and gender bias in development (Goal 3) in the years up to 2015. This report must be seen as complementing and supporting national initiatives in achieving the objectives of pro-poor growth and pro-women development - a paramount development priority over the period to 2015.

The report is directed not only towards how the government can act more effectively as an agent of change (with a pro-poor and pro-women focus) but also on the roles of civil society at large, the private sector and the international community - as partners in development.

While the issue of poverty has for many years been at the centre of national devel-

opment policies and strategies, women's development has rather surprisingly NOT received the same level of attention. Consequently, this will be first time that the Albanian NHDR has dealt explicitly with the topic and explored the issues from a national context. This is despite the fact that women's development it is a topic that features prominently in the international development agenda.

The long transition process in Albania has generated many social and economic problems, a fragile democracy persists, state and local government institutions are still weak and lacking essential resources and the foundations for sustainable growth are still tenuous. There is a widening gap between those who govern and those who are governed. Albania offers today the picture of the second poorest country in Europe and not entirely by pure misfortune. While the Albanian political elite has shown little sign of a common strategic approach towards a people-centred form of development, the country has moved forward considerably in the past five years in interpreting the Millennium Development Goals from a regional and local perspective. This has been important in exposing the extent to which poverty and women's development are closely interrelated and need to be addressed.

The concept of sustainable human development has been widely promoted by UNDP in Albania over the last decade, and introduced in previous Albanian NHDRs but has yet to be fully incorporated into the national policy strategy and agenda. To date, the Albanian development approach can be described as dominated by the economic growth paradigm in which the social objectives and consequences of growth assume secondary importance. Until quite recently,

relatively little in the way of visionary and strategic attention was paid to the debilitating effects on the country of high levels of external and internal migration, the decline and stagnation of a significant number of outlying regions along with problems associated with over-concentration of national growth into a narrow development corridor between Tirana and Durrës, the sharp decline of industrial production and its effect on unemployment, rising inequality and vulnerability, struggling health and education services, severe problems of access to water, energy and services, mounting environmental challenges and the deplorable state of infrastructure. Finally the differential impact of all the above on the poorest groups and women in Albanian society has been largely neglected.

Preparation process

The report has been prepared independently by the Sustainable Economic Development Agency (SEDA) in close cooperation with the Department of the National Strategy for Social and Economic Development, and Gender Alliance for Development centre (formerly Tirana Women's Centre). Thus the report went through a wide participatory process which involved various governmental agencies, members of parliament, academic institutions, civil society organisations at the central and local level, as well as UNDP and its projects.

The outline of the report was compiled based on discussions during a stakeholder roundtable in Tirana. In another innovative effort, the report's contents and findings were discussed in a round table in the town of Korça during the UN Poverty week.

The draft report underwent several UNDP internal reviews accompanied by a broad external peer review including reviews from

Human Development Report Office, the Regional Support Centre as well as many other international and Albanian experts and institutions duly acknowledged.

Furthermore, the preparation process was also enriched by various newspaper publications written by the team members in various daily national newspapers that provided a good opportunity for the public to be acquainted with the theme of the report. The work for this report was directly linked to the publication of the Global Human Development Report which was widely presented in the national media and was also followed by a series of articles on the importance of the human development indicators and their measurement.

Last but not least, attention will be paid to the report follow up. Through an advocacy tour, the conclusions and recommendations of the report will be presented in various round tables at the local level and especially in university towns. In addition, television debates and newspaper supplements will also be organized in order to make this report a proper advocacy and policy-generating tool.

Structure of the report The Report is divided into three main parts. In PART A the conceptual underpinnings of pro-poor and pro-women development strategies are examined (Chapter 1); the poverty and social impact of the main reforms undertaken since 1990 are assessed (Chapter 2); the profile of poverty in Albania (Chapter 3) is reviewed; and the gender perspective on development is examined (Chapter 4). Finally this report considers how the above is reflected in the Human Development Indicators (HDIs) (Chapter 5).

In PART B, the NHDR reviews what ini-

tiatives can be taken to promote and operationalise the pro-poor and pro-women development policies and strategies (chapter 6); the proactive steps required to formulate programmes and instruments with a focus on the regional dimension (chapter 7) and finally how the roles of civil society and “volunteerism” act as catalysts in the pursuit of the pro-poor and women agenda (chapter 8).

PART C of the NHDR sets out some conclusions and recommendations on a forward agenda of the government, CSOs, the international community and the UN system, to pursue the pro-poor and women focus in development.



REPUBLIC OF ALBANIA
PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC

Contribution by HE. Mr. Alfred Moisiu – President of Albania

The series of Human Development Reports have already established their significance in Albania by dealing with many of the problems that the country has faced during the transition period. The current 2005 report specifically focuses on two major development problems of our country plaguing the nation – poverty and gender inequality.

With the assistance of our international partners we have prepared a national strategy for the fight against poverty. In addition, Albania's signatory status to the Millennium Declaration conveys a solid commitment to halve the proportion of those living in poverty by 2015, which has been a boon to the fight against poverty. However, despite some achievements and the stability of macroeconomic indicators, stark reality offers a different picture. There continues to remain inequalities in income distribution, in access to public services and adequate infrastructure, and ultimately, to the overall development of the country.

Conclusively, the report enriches the findings of recent studies by integrating a new perspective - one seen through the lens of gender equality. While we are all conscious about the importance of the role of women in the democratisation process and their participation in the market economy, the truth is that we are far from the European reality that we are aiming to accomplish.

The time has come for new initiatives to make poverty alleviation a tangible result, especially in the north of the country. The fight against poverty should become more concrete and go beyond mere strategies on paper. Furthermore, the empowerment of women cannot be achieved through declarations and discussions, but only through encouraging actions that pave the way for women's participation in political and economic domains at both the central and the local level.

From this perspective, the National Human Development Report 2005 for Albania constitutes a serious effort to raise the profile of poverty issues and a move towards undertaking concrete actions in order to attain the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

Sincerely,

Alfred MOISIU



POVERTY AND WOMEN
DEVELOPMENT
IN ALBANIA
A REVIEW OF TRENDS AND CURRENT STATUS

PART A



1.1 CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF
PRO- POOR AND PRO- WOMEN POLICIES AND
STRATEGIES

1.1.1 THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT APPROACH
– DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL

1.1.2 POVERTY – WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

1.1.3 WOMEN, GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

1.1.4 PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN POLICIES

1.1.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF PRO-POOR AND PRO WOMEN
DEVELOPMENT FOR ALBANIA

1.1 CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

1.1.1 THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT APPROACH – DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL

Since the earliest global human development report, the concept of human development has been interpreted as applying to all members of society – men and women alike. Human Development is about the creation of an appropriate environment in which people can develop their full potential and capabilities according to their needs and interests, and exercise their choices while ensuring the same for generations of the future. Human development includes the ability to read and write, lead a long and healthy life, have freedom of movement, and participate meaningfully in the civic life of the community. The four principles of human development are: Equity, Empowerment, Productivity and Sustainability. In terms of poverty, the human development approach looks beyond income to include broader concepts of poverty, of capabilities, empowerment which require poverty eradication policies that ensure not only growth, but also equality of opportunities for all, regardless of their gender, ethnicity or generation.

Indeed some of the HD concepts might well be interpreted as applying more to women than men given the profound discrimination experienced by women in almost all societies. The underlying assumption in this NHDR is that there should be a strong case for a marked corrective gender bias in development efforts in order to rectify the inherent discrimination against women that is evident in transition and post-transition economies. This is certainly the case in Albania, since some of the many develop-

ment forces have led to a disproportionate share of the burden of economic and social adjustment being placed on women, and furthermore on the poorest and most vulnerable women in society.

1.1.2 POVERTY – WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

Poverty measurements

Poverty is inherently a complex phenomenon. The typologies of poverty include: income or consumption poverty; human (under) development; social exclusion; ill being; (lack of) capability and functioning; vulnerability; livelihood un-sustainability; lack of basic needs; relative deprivation. The Human Development Index (HDI) described in this Report combines elements of both income and non-income poverty measurements. Some of the basic definitions and the more recent thinking in the evolution in the definitions of poverty are indicated in the BOXES below.

The causes of poverty

One route for investigating the causes of poverty is to examine the dimensions highlighted by poor people: These are

- Lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities— food, shelter, clothing, and acceptable levels of health and education.
- Sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state and society.
- Vulnerability to adverse shocks, linked to an inability to cope with them.

To understand the determinants of poverty in all its dimensions, it also helps to think in terms of people's assets, the returns of (or productivity of) these assets, and the volatility of returns. These assets are of several kinds:

- Human assets, such as the capacity for basic labour, skills, and good health;
- Natural assets, such as land;
- Physical assets, such as access to infrastructure;

Development can be seen ... as a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy.

(Amartya Sen,
Development as Freedom)

BOX.1 Definitions of Poverty

Income poverty defines people as “income poor” if per capita family income or expenditure falls below a certain level (the official poverty line – often defined as a US\$/day) takes into account not only the number of people (the “head count”) but also how far they are below the poverty line (i.e. the “poverty gap” between their income and the poverty line).

Basic needs poverty As with income poverty, lines have been drawn between inadequate and adequate supplies of the basic needs, and one again can think in terms of “basic needs poverty gaps.”

Capability poverty defines poverty as the absence of some basic capabilities to function – a person lacking the opportunity to achieve some minimally acceptable levels of functionality. The capability approach reconciles the notions of absolute and relative poverty, since relative deprivation in incomes and commodities can lead to an absolute deprivation in minimum capabilities.

“Human poverty constitutes a denial of fundamental human rights.”

–1997 Human Development Report

BOX 2. A chronology of the definitions of poverty

- 1960s – the main poverty focus was on the level of income, reflected in macro-economic indicators such as GDP per head (capita) popularly known as the “money-metric approach”.
- 1970s – in the mid-1970s, poverty came to be defined not just as a lack of income, but also as a lack of access to health, education and other services.
- 1980s. The principal innovations were: (a) The incorporation of non-monetary aspects of powerlessness and isolation leading to greater attention to participation; (b) A new interest in vulnerability and security; (c) A broadening of the concept of poverty to include a wider construct – livelihood. (d) A Capability approach to a functional society (by Amartya Sen) (e) The study of gender with a shift from the focus only on women (women in development (WID), to a wider gender relation’s critique (gender and development (GAD)).
- The 1990s saw further development of the poverty concept with an emphasis on participatory or self-assessment. At the same time, UNDP developed the human development approach based on: ‘the denial of opportunities and choices... to lead a long, healthy, creative life and to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-esteem and the respect of others...’
- Contemporary human development debates in developed countries focus increasingly on social exclusion. The focus is on multiple deprivations (low income, poor housing, poor access to education and health), and also on the process by which multiple deprivation occurs. The key arenas for exclusion include democratic and legal systems, markets, welfare state provisions, family and community: rights, resources and relationships are all important.

- Financial assets, such as savings and access to credit;
- Social assets, such as networks of contacts and reciprocal obligations that can be called on in time of need, and political influence over resources.

1.1.3 WOMEN, GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

Since the 1970s, women’s movements all over the world have undertaken research, formulated alternative strategies, and lobbied against discrimination and towards change.

Their activism helped to change the attitudes of governments and the public on gender issues. The international conferences held in the 1990's progressively confirmed the consensus on the necessity of gender equality as a precondition for development, culminating in the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action. At this conference the three most important conclusions can be described as:

- Recognition of women as agents for change, rather than victims;
- Gender mainstreaming identified as a tool to support Gender Equality;
- Governments identified as being responsible to promote Gender Equality.

Gender mainstreaming

According to the UN Economic and Social Council (1997), gender mainstreaming is defined as:

*"... the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated."*³

Gender Mainstreaming must be put at the heart of the development agenda, all policies and programmes need to consider how the various activities influence women and men, who are the target group and who benefits from development activities. The gender mainstreaming approach must be combined with specific initiatives aiming at addressing gender inequality and enhancing all stakeholders' capacity on gender equality

issues. As women are presently under-represented in decision-making, unemployed to a larger extent than men, under paid relative to the average, suffering from men's violence and portrayed in a stereotypical manner in the media, activities to decrease such inequalities must be put in focus.

Gender and vulnerability

Gender is a key determinant of vulnerability (the others include age, class, ethnicity, region etc.) so that in a period of economic transition, women in general are likely to be especially vulnerable to increased poverty or insecurity. While job losses may affect men and women, women may find it harder than men to regain employment or become self-employed, due to relative lack of education and skills, lifecycle issues (employers may favour younger women), and lack of independent access to capital. Poor women are more likely to have no other adult earners in the household and to have a higher dependency ratio and may be especially vulnerable to the removal of subsidies and increasing charges for services and rising prices, leaving them in deepening poverty.⁴

1.1.4 PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN POLICIES

Pro-poor and pro-women policies imply that the social and economic indicators for poor people and women should improve more rapidly than those for the rest of society. It is not sufficient that the indicators for the poor and women improve; they have to improve at a faster pace because absolute poverty always has a relative dimension. Therefore, before being called 'pro-poor' or 'pro-women' the policy framework needs a thorough examination.

Pro-poor policies

The concept of pro-poor policies is fre-

³Gender Thematic Guidance Note, Astrida Niemanis, and Arcadi Tortisyn. UNDP July 2003.

⁴Sally Baden: Economic Reform and Poverty: A Gender Analysis, Report nr. 50 prepared for the Gender Equality Unit, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), October 1997. Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, BRIDGE (development - gender).

BOX 3. Historical approaches to women's role and gender equality in the development process.

1940–1970s	The welfare approach. Women were seen as passive beneficiaries of aid, not as agents of development. The approach focused on women's reproductive responsibilities and women's practical needs.
1975	At the World conference of the International Women's Year in Mexico City, the Women in Development Approach was launched, identifying women's actual and potential roles in development. Political and social justice was called for and education and employment opportunities put in focus.
1979	The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEADW) was signed prompting national legislation to safeguard women's rights.
1990s	Gender Mainstreaming gained ground as a tool to link women's rights and demands for social justice to mainstream development concerns.
1995	Beijing Platform for Action. In September 1995, thousands of women and men from around the world have met in Beijing for the Fourth World Conference on Women. Participants have assessed how women's lives have changed over the past decade and took steps to keep issues of concern to women high on the international agenda.
2000	The adoption of the Millennium Development Goals, among which Goal number 3 is "Promotion of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment."

quently kept vague and general. Growth is pro-poor, it is argued, if it uses the assets that the poor own, if it favours the sectors where the poor work and if it occurs in areas where the poor live. These obvious points, however, are seldom decoded into detailed reforms to make policies pro-poor in practice. Successful pro-poor policies require a sound macro-economic framework; rational and transparent administration of scarce resources; accurate monitoring results so that unintended consequences can be taken into account and failures can be analysed and corrected; and they need to secure the confidence and if possible the active participation of the poor themselves. In addition they may be assumed to follow "good policies" which will reduce the absolute number of poor. Growth alone cannot achieve a substantial change in the poverty

rate – without a clear policy stance in favour of poverty reduction which would raise the poverty elasticity.⁵

Pro women policies

Equality between women and men (gender equality) is recognized as critical to the achievement of sustainable development including improvement of the quality of life for all, human rights and the proper functioning of a democratic society. Development policies worldwide for a long time have 'gender blind' i.e. not taking into account existing gender inequalities in society. It is now recognized that gender blind and even gender neutral policies and development programmes increase structural inequalities and enlarge the gap between women and men concerning income, political participation and power. Often measures targeting women, or gender

⁵ Laurence Whitehead & George Gray-Molina: The Long Term Politics of Pro-Poor Policies, (Nuffield College, Oxford). Prepared for the "World Development Report 2000/1: The Responsiveness of Political Systems to Poverty Reduction", Donnington Castle, 16-17 August 1999.

equality, were isolated achievements. Women were supported but not always integrated into the overall development.⁶

Towards a pro-poor and pro-women paradigm

The above analysis suggests that the extent to which development policies and strategies have been pro-poor and pro-women can be defined in terms of the degree to which these policies have (a) reduced poverty over time; (b) been directed at the sectors where the poor are concentrated; (c) is supportive of lagging regions; and (d) has not seriously compromised growth at the expense of meeting the needs of the poorest.

1.1.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF PRO-POOR AND PRO WOMEN DEVELOPMENT FOR ALBANIA

There are many features of the Albanian economic and social situation, which suggest that a pro-poor and pro-women approach to development is appropriate. 25-30 per cent of the population of Albania is still living under the poverty line of 4891 Leke per capita per month. In addition, a further 30 per cent are very close to the poverty line and can be considered as potentially very vulnerable to an economic downturn. This illustrates the importance of wide ranging poverty reduction measures for Albania. The main issue is how this could be undertaken given the immensity of the task.

Poverty and deprivation

People in Albania believe that their living conditions have remained largely unchanged over the past 12 months. A recent survey⁷ revealed that 9 out of 10 heads of householders are not happy with their actual financial situ-

ation and half of them are not at all happy. 20 per cent of the interviewees think that their life is generally deteriorating, 40 per cent of them consider health as their main concern. Only a third of people believe that their situation has slightly improved.

In addition, a recent survey⁸ shows that poverty related issues appear as the most concerning issues for people. These perceptions have been captured at a time when the macroeconomic indicators speak clearly for sustained economic growth commended by the international financial institutions. The logic is rather simple, economic growth is not reaching the majority of the population and it is actually leading to considerable social inequalities.

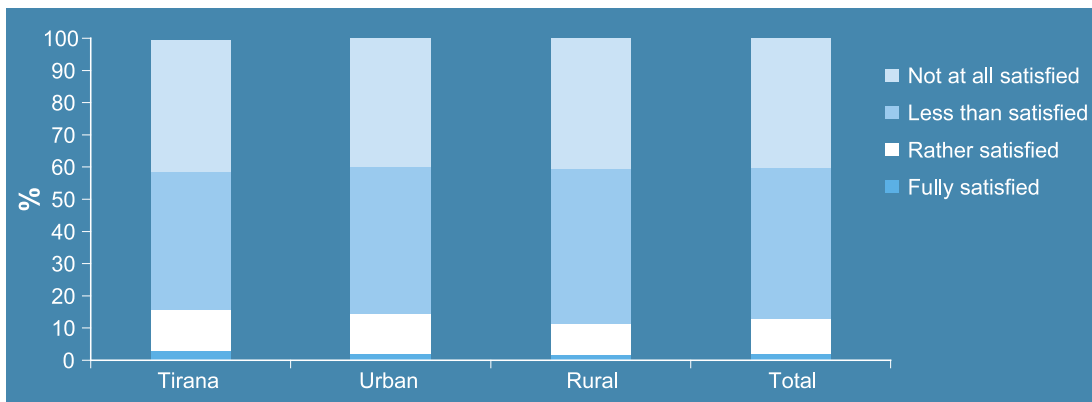
Gender

Despite the commitment and efforts by all stakeholders, the overall situation and position of women in Albania has NOT changed markedly over the past decade. There is an increasing gap between rich and poor, opportunities and benefits between men and women, rural and urban sectors of society. These inequalities very much impede the progress of the country towards sustainable, equitable and efficient development that is founded on democratic principles and human rights. Gender inequalities are experienced in leadership and decision-making, employment and income generation, education and the health sector as well as domestic violence and trafficking of women. Opportunities for women are still restricted. Of critical importance are the societal attitudes that keep women in a secondary place in society, and out of public life and public management.

⁶ Women make up a large majority of the poor in most developing countries, experience more severe poverty, are more frequently unemployed and often underpaid. It is clear that gender discrimination has a high economic cost for society at large as it blocks prospects for individuals and groups to move out of poverty. Women represent over half of the human resources in Albania, and half the potential of the society. This potential remains underutilized when women are constrained by inequality and discrimination. Therefore discrimination is also a major obstacle for development and poverty eradication. Inequality is unfavorable for the whole society, both women and men.

⁷ INSTAT-LSMS (ad hoc) 2003

⁸ Albanian Institute of International Affairs, UNDP Early Warning - Human Security Monitoring Project in Albania

Figure 1 Satisfaction with the current financial situation

Source: INSTAT-LSMS (ad hoc) 2003



- INTRODUCTION
- 2.1 MACRO-ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE
- 2.2 SECTORAL REFORMS
- 2.3 SOCIAL IMPACT ANALYSIS
- 2.4 THE NATIONAL STRATEGY FOR SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT (NSSD)
- 2.5 THE MDGs AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL – THE CASE FOR REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Albania has been subject to major economic and structural reforms over the past fourteen years. The country has made significant progress since its transition from a rigid form of communism to a quasi-market economy, and can point to many successes and a good record of economic and social progress since 1990. It has achieved high growth, albeit from a low base, while containing inflation in almost every year since transition, despite bouts of domestic and regional instability. While it has pursued far-reaching structural and economic reforms and has made advances in establishing democratic institutions, there are some concerns over the extent to which these policies have been able to reduce long term and entrenched poverty and also the extent to which they have been neutral or biased against women.

Poverty impact assessment

In order to understand and to clarify the extent to which Albania has been able to pursue a pro-poor and pro-women policy over the period since 1990, analysis has been undertaken on the social impact of the economic reforms that have been adopted under the national development strategies and the NSSD. The approach adopted is based on the Poverty and Social Impact Assessment (PSIA) now being actively developed by the international community, notably the World Bank and applied particularly to testing the policy frame and effectiveness of the poverty reduction strategies.

The PSIA methodology examines poverty reduction strategies and their accompanying reform packages as an ex-ante and ex-post exercise. Poverty and social impact analysis

(PSIA) implies an analysis of the distributional impact of policy reforms on the well-being or the welfare of different stakeholder groups, with a particular focus on the poor and vulnerable. The PSIA has an important role in the elaboration and implementation of poverty reduction strategies. It promotes evidence-based policy choices and fosters debate on policy reform options.

The analysis is concerned with the distributional impacts of policy change on various groups, because policy changes have a direct impact on the welfare of the poor or other disadvantaged groups. Understanding the impacts of policy change on these groups can inform policy makers to revise future actions. The distributional impacts of a policy, even among non-disadvantaged groups, are important in gauging the effectiveness of that policy and its ultimate sustainability.

Albania – the record of reform

Despite the massive economic, social and political upheaval that reforms have entailed, there has been no systematic attempt to determine in advance what would be the likely impact (ex ante analysis) on poor women and men. As the situation appears today, many of these reforms failed to deliver what was expected in terms of sustainable growth and poverty reduction, and furthermore have led to new problems and phenomena that were not present before 1990, with disparities, crime, human trafficking and prostitution among many others.

Accordingly, the country faces considerable challenges. While recorded per capita income has increased steadily⁹, Albania remains one of the poorest countries in

⁹From about US\$680 in 1990 to about US\$1,740.

Europe. According to the 2002 Living Standards Measurement Survey, a quarter of Albania's population lives in poverty and about 5 per cent in extreme poverty (defined as the inability to meet basic food requirements).

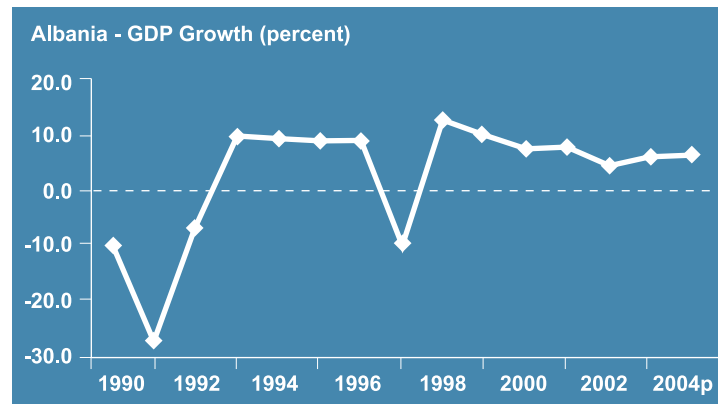
In addition, weak infrastructure and services throughout the country have left almost one-third of households without access to necessities such as basic education, water, sanitation, and heating. Weak governance, feeble institutions, and a tenuous rule of law are at the root of the country's problems.

2.1 MACRO-ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

Immediately after the transition, the real GDP of Albania contracted sharply by a cumulative 39 per cent between 1990 and 1992. Albania's impressive performance began in 1993 till 1996 with a rapid annual economic growth rate of 9.3 per cent. This rapid economic growth came to a halt during the large-scale civil disturbances of 1997. The well-publicised collapse of fraudulent pyramid schemes underscored the fragility of the country's institutions, which brought widespread anarchy and a sharp contraction in real output by 7 per cent. After the crisis, the country restored and maintained macroeconomic stability and put structural reforms back on track. Despite the Kosovo conflict and the massive influx of refugees in early 1999, the Government remained committed to implementing structural reforms, aided by generous external assistance.

Between 1998 and 2001, the economy grew at an average annual rate of 7.4 per cent, and in 1999 real GDP exceeded its level in 1990 for the first time. The growth was driven

Figure 2: GDP Growth



during 1998-99 by the improved performance in manufacturing and services. Between 1990-2004 growth has been fuelled by high volumes of remittances from large numbers of Albanians who migrated in the 1990s or work temporarily abroad. The agriculture sector has accounted for about half of the country's GDP.

Fiscal consolidation reduced the deficit from 12 per cent of GDP in 1999 to about 5 per cent in 2003. Nevertheless the fiscal deficit, financed primarily through domestic borrowing, remains high. Continuous remittances, external assistance, and foreign direct investment have been important factors in strengthening the country's balance of payments position and in reducing the current account deficit to 7.5 per cent in 2003. However, concerns remain about Albania's fragile external position and fiscal sustainability, as well as its widespread poverty.

Although the agricultural sector still provides a livelihood for almost half of Albania's population, the reallocation of resources toward the construction and services sectors in recent years has been critical for the country's economic progress. The country has further growth potential in agro-business industry, transit trade, export of light manufacturing, and tourism.

Figure 3: Real GDP Growth



Figure 4: Trends of GDP Growth per capita

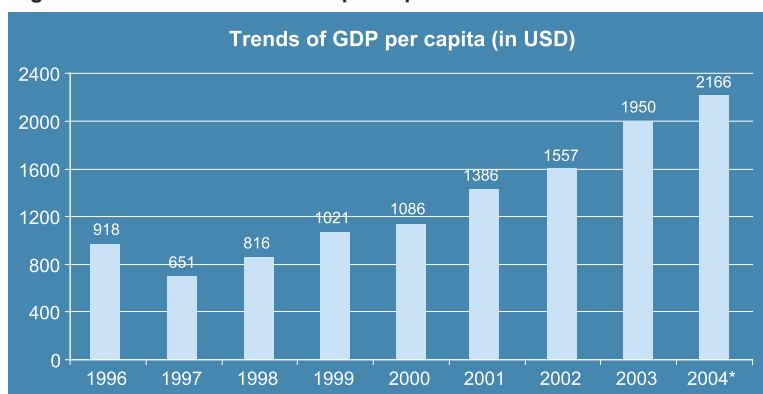
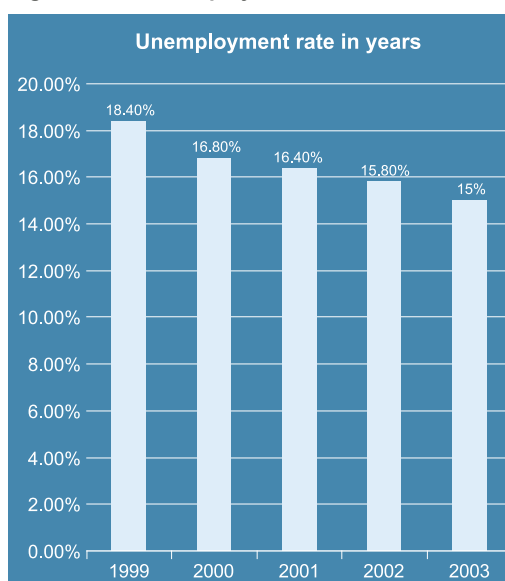


Figure 5: The Unemployment rate



In 2004, Albania boasted an economy that was predominantly under private ownership and where the state controls were minimal. Measures that have been introduced since 1991 include privatisation of agricultural land (former cooperatives and state farms) and virtually all small and medium public enterprises (with less than 300 workers), progress with privatisation and liquidation of large state-owned enterprises¹⁰ including the mining industry (closure and privatisation). There has also been as the transformation and improvement of management of public utilities (such as electricity, water, and telecommunications) and of some so called strategic enterprises (such oil and gas) which are in the public domain for the time being, the abolition of almost all price controls, the unification and floating of the exchange rate, and sweeping liberalisation of the trade and payments regime.

2.2 SECTORAL REFORMS

Agricultural sector

Agriculture has been a central part of the reform programme and, as such, has been the subject of a liberalisation process affecting all aspects of the production and distribution process, and in particular, land privatisation. During 1991-94, under the land distribution reform¹¹, land controlled by the cooperatives and state farms according to several criteria was allocated to families living in the villages. As a result, by mid-1995, 465,000 families controlled 546,000 hectares of land¹² formerly belonging to cooperatives and state farms. Because of overall population pressure and the lack of jobs elsewhere in the economy, average farm

¹⁰A Mass Privatization Program was launched in 1995, in parallel with a voucher scheme. To-date, approximately 95 per cent of enterprises have been auctioned.

¹¹Based on the Land Law No. 7501, August 19, 1991 and the Decision 452 dated October 17, 1992.

¹²This area was divided into about 1.9 million parcels. This indicates an average holding size of just over one hectare divided into four parcels. About 106,000 hectares of agricultural land were not distributed because if their marginal agricultural value because they were planted with tree crops that provided difficult to redistribute.

sizes are very small and very fragmented¹³. The first huge and visible negative impact of the agriculture reform was thousands of un-employed peasants in each of the regions of Albania who used to be employed in cooperatives or state farms. This massive contingent of un-employed farmers were either oriented to emigrate abroad (mainly to Greece and Italy) or to migrate internally to low lands and especially to the peri-urban areas near Tirana and Durrës. Thus they established the so-called famous illegal urban settlements areas like Bathore and Kamëz in Tirana and Durrës which are the most representative examples of urban chaos.

Only a few agile and motivated farmers were able to cope with the new free market situation and started to produce milk, vegetables, and meat for the urban markets. However the vast majority of farmers were not able to compete and enjoy the benefits of liberalisation in these markets, due to massive price reductions. This forced them to sell their produced at under cost prices (especially dairy products). The closure of the cooperative system was also accompanied by the major destruction of agriculture infrastructure (including irrigation and drainage, mechanisation, storage, processing and marketing). In spite of the difficulties met, the agricultural sector has recovered since the virtual collapse of production in 1990-92. Land reform, which was later on accompanied by other agricultural reforms and support programmes, achieved its initial objective of privatising cooperatives and state farms very quickly, with a reasonable degree of equity, while achieving political and social stability. Yet a very large part of agricultural production remains for own-consumption. A large number of rural families, especially in

remote and mountain areas, have very small parcels of land, out of which they can barely survive. While the agricultural sector has further growth potential, for a substantial part of the rural population short-term emigration and cash transfers constitute important elements of their survival strategy.

Privatisation of public enterprises

The privatisation process started in 1990-91 with the privatisation of small service shops such as bars, trade shops and hotels. During the first years, the majority of public enterprises, factories, mines, etc., collapsed causing large-scale unemployment both in rural and urban areas¹⁴. The privatisation of small enterprises during 1992-1995 and medium-sized enterprises, especially since 2001, has had a slight positive impact on employment generation and poverty reduction. In 1995, privatisation was combined with the voucher system targeting to transform the process into a “mass privatisation”.

Notwithstanding the progress made in improving the business environment, private enterprises, in particular SMEs, still encounter many obstacles in their development, including corruption, poor law enforcement, lengthy procedures, non-fulfilment of contracts, and poor-quality infrastructure. While a notable improvement has taken place over the last two years, foreign direct investments in Albania still remain among the lowest in the region. Some progress is under way for further improvements in the legal and institutional framework and stimulation of domestic and foreign investments. The government has adopted a strategy for SMEs and is taking steps to review administrative barriers to entry such as registration, permission, etc.

¹³One farm holding of about 1 hectare divided in most of the cases into 3 to 6 parcels.

¹⁴However, the privatization of the mining industry is worth mentioning as successful in the long run. In 1994 the Albanian state had to pay about 10 million USD to keep on running the inefficient state owned mines, on year 2003 there is a profit of about 10 million USD from private mines.

Reform in Infrastructure was conceived only as road and transport problem since energy, water and the telecommunication sectors were left under the privatisation schemes of “strategic enterprises”.

The financial sector has also passed through in-depth reforms, creating an independent financial system with two levels: a strong Central Bank and a network of commercial banks. Besides the commercial financial system, several non-banking institutions have developed during these last years throughout the country providing saving and credit opportunities to small and medium entrepreneurs. However, these services are mostly in urban areas, while they are less developed in rural ones, especially in mountainous and remote areas.

Housing sector reforms

Of special interest and importance was the “symbolic” privatisation of all flats and houses constructed by the communist state. Almost 90 per cent of families in urban areas bought the flat they lived in, for a price of approximately 2USD per m² – well below the construction cost. At the same time the new democratic state made little or no effort at all to restitute properties (even private houses) to the original owners, these properties had been confiscated by the communists during the period 1945-1955. Numerous illegal settlements have been constructed on private land, making property issues even problematic, especially in the peri-urban areas such as the suburbs of Tirana. Special and detailed social impact assessment studies should be carried out to deepen the analysis of policies related to private property, which should be followed up by the Government in order to find proper options and solutions.

2.3 SOCIAL IMPACT ANALYSIS

The Impact of reforms on health and education services

The socio-economic reforms in Albania were accompanied by a general deterioration of the health and education services both in urban and rural areas. The quality of health services and education declined in rural and remote areas, with the poor and women most seriously affected. The rate of enrolment in schools was reduced significantly especially within poor communities. The emergence of private schools has had a positive, but very marginal effect on enrolment, but only for a small minority in the major urban areas.

The main factors that have caused the of these basic services in marginalized areas/regions include: i) the generally poor level of health and education infrastructure (especially in rural areas particularly in the mountainous regions, which suffered disproportionately as compared with urban areas as funding provisions were reduced); ii) the difficult social and economic situation of most Albanian households, especially those suffering from the loss of income from migration; iii) the lack of quality of professionals (medical staff and teachers) as a result of the emigration of the best professionals from the poorest regions; iv) overcrowding in urban schools and health centres; v) as well as a lack of or poorly maintained facilities and equipment; etc. The government has embarked on an initial attempt to reform health and education systems since 1993, which has to some degree offset these adverse affects.¹⁵

Differential gender impact of reforms

While there is no hard information available on the differential impact on women of

¹⁵In spite of the low speed of implementation, these reforms have had a significant positive impact on education. As a result there was: i) a progressive increase in public spending for education, and better management and transparency in the use of funds, ii) the rehabilitation of a large number of schools and other educational facilities; ii) the development of curricula and programmes; and the implementation of several training programmes for teachers, etc.

the reforms since 1990, prima facie evidence suggests that they have suffered rather more than men.¹⁶ This negative effect on women particularly applied with the closure of small production units and the demise of the cooperative system which led to more women becoming redundant than men.¹⁷

Several current studies are focused on the gender issue at the national level within the frame of gender mainstreaming or the gender empowerment agenda, but more pro-women policies and interventions are needed to sustain rural development and the gender empowerment agenda in rural areas should be revised to focus on women's empowerment.

Mobility and Migration

In Albania, internal and international migration plays a key role in household-level strategies to cope with the economic hardship of transition. Large numbers of Albanians have left rural areas and migrated to towns, responding to both the constraints of the rural areas and the attraction of the towns. Since restrictions (imposed under the communist regime) on internal migration were lifted, there has been substantial de-population of the mountainous north and north-east. These areas were artificially over-populated under the communist regime, and land holdings are especially small, off-farm employment opportunities few, and the majority of the population fall below the poverty line. People have moved primarily to Tirana, Durrës, Kruja, Elbasan, Pogradec and Shkodra where income generating and employment opportunities are perceived to be better, and where access to social services is a little easier.

Migration and remittances

Emigration in search of work opportunities has played a critical strategic role for many Albanian families in the post-communist era. The initial political instability, social unrest, and the economic downturn associated with the change in the government led to the largest surge of Albanian migration in recent times, with an estimated 300,000 individuals leaving the country from March, 1991 to 1992, primarily to Greece and Italy.¹⁸ The Stabilisation of both the political and economic situation after 1998 reduced migratory flows. Remittances from Albanian migrants have been the main source of savings for financing domestic investments, with much of the investment going into housing and small business development. The prospects for emigration and remittances have important implications for the future, especially for poverty reduction. On average, remittances represent 13 per cent of total income among Albanian households (14 per cent for the non-poor, and 8 per cent for the poor). The share is higher among urban dwellers (16 per cent) as compared with rural dwellers (11 per cent). This trend most likely reflects differences in patterns of migration.¹⁹

BOX 4: Migration and remittances

Since the fall of communism one fifth of Albanians, or more than 600,000 people have migrated abroad²⁰. The role of remittances from Albanians abroad play a significant role in the alleviation of poverty and amelioration of the living conditions of many Albanian households, but also of the macro-economic stabilisation of the country. They constitute the main source of foreign currency income for the country and in the period 1991 – 2002, they represented 10 to 22 per cent of the GDP^{21/22}. In 2002, the value of remittances reached 630 million USD²³, or twice the value of the export of commodities. Thus constituting the major foreign currency source for the country.

¹⁶INSTAT Gender Perspectives in Albania 2004, p.25

¹⁷Ibid, p.26

¹⁸Piperno, 2002; Pastore, 1998.

¹⁹LSMS data.

²⁰INSTAT. Preliminary Results of the Population and Housing Census 2001, Tirana 2001.

²¹Bank of Albania, 2003.

²²The Centre for Economic and Social Studies (CESS), The encouragement of social-economic development in relation to the growth of the role of the remittances, August 2003. Research Report commissioned by UNDP and Soros Foundation, p.10.

²³ Bank of Albania, 2003.

Social subsidies and Transfers

After an increase from 1992 to 1993 (when they reached 15.4 per cent of GDP) social subsidies and transfers²⁴ as a whole have been on a steady decline. By 1995, they were around 11 per cent of GDP. The initial increase in these expenditures reflected the expansion of the social safety net in 1992-93 when unemployment insurance and social assistance were introduced, and budgetary transfers were made in partial compensation for the liberalization of food and energy prices. Since then, with a recovery in the economic situation, social transfers have moderated somewhat, in large part due to the sharp reduction in people eligible for unemployment compensation. There has also been some reduction in pensions (down from 6.3 per cent of GDP in 1992 to 5.1 per cent in 1995) and social assistance (from 2.2 per cent in 1994 to 1.9 per cent of GDP in 1995). The capacity of the budget to support social transfers even at reduced levels, however, is seriously questionable, yet their role in poverty reduction is critical.

Price subsidies as a whole have been steadily reduced from 1992 onwards, from 3.5 per cent of GDP that year to 0.6 per cent of GDP in 1995. In 1995, price subsidies were eliminated for the majority of products. The only price subsidies left are those on public transportation, rural water supplies, water for irrigation, schoolbooks, funeral expenses, and water and electricity. It is expected that the government will continue to raise prices, as well as public utility charges, gradually toward cost-covering levels, thereby eliminating the remaining subsidies.

The restructuring of Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, under a well-supervised

donor programme, was one of the strongest points of the reform to improve the management and coordination in a situation of rising un-employment, caused by closure of former loss making public enterprises and the demise of the cooperatives.

The social assistance scheme

This is a passive policy with regard to poverty reduction and as such needs to be continuously updated during the poverty reduction process. To improve coverage, the level of assistance and the overall impact, the main changes should be the following: (i) the improvement of the method to calculate social assistance; (ii) decentralisation of the social assistance scheme (starting with pilot projects); (iii) and aligning social assistance with social protection and social care mechanisms and with employment promotion schemes. The social assistance programme supported 129,600 families throughout the country in 2003, down from 133,000 families in 2002. At present, 55,000 families living in urban areas benefit from social assistance (42 per cent of the total), as compared to 75,000 families in the rural areas (58 per cent of the total).

Assessment of recent reforms and developments – the pro-poor and women impact

The modernisation of the country and the transfer of know-how that has in many respects been triggered by the transition reforms and the recent period of steady economic growth, is certainly contributing to improve overall living standards in Albania. The results of recent economic reforms have been positive. Trade liberalisation, price liberalisation, privatisation the privatisation of SMEs, and improvement of fiscal sustainability through better customs and tax serv-

²⁴ These include social security (pensions and maternity allowance), social assistance, unemployment benefit, political prisoner restitution, energy compensation, enterprise support and subsidies.

ices, are areas where clear progress has been made. Yet, the benefits, however, appear to be accruing mostly to urban areas, and particularly in Tirana, while rural and more remote areas are still being left behind. Several non-income dimensions of deprivation appear to be worsening given the overall level of development in the country. The possibility for many of the rural poor, and for the un-educated urban poor, of escaping poverty by connecting themselves to the economic growth process seems remote. Nevertheless, there is ample scope and need for decisive policy actions to break the cycle of poverty, through such additional steps such as the improved delivery of basic services to the poorest, accelerated gender focused initiatives and education and health sector grants for the poorest communities. Additional pro-poor growth measures in the form of greater transfers to the poorest regions, rural infrastructure provision, and employment generation incentives must be forthcoming if Albania is to stay on track towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

2.4 THE NATIONAL STRATEGY FOR SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT (NSSSED)

The National Strategy for Social and Economic Development (NSSSED), formulated by the Government of Albania, provides a roadmap for the country's future development. The strategy emphasises the creation and maintenance of a business environment, the promotion of employment opportunities for the poor, the enhancement of human capital through increased investments in health and education, and empowerment of the poor through greater involvement in the political process. The NSSSED articulated a long-term vision of sustainable development designed to move from managing

short-term crises to creating the conditions that promote long-term growth and a decline in poverty, including improving social indicators, which are among the lowest in Europe, and improving physical infrastructure, which is a constraint on long-term private sector development.

Poverty measures under the NSSSED

In the NSSSED medium-term reforms for 2004-2007, the implementation of the poverty mitigating social policies includes financial support programmes for families in need social assistance. In order to increase the efficiency of the scheme, it will be combined with employment policies, a social business model, and active social services, which take the multi-dimensional nature of poverty into consideration. The NSSSED states that emphasis will be put to the provision of special services to vulnerable population categories (including children, youth, women, and elderly people) in response to their needs. This will address not just traditional problems but "new" ones such as drugs, trafficking in women, trafficking and abuse of children as well as other issues.

The SA Process and pro-poor and women development – the effects

Albania has already entered into the Stabilization and Association process with the European Union. Key issues for accession are; security, governance, law enforcement and macroeconomic stabilisation. Recent European Community assistance to Albania has concentrated on strengthening the state and the rule of law; large infrastructure projects (roads, water and ports, airport); agriculture and local community development; education; and humanitarian assistance. In the second progress report of the NSSSED, the Government has made efforts to better integrate the NSSSED with the SA process and objectives.

Special contribution of Ms Ermelinda Meksi – Minister of European Integration

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) undoubtedly create an added and undisputable value to the public policies of Albania. MDGs focus on human development; they are simple and bring a new long-term development vision. For these reasons, the contextualized MDGs for Albania represent an effective instrument for increasing accountability of politicians and the public sector. In this context, the role of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) of providing a more human face to economic growth and integration, through localisation of the MDGs, is useful and appreciated.

Albania has already made its strategic choice: EU integration. In the meantime, it is certain that the European integration of Albania is not an end to itself. Integration is a road – already proven as effective – towards increased welfare for citizens. Therefore, the European integration of Albania and the Millennium Development Goals are compatible and complementary.

The focus of integrating policies with regard to the rule of law, institutional and administrative development, and increasing competing capacities aims to create the conditions for freedom and economic growth. This is absolutely appropriate to Albania, which has transitioned out from a communist regime and where poverty is widespread. On the other hand, EU social inclusion policies aim to provide everyone with access to the fruits of economic growth. This policy and the MDGs are also fully compatible. In this sense, the focus of the Report, being on regional development and strengthening the role of women, serves both the functioning of the MDGs as well as promotion of EU social inclusion.

Integration of targets, institutions, EU social inclusion methodologies and MDGs, in the framework of the National Strategy of Socio-Economic Development, remains without a doubt a major front of activities for the future.

The selection of the theme on empowerment of women is also highly justifiable if we take into account the current low levels of participation of women in politics and employment, as well as the various forms of violence against women. Our society has to create the appropriate conditions for the development of women's capabilities. Similarly, we also cannot afford ignore half of the active labour force, which is represented by women.

2.5 THE MDGs AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL – THE CASE FOR REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Progress in decentralisation

Albania has recently taken bold steps to introduce a more decentralised form of political, administrative, and fiscal management that would enable the progressive development of a more satisfactory geographical distribution of services, opportunities for development, governance and accountability. Some success has been achieved in institutional capacity building and the improvement of the basic legal framework necessary for the implementation of decentralisation policies. However, much more is required to translate these initial moves, into a meaningful form of decentralised governance which will be able to address the acute regional development, and poverty disparities in Albania.

Fiscal decentralisation as a vehicle for redressing poverty in the regions

The approval of an important legal package on fiscal decentralisation at the end of 2002 has led to the transfer of a series of taxes to the regions, which has shifted the balance between state and local provision of services. These include the small business tax, annual vehicle registration tax, real estate transaction tax and others. This new legal framework offers the prospect of substantial fiscal autonomy for the regions by creating the necessary room for increasing local budgets and the financing of policies, thus leading to the development of municipalities, commune and regions. This legal reform should allow the regions to devote more resources towards poverty alleviation programmes and social spending. The increased responsibility for local income could also lead to the improvement of the accountability of local government units to-

wards their local communities.

The role of the regional governments in articulating and implementing new regional initiatives is critical. In this respect local government responsibilities go far beyond service provision which aim to formulate and implement short and long-term programmes of local economic development. Their new roles are defined in accordance with the law on local government, the Strategy of Decentralization and Local Autonomy, the National Strategy of Social and Economic Development (NSSSED) as well as other sectoral strategies.

Regional development strategies and MDG Reports

Within this general framework, the government, in conjunction with its donor partners, has commenced the preparation of a number of Regional Development Strategies (RDS) and MDG Regional Reports which constitute a major step towards the operationalisation of the MDGs.

Unfortunately, the NSSSED and its monitoring indicators have not yet been translated into operational regional level strategies. This has allowed an institutional gap between the national strategy and its main implementing agents (the regional governments) to develop. Moreover, local authorities have been slow in endorsing the already articulated national and regional strategies, so that the NSSSED has still not moved far

Box 5: Fiscal decentralisation

“Fiscal decentralisation – which should go hand in glove with administrative decentralisation, has been largely ignored as an essential instrument of local development. The result is that the poorest regions are grossly under-resourced and getting poorer and the richest regions – mainly in the centre of the country around Tirana are becoming richer and even in a sense over developed in a haphazard and unplanned manner.”

NHDR Albania 2002, Challenges of Local Governance and Regional Development. p.5

beyond the presentation of mere regional statistical guidelines. This lack of coordination has led in turn to fragmented public and donor funding of regional development initiatives (such as the MDG Development Plans) and weakened the necessary focus on local and community development for poverty reduction.

The regional strategies should be considered as operational documents, which need to be backed up with funding, monitoring and evaluation processes. Updating these strategies and keeping track of results and changing priorities is essential for regional development. However, these strategies have to be complemented with transparent processes and coordination at the central level, so that there is a close correlation between the funding needs identified at the regional level, and the actual expenditure allocations (decided by central government ministries). These changes will avoid a situation where regional strategies point out the need for financing certain activities, while the decision at the central level is being made to finance non-relevant others. In this sense, regional strategies can also be used as pressure tools to encourage the central government to properly address local development concerns.

Rooting out poverty – by Albana Mustafaraj

The reasons given for Albania's poverty – the poorest country in Europe – are plentiful. These range from a late-coming statehood, a difficult, mountainous terrain that could yield only subsistence farming, and the lack of a comprehensive and strategic development plan. There also demographic changes to consider. Albania's demographic revolution in the 1990s, from a country where two thirds of the population lived in the countryside, which lead to the move of impoverished farmers to ghettoized suburbs of larger cities with stagnant economies, is entirely dissimilar from its neighbouring countries. That particular demographic of society consists of a significant group of those suffering from poverty in Albania. Another group is composed of the many families that are dysfunctional with regards to the new conditions, such that they are unable to manage their familial finances in the context of the wider market economy. This phenomenon has worsened, despite recent attempts made by the anaemic operations of the state. The government itself is poor too. The utilities it controls – water supply and electricity – are afflicted with problems, which are more acutely experienced by those living in smaller towns and rural areas. However, poverty in Albania is caused by both visible and invisible factors. Unemployment, corruption, low efficiency of the public administration, poor infrastructure, and dubious business that practice policies which aim for extremely high profit, rather than attempting to widen the consumer base with lower profit and lower prices. The break with tradition and the gap between rural living versus the forcible change based on urban mentalities, is also important.

What is there to do?

Sustainable development comes to mind, with caution Donor-funded rehabilitation of roads, a newly constructed medical centre of the erection of a school building are not enough to achieve the aim. Wider community involvement must come into play and priorities need also change. The “remote” citizens of impoverished north-eastern and south-eastern Albania should experience part of the country's development. A new attitude towards labour and the work ethic is also essential. Citizens should be clearer about the reasons why are they working. These three components could be the main counter-attack actions capable of saving Albania from poverty.

INTRODUCTION

3.1 POVERTY INDICATORS

3.2 UNMET BASIC NEEDS; POVERTY

3.3 SELECTED POVERTY PROFILES IN ALBANIA

3.4 SOCIAL CATEGORIES AT RISK

3.5 OTHER DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY

3.6 POVERTY AND ACCESS ASSETS – PRIVATE AND PUBLIC

INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the NHDR reviews the evidence of poverty in Albania based on the numerous studies undertaken over the last decade, which have documented the features of the major poverty groups. The analysis also includes an examination of the regional perspectives on poverty.

The available studies reveal the complex na-

ture of poverty in Albania and the major effort that will be needed to reduce it by 50 per cent from its present level by 2015 as required by the Millennium Development Goal (Goal 1). Currently absolute poverty is around 25.5 per cent (2002) and extreme poverty (based on less than US\$1 per day) is 4.7 per cent. Major challenges exist in all spheres that will require sustained and dedicated pro-poor and pro-women policies and strategies. (see below).

TABLE 1: THE PRINCIPAL MDG POVERTY TARGETS for ALBANIA – absolute and extreme poverty²⁵

Indicator	YEARS			
	2001	2002	2006	2015
1. Absolute poverty	25.4 %	25.4 %	20 %	13%
2. Extreme poverty	4.7 %	4.7%	3 %	0 %

Source: NSSED, 2003.

Box 6: Some other MDG targets for Albania²⁶

- Target 1: «Halve between 2002 and 2015, the proportion of people living in extreme poverty».
- Target 2: «Reduce between 2002 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from malnutrition»;
- Target 3: «Reduce unemployment between 2002 and 2015, to reach EU standards»;
- Target 4: «An open trading and financial system for inclusive economic growth»;
- Target 5: «Make available information & communication technologies»;
- Target 6: «Increase the availability of electricity for all»

The Challenges

The NSSED sets out in detail the long-term strategy for reducing poverty and improving livelihoods in Albania up to 2105. The challenges to be taken up through the NSSED are illustrated below (box 4).

3.1 POVERTY INDICATORS

Definition of poverty:

Poverty is a complex phenomenon which captures various dimensions of deprivation. Poverty is hunger; poverty is about being homeless, ill and not being able to have medical care. Poverty is about being unemployed and

²⁵ Absolute poverty is defined as the proportion of the adult population below US\$2 per day. Extreme poverty is defined in terms of the universal measure of US\$1 per day (PPP basis)

²⁶ The indicators are:

- «Extreme poverty», the percentage of the population living on an income of less than 1 USD per day;
- «Absolute poverty», the percentage of the population living on an income of less than 2 USD per day;
- «The prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age. (target 2);
- «The level of unemployment (target 3);
- «Levels of Foreign Direct Investment per year (target 4);
- «Telephone lines and cellular phone subscribers per 100 people (target 5);
- «Personal computers in use per 100 people;
- «Internet users per 100 people.

fearing an insecure future; poverty is being illiterate and lacking many services and tools for the daily life. It is difficult to provide a conclusive definition of poverty because it changes from time to time and from one country to another and moreover it can be measured in different ways.

Poverty levels in Albania

Assessments of the level of poverty in Albania from the Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) data have been elaborated by the World Bank and INSTAT (2003) based on the calculation of the general consumption of the Albanian population. Two of the most important levels used in this study are the level of **nutritional poverty** and the level of **complete poverty**. The former is defined as the level of monthly income necessary for an Albanian to receive the minimum quantity of calories (calculated at the value of 3047 Leke). The second definition, which is the most important expression of poverty, is the complete poverty level which includes the consumption of non-food items, and is calculated at a value of 4.891 Leke per capita per month.

The results of the assessment show that 25.4 per cent of Albanians (or 780,000 people) live below the complete poverty line. This figure is high compared to other countries of South-eastern Europe but is similar to those of Central Asia. Whereas the propor-

BOX 7: Challenges –as identified by the NSSD

- The definition of the fight against poverty is one of the basic priorities of the National Strategy for Social and Economic Development;
- The improvement of education and health services as well as infrastructure and basic services for the population constitute the priority fields of the NSSD;
- Fostering economic development in general, and macroeconomic stability in particular as key conditions towards poverty reduction constitute the basic foundation of the NSSD;
- Ensuring more proportional distribution of economic growth covering all the country's territory and different social groups, in particular in favour of marginalised groups and social categories at risk;
- Improving and further completing policies and social services which aim to transform them from policies of facilitation, assistance and services towards development and integration policies.

tion of people that live below the complete poverty line is high, the percentage of the people living below the nutritional poverty is relatively low at only 4.7 per cent (WB and INSTAT, 2003). The LSMS analysis suggests that while extreme poverty in Albania is not very extensive a considerable number of households live very close to the poverty line and can be considered as vulnerable. The depth of poverty is somewhat higher compared with many other countries in the region.

The LSMS used and assessed the level of poverty according to a number of definitions providing a comprehensive assessment. These are shown below.

Table 2: Level of poverty according to various definitions

Poverty line according to:	Value (Lek)	Level (%)
Nutritional poverty	3,047	4.7
50% of the per capita consume mean	3,349	7.0
\$2 PPP	3,775	10.8
60% of the per capita consume mean	4,019	13.5
Complete poverty	4,891	25.4
\$4 PPP	7,550	59.3

Rural and urban poverty

Rural areas continue to be the poorest part of the country where half of the population lives. 29.6 per cent of the Albanian rural population lives below the poverty line as compared to 20.1 per cent of the urban population and 17.8 per cent of Tirana's population. The picture of rural and urban disparities does not however apply for nutritional poverty with 4.8 per cent of the urban population and 2.3 per cent of the population of Tirana living below the extreme poverty line.

Regional poverty dimensions

The LSMS divides Albania into the North-eastern, Central, South-eastern Regions, plus Tirana. The results show clearly that the mountainous districts in North-eastern Albania are the poorest, accommodating 46 per cent of the total poor in the country, as compared to Tirana which only accounts for 8 per cent of the poor. Nearly half of the population in the north-eastern division live below the poverty line and more than 25 per cent of them live below the extreme poverty line. Similarly to the urban-rural disparities, the level of poverty (income) demonstrates the same regional disparities as in previous decades. This reflects in part the pronounced lack of policies to address regional economic and social disparities. In spite of the best efforts of the previous and post communist regimes to reduce them they are still present and reflected in the continuation of

emigration from these regions.

According to the LSMS, the level of poverty in the districts of Kukës, Has, Tropojë, Dibër, Malësi e Madhe, Bulqizë, Librazhd and Gramsh reaches up to 46 per cent, whereas according to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 80 per cent of the total number of families that benefit from social assistance are concentrated in these districts. According to the LSMS 2002, the poorest areas of Albania are Dibra, Elbasani and Kukës.

Under these circumstances, the NSSD emphasises the need for an inclusive economic growth, which aims at mobilizing productive resources in areas with a high incidence of poverty. Annual studies on the level of poverty would enable a better tracking of the impact of economic growth on poverty indicators including disparities. In their absence, proxy and approximate indicators can be employed such as the variations of employment levels in various geographical areas, the number of new enterprises, and the level of investments and loans from banks or other loan-making institutions.

Inequality measures

The national value of the **Gini coefficient** is 0.28 and it does not appear to vary markedly *between* rural and urban regions. While some doubt must be placed on the accuracy

Table 3: Poverty and Inequality in Albania

	Tirana		Other urban		Rural		Total	
	Poor	Extreme poor	Poor	Extreme poor	Poor	Extreme poor	Poor	Extreme poor
Headcount	17.8	2.3	20.1	4.8	29.6	5.2	25.4	4.7
Poverty Gap	3.8	0.6	4.7	0.9	6.6	0.7	5.7	0.8
Poverty gap squared	1.3	0.22	1.7	0.24	2.1	0.16	1.9	0.19
Mean per capita consumption (Leks)		9,043		8,468		7,212		7,801
Gini		0.30		0.28		0.27		0.28

Source: LSMS 2002, INSTAT

of the Gini coefficient it suggests that income inequalities (estimated by consumption levels) within regions are roughly similar. These dimensions are illustrated in the table below.

Box 8: Inequality In Albania: Lorenz Curve And Gini Coefficient²⁷

If poverty measurements focus on the situation of individuals at the bottom of the distribution, then, inequality is a broader concept. Inequality is a concept that applies to the entire population, not only to the population below a certain poverty line. This is the main reason why official measurements of inequalities in Albania do not seem as dramatic as the situation on the streets of Tirana would suggest. Luxury villas and cars are still only within reach of a very small proportion of the Albanian population.

Inequality in Albania could be summarized in the following way:

Sixty to Sixty-five percent of the Albanian population still live under similar and nearly impoverished conditions. It is this large percentage of people living at the same socio-economic stratum that contributes to the low level of INEQUALITY. 20% are poor, under poverty line 5% are very poor but somewhat better off than those in sub-Saharan Africa 5-10% could be prosperous, 5% of which could be very rich - including smugglers or traffickers. These, however, are few in number. Inequality is measured irrespective of the population's mean or median. It is measured simply on the basis of the distribution (hence, a relative concept). Inequality can be measured according to different dimensions of well-being, including: consumption/expenditure and income, but also land, assets, and any continuous and cardinal variables. There are three main representations:

- Frequency distribution;
- Cumulative frequency distribution;
- Lorenz curve.

In this report we focus on Lorenz Curve and Gini coefficient.

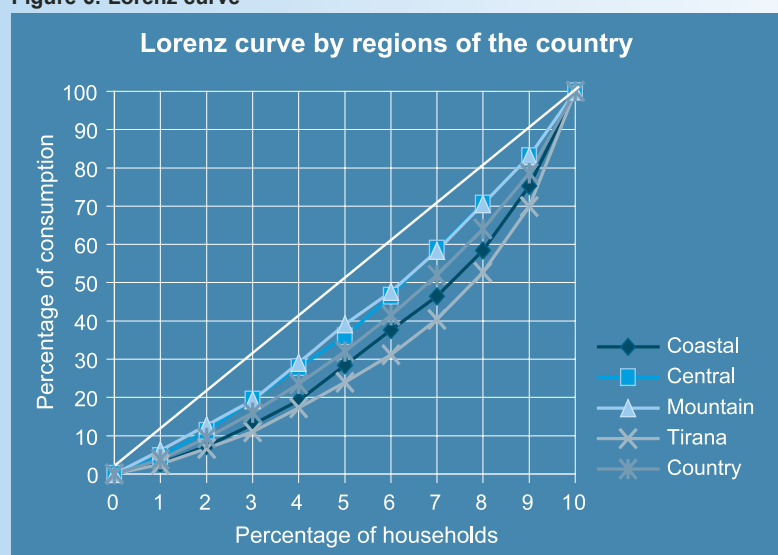
The Lorenz curve:

The curve maps the cumulative expenditure share on the vertical axis against the cumulative distribution of the population on the horizontal axis. If each individual had the same consumption, or total equality, the Lorenz curve would be the "line of total equality". If one individual contributed to 100 per cent of consumption (or income), the Lorenz curve would pass through the points (0,0), (100,0) and (100,100). This is the "curve of total inequality".

The LSMS 2002 sample is divided into 3 inference domains, with Tirana represented separately. Using the results for each region we have constructed a consumption-based Lorenz curve.

Definition: The Gini coefficient is the most commonly used measure of inequality. It varies between 0, which indicates complete equality, and 1, which indicates complete inequality. It measures the extent to which the distribution is "far" from that of total equality.

Figure 6: Lorenz curve



²⁷ Albania Common Country Assessment 2004.

Non-monetary poverty and inequalities in services

Wide disparities exist in the quality of physical infrastructure and social services provision especially in the rural areas – both important dimension of poverty in Albania. The low education and health service standards especially in the rural and peri-rural areas of the country and the universally low quality of these services throughout Albania reduces considerably the population's access to basic services.

The analysis of dimensions of poverty not dealing with income provides a clear picture about the chances of the two categories of poor and non-poor having access to basic public services. The 2003 analysis of indicators points out that the poor benefit less from public services:

- Poor people have the possibility to benefit from adequate medical services two times less compared to others;
- Poor people have notably less access to drinking water;
- Poor people live in dire conditions as compared to the non-poor;

- Eight out of ten poor people do not own a private telephone.

Associations between poverty and vulnerability

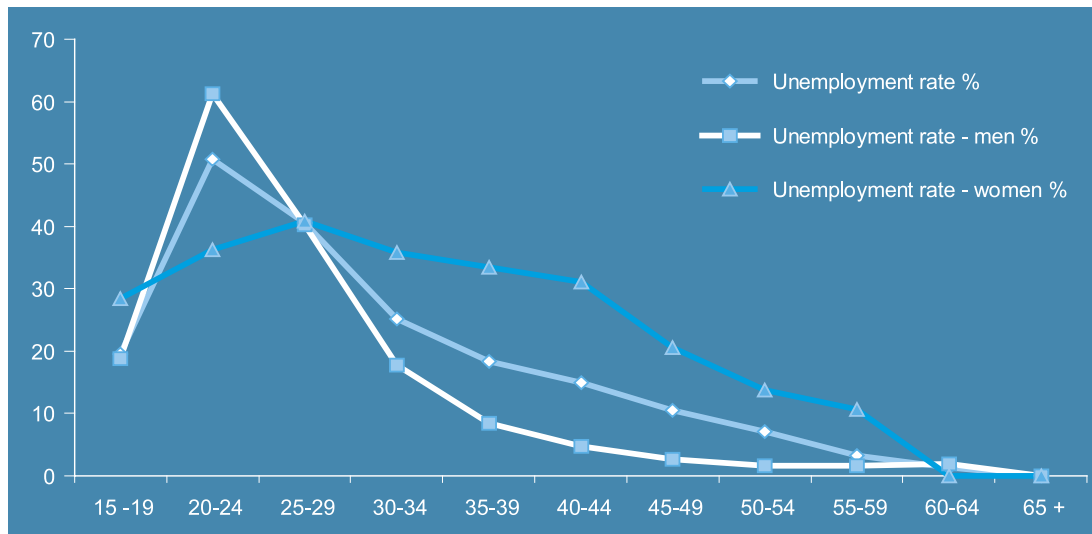
Following deep socio-economic changes in the country during the transition period and due to the economic and social pressures accompanying transition such as unemployment, poverty, emigration, the rural exodus, violence and criminality and the shock of loss of traditional values, many groups in society have become socially vulnerable. Social vulnerability is commonly described as the “risk of marginalisation and social exclusion” which is entwined with, and fed by economic poverty. From the social and gender perspectives, poverty affects young households and those families that have migrated to the major cities disproportionately. Poverty appears to be strongly correlated to the level of unemployment and underemployment, whereas gender differences are identified more clearly in the labour market, which discriminates particularly against women as well as against the active population closer to the retirement age. The most vulnerable social groups at risk include children, elderly, as well as physically and mentally disabled persons.

Table 4: Poverty, living conditions and access to basic services (in %)

	Non-poor	Poor
Water		
No running water	30.4	43.1
Hygiene		
External toilet, without draining pipes,	22.1	45.2
Telephone service		
No telephone at all	39.7	78.6
Electricity (number of interrupted hours)		
More than 12 hours	12.5	16.1
Demography (people in a room)		
More than 3	20.3	48.6
Distance from the health centre		
An hour or more	7.4	14.7

Source: INSTAT-LSMS (ad hoc) 2003

Figure 7: The level of unemployment according to age groups and gender for the year 2003



Source: INSTAT – Statistics Yearbook 2003

Young people in Albania constitute the most vulnerable group due to the fact that they live in poor domestic or household conditions and in large families. Again, these young people are mostly found in the rural areas than in the urban ones or in Tirana. The majority of poor people live in families with 7 or more members. This is important when the fact that this group represents only 17 per cent of the population is taken into account (World Bank and INSTAT 2003). More than 25 per cent of the poor population is under 25 and this age group includes only 33 per cent of the overall population.

Poverty and unemployment

Not unexpectedly, there is a high correlation between the incidence of poverty and the unemployed. The level of unemployment among the poor is almost double compared to other population groups classified as non-poor. The incidence of poverty is higher in those families with an unemployed head of household. Poor families rely mainly on agricultural activity and low paid employment and not on formal sector paid wage employment.

Table 5: Unmet Basic Needs

	Tirana	Urban	Rural	Total
1. Inadequate water and sanitation (*)	0.5	2.6	28.6	17.5
2. Inadequate housing (**)	8.5	6.3	16.5	12.5
3. Inadequate energy supply	1.7	9.0	18.1	13.5
4. Crowding (more than 3 persons/room)	10.3	15.6	18.6	16.7
5. Education (Hh head w/ primary or less)	34.7	47.0	74.8	61.2
Poor (two or more UBN)	11.5	16.6	47.2	33.8
Extreme Poor (three or more UBN)	2.3	3.2	18.3	11.9
Non poor (one or no UBN)	88.5	83.4	52.9	66.2

Source: LSMS 2002, INSTAT

(*) Inadequate water and sanitation: running water and regular toilets both unavailable for water and sanitation to be defined as inadequate

(**) Subjective assessment (house inadequate for living or under construction).

(***) Inadequate energy supply: power shut off for 6 hours or more per day

3.2 UNMET BASIC NEEDS; POVERTY

Disparities identified during the study of “non-monetary” poverty are more complete and qualitative as compared to the disparities expressed through income measures only. Unmet Basic Needs (UBN) which combines several basic vital indicators, expresses poverty in relation to the completion or non-completion of these needs altogether, demonstrates further the high level of poverty complexity in Albania and the almost desperate situation in the rural areas. The rural areas stand in marked contrast to the urban areas. Most indicators are three times higher than in towns and urban areas.

3.3 SELECTED POVERTY PROFILES IN ALBANIA

Poverty, youth and education

Poor individuals tend to live in large families. Around 40 per cent of the poor belong to families with 7 or more members. The incidence of poverty in young people is well above the country’s average. Nearly 50 per cent of the poor in Albania are under the age of 21 years old. The “poor” and “very poor” have a low school enrolment

rate especially in secondary education and an even lower rate in tertiary education. There are major differences with regard to level of continuation of secondary education and beyond. The percentage of individuals that do not continue education after middle school and university education is much higher in the rural areas than in the urban ones. The following graph gives a more visual representation of the growing gap in age-specific enrolment rates for the poor and non-poor and the very high drop-out rate for the poor at around 15-16 years. Although trends in secondary school enrolment rates are a matter of concern across the board, irrespective of socio-economic status, for the poor the magnitude of the drop-out rates between the ages of 14 and 18 are particularly distressing

School dropout rates

This phenomenon reflects the deep social economic changes that have affected families and the very problems faced by the education system. In the educational year 2002-2003, the number of children that left school represented approximately 2 per cent of the overall number of enrolled children. School dropout is mainly a rural

Figure 8: Poverty and education (percentage of cohort in full time education)

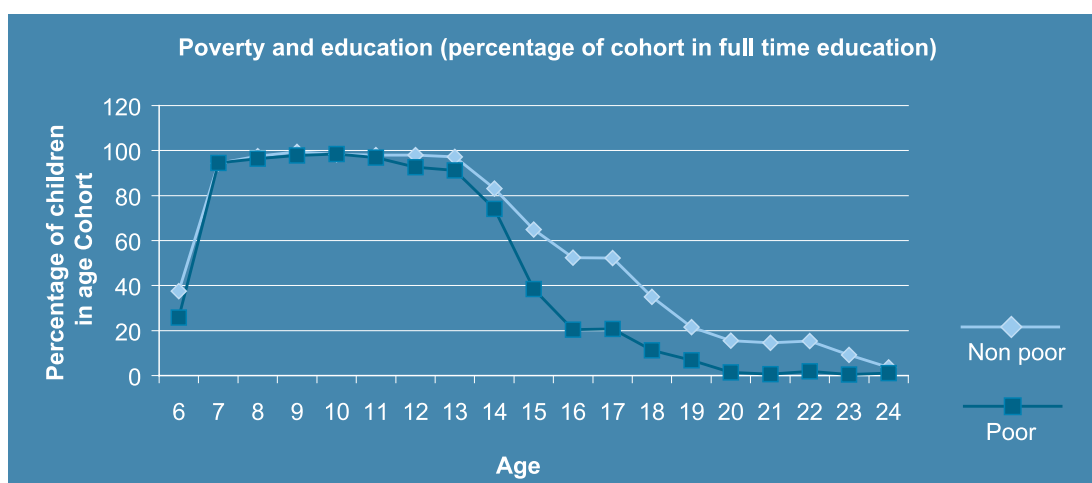


Table 6: School enrolment rates – by category

	Very Poor	Poor	Non-Poor	Total
NER				
Compulsory school	88.6	91.6	94.1	93.3
Secondary school	19.8	19.4	46.7	38.7
GER				
Compulsory school	90.9	97.1	101.1	99.8
Secondary school	21.0	21.6	53.1	43.9

and sub-urban phenomenon, in areas that are overcrowded by migratory movements. Around 35 per cent of children abandon school due to economic reasons, while a fifth of them declared that the poor quality of education as another reason behind this. Another problem feeding the school dropout cases is the number of secluded children for fear of blood feuds. According to data coming from local authorities, around 1450 children are forced to abandon school each year and face seclusion due to blood feuds. This is a phenomenon noted mostly in the regions of Shkodra, Lezha, Kukës and Dibra where it is accompanied by other psychosocial features such as fear, psychological violence and the lack of trust.

Other education indicators illustrate the disparities between the rural and urban areas and are largely a reflection of access to education facilities. For example, less than 3 out of 10 children attend secondary

schools in rural areas compared to 7 in Tirana and 6 in other urban areas. Only one person out of 40 possesses a university degree in the rural areas, compared to 1 in 5 in Tirana and 1 in 10 in the other urban areas. There is strong correlation between education and poverty. School attendance indicators are lower for poor people, and lowest for the very poor. This difference becomes greater in secondary education. 2 out of 10 poor people enrol in secondary education institutions versus 5 out of 10 non-poor people. More than 80 per cent of poor people fail to complete secondary education.

Household budgets of the poor

As indicated in the table below, the rural poor spend the greatest part of their household budget on food (66 per cent) and less for non-food products (21.2 per cent) as compared to the shares respectively of 48 per cent and 25 per cent (of the relatively wealthy) in Tirana.

Table 7: Main budget shares by location

	Tirana	Other urban	Rural	Total
Food	58.5	59.1	66.3	62.8
Non-food	24.8	24.0	21.2	22.6
Utilities	14.6	13.7	10.8	12.3
Education	2.1	3.2	1.7	2.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.4 SOCIAL CATEGORIES AT RISK

The reasons for a raised level of risk to an individual or a family can be ascribed to social, cultural, economic, health and education inequalities as well as in the inability of institutions to provide for basic social needs. Individuals belonging to groups at risk have common and special needs that are either not met or only partially met by government institutions. This often leads to a widening gap between these groups and the rest of the society. During 2003, INSTAT carried some partial and thematic studies to enable a deeper look at the particularities of social issues and especially poverty. Data is still being processed and in addition INSTAT

has foreseen the full repetition of the LSMS in 2005, which will lead to an assessment of the variations of poverty for the medium term period 2002-2005

Children at risk is the social category that is most vulnerable to social problems as a result of the transition that Albania is going through. Due to the lack of public order and security, children have become victims of trafficking and crime. About 5000 children are believed to have been subject to trafficking to the neighbouring countries of Italy and Greece. According to the reported data from the regional structures of the State Social Service³¹, the number of employed and street children is approximately 6700.

BOX 9: The most vulnerable groups in Albania²⁸

Vulnerable Children – children (0 – 14 years) biological and social orphans living with a single parent, beggars, those that work at a very young age, and those that abandon school consist approximately 5.7 per cent of all the children.

Vulnerable Youth – unemployed youth (14 – 25 years old), drug and alcohol users, with criminal records that amount to 22.8 per cent of the total number of young people in some areas. This phenomenon is observed more notably in the regions of Kukës, Shkodër, Lezhë, Berat, Tiranë and Gjirokastrë.

Vulnerable Women – Divorced women, female heads of household, physically or sexually abused women, or victims of prostitution, constitute up to 5.2 per cent of the overall number of women in Albania

Mentally and physically disabled – amount up to 1.4 per cent of the overall population.

Vulnerable elderly people – Elderly men and women living on their own, individuals who are abandoned and with minimal incomes, and unable to look after themselves amount up to 12.7 per cent of the senior citizens in some regions of the country.

Roma and Egyptian children – Roma and Egyptians have fewer opportunities for formal employment than the majority population. Their household incomes are less than half of Albanian urban household incomes at the national level,²⁹ and expenditures are primarily for food. Poverty is the biggest barrier to the education of Roma and Egyptian children. Families cannot afford to pay for school books/supplies, nor to feed and clothe children sufficiently for them to attend school. For instance, 67 per cent of Roma and 60 per cent of Egyptian families cannot afford the costs of books and school supplies.³⁰

²⁸ "Needs assessment and social circumstances analysis for services towards vulnerable groups" carried out by the Social Service Delivery Project, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs 2002-2003. A national map of social needs distribution was compiled based on this data, serves as the foundation for the restructuring of the entire social services and support system.

²⁹ The average household income for urban households at the national level is 37,232 lekë [US\$286] (INSTAT, 2003). Reliable statistical data is unavailable for average household income for all, urban and non-urban, households at the national level.

³⁰ Hermine De Soto, Ilir Gedeshi, Sabine Beddies, and Daniel Perez: Roma and Egyptians in Albania:

From Social Exclusion to Social Inclusion, June 2003

³¹ State Social Service; administrative data reported from the social protection sections of municipalities and communes.

Table 8: Categories of children at risk at the national level³²

Orphan children in families	Orphans in institutions	Children that have abandoned school	Street children	Children in emigration	Secluded children	Working children
16.000	350	12.000	1.979	5.000	1.450	4.700

Source: State Social Service – Social database January 2003

Young people constitute the largest and poorest social category in Albania. Young people in Albania constitute the most vulnerable group due to the fact that they live in poor domestic or household conditions and in large families. The majority of young poor people live in families with 7 or more members. More than 25 per cent of the poor is under 25 and this age group includes only 33 per cent of the overall population.

Elderly people are considered to be one of the most vulnerable groups with pensions based low incomes and insufficient access to basic health services. The marginalisation of this social category is affected not only by insufficient incomes, poverty and health problems but also by the risk of social abandonment and loneliness. While the popular perception is that elderly people are the most vulnerable social group by poverty in Albania, only 10 per cent of the poor population is 60 years old and above. Unlike young people that are unemployed (see the section on unemployment) or are dependent on their families, retired people have at least some sort of income (state guaranteed pension) that results from the comprehensive employment policy for both men and women adopted during the past years of communism.

Another category at risk are the **disabled people** who are born with their condition or acquire it prior to turning 21 years old. The number of disabled people in 2003 was approximately 46,000 the majority of whom

A Cigarette seller's battle with poverty

by Luljeta Progni

Leter Lika does not know what poverty is because he has never seen anything else better to compare it against. Every morning Lika and his elder brother rise and with a carton of cigarettes, travel to the populated center of Tirana in the hope of selling enough cigarette packs to make 500 lek that day. Lika is one of an estimated 100 children who sell cigarettes in Tirana. They are primarily newcomers from extremely poor families who live in the city's suburbs, with parents who either have day jobs or are unemployed. Their families are generally large; the women do not work, mainly due to the conservative tradition. The men are responsible for working and for bringing money into the home. "My father does not have work all the time, and he earns very little money," Leter says. Like his peers, Leter does not go to school very often. "I don't study much but my grades are not bad. My friends do not go to school, but for one." He says he will go on selling cigarettes until his father makes enough money to provide for the family. At 7 p.m., it is time for him to go back home. "My brother is older, and he makes more money than I do," he says, box closed, waiting for the bus to come and pick him.

live in the countryside with poor or even no services for this category of people. There are approximately 12 000 **disabled children** in Albania and state institutions provide support services to only 9,5 per cent of them.

Roma and Egyptian children are the most vulnerable to risks. The average number of years in education for Roma children is approximately 4.2 whereas for Egyptian children it is about 5.05. 64 per cent of Roma and 24 per cent of Egyptians aged 7-20 years old are illiterate, while 40 per cent of Roma and 11.3 per cent of Egyptians aged 20-40, are illiterate. The biggest barrier to educa-

³² According to data from the Regional Offices of State Social Services – January 2003

tion is that poverty stricken families cannot afford to pay for school books/supplies, nor to feed and clothe children sufficiently for them to attend school. For instance, 67 per cent of Roma and 60 per cent of Egyptian families cannot afford the costs of books and school supplies.

Poor families and social assistance

The formal social support system for poor families comprises economic assistance with payments of around 2170-3188 Leke per month per family. These payments are still insufficient to allow these families to escape the income poverty trap (see table 9).

Ethnicity and poverty is not a totally distinguishable factor in the Albania society. However, among minorities (which are estimated up to 2 per cent of the population) the **Roma and Egyptian minorities** constitute the majority of cases in marginalised social categories. Apart from lacking access to several services (as do the majority of the population), these ethnic minorities are characterised by having a low level of edu-

cation which leads to high unemployment rates, deficiencies in housing, as well as the existence of infectious diseases.

3.5 OTHER DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY

Poverty and inequalities in health

Albania inherited from communism a health care system based on central state finances that aimed to achieve complete geographical coverage (Gjonça, E. and Gjonça, A., 2000). The system concentrated mainly on primary health care and led to a certain success in generally improving the average life expectancy, as well as improving infant and children mortality rates. Recent reforms have not led to a clear improvement in the availability and affordability of health care for the poorest groups in society. Poor people generally face worse health conditions as compared to the non-poor. The distinction between 20 per cent of the richest people and 20 per cent of the poorest ones reveals that the population in the bottom share of

Table 9: Economic assistance

Year - 2003	Total	Beneficiaries of the partial economic assistance	Beneficiaries of the full economic assistance	% of population
Families receiving economic assistance	130,039	80,204	49,835	19,06%
Municipalities	55,424	8,317	47,107	17,9 %
Communes	74,615	71,887	2,728	20,17%

Source: State Social Services – Statistical Bulletin 2003

Table 10: Self-assessment levels of health and poverty

Inequality (as a poverty indicator) based on consume	Self-assessment health					Total
	Very Good	Good	Average	Very Poor	Poor	
Poorest 20%	28,3	40,3	17,4	11,2	2,8	100
Richest 20%	38,4	41,9	13,5	5,5	0,7	100

Source: INSTAT, 2004

the general consumers feature worse health conditions compared to the 20 per cent at the other end.

In addition, the typologies of illnesses reflect the poverty level in the various groups of the population. Therefore, when chronic diseases are observed, non-poor people appear to suffer more from the so-called welfare diseases (cardiovascular illnesses), whereas the poor suffer more from poverty-related illnesses (such as respiratory illnesses).

While, nearly half of Albanians encounter difficulties in affording health care (45,1 per cent), inequalities between the poor and non-poor is visible when the possibility for accessing the health service is scrutinised. Inequality is not captured by the visits to the public outpatient clinics; it is rather measured by the level of access to a doctor. Hence, the share of the people from the richest 20 per cent that do visit a private doctor is 11,9 per cent whereas the share for the poorest 20 per cent is only 4,9 per cent.

Mortality and causes of mortality

Mortality rates stand at 5.1 per 1000 and this level has not changed much during the past 10 years. However, there are changes with respect to the structure of causes of

mortality. Deaths following blood circulation illnesses, cancer and injuries are three main groups of causes leading to three quarters of the overall number of deaths. The treatment of such groups of illnesses has high financial costs for the state, and families, affecting the living standards of the concerned families.

Illnesses from infectious diseases

Acute respiratory diseases are the most common followed by gastrointestinal diseases. Albania went through a cholera epidemic in 1994 and an outbreak of polio during 1996. HIV cases have multiplied, and syphilis has reappeared and is on the increase. Despite the decline in reported illnesses, Albania continues to be a high prevalence country for Hepatitis A and B. The same is the case for gastrointestinal diseases. WHO certified Albania in 2002 as a country free of polio, while other jab preventable diseases like measles and diphtheria are barely reported.

Figure 9: Child Mortality (per 1000 births)

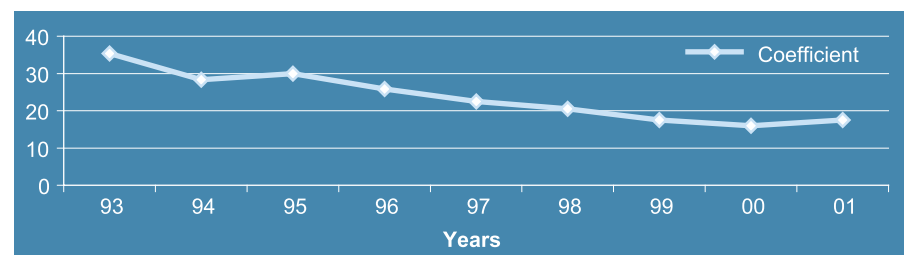


Table 11: Prenatal care

	Specialised	Not specialized	No care
Urban area	95.9	2.0	2.1
Tirana	93.9	6.1	0
Other urban area	96.7	0.3	2.9
Rural area	87.8	2.8	9.4
Tirana	93.9	6.1	0
Coastal area	92.1	0	7.9
Central area	92.6	2.8	4.7
Mountainous area	78.4	4.0	17.6
Total	90.6	2.5	6.9

3.6 POVERTY AND ACCESS TO ASSETS – PRIVATE AND PUBLIC³⁴

Poverty and inequalities of access to the infrastructure of basic services

While income poverty in Albania is high, the status of poverty related to the state of physical infrastructure and of service provision is even worse. Albanians lack basic services and the inequality in their provision has become even more profound. Large areas of the country suffer from lengthy shortages of water supply. While less than half of the families have access to continuous running water, the rest of the households enjoy on average only 6 hours of daily water supply. As it can be expected, poor households suffer the most. The status of power supplies has deteriorated since 1990 with 85,7 per cent of households suffering from some sort of power cuts. The average of daily power shortages is approximately 8 hours.

The state of buildings and houses in Albania

Despite the construction boom during the 90's which led to the construction of 25 per cent of the entire number of buildings, the current situation shows that there are serious housing deficiencies in the country. Overpopulation is a common phenomenon with on average of 1,9 persons sharing one room.

Urban-rural and regional disparities in housing

The poorest families live in smaller houses. 18,5 per cent of the poorest families live in houses with a surface area of 40 square meters or less, compared to 11,7 per cent of the non-poor population living in the same housing conditions. On the other hand, only 8,5 per cent of the poor people live in

housing conditions with more than 100 m² compared to 18 per cent of the non-poor. It is interesting to point out that people living in the more prosperous regions such as Tirana live in houses with living conditions significantly better than in other areas of the country.

Access to water supply

Water supply has always been problematic in Albania but the situation has deteriorated even further recently due not only to an increase of demand for water supply but also as a direct consequence of low investments in the water supplies infrastructure dating back to the communist period. Only 53,1 per cent of the Albanian population has access to in-house running water and 16 percent has outside access. The percentage of the population that has no access to running water is still very high, and stands at the level of 30 per cent. This lack of investment has been accompanied by the bad management of existing resources, this has created a problematic situation where large areas of the country suffer lengthy shortages of water. Only 47% of the population has continuous running water during the day, whereas the rest of the population enjoys only 6 hours of daily water supplies.

Electricity power and heating

The power sector in Albania is facing a crisis. While demand is on the rise, the resources to deal with this demand have not changed. Even the existing resources have not been administered well during this period. This situation has turned the issue of power supply into one of the most sharp and acute problems that Albanian society is facing nowadays. 85,7 per cent of households experience some sort of electricity shortage, whereas 71,5 per cent of them have daily

³⁴For more information please refer to the Living Conditions and Inequalities in Albania, INSTAT 2004. Based on Population and Housing Census 2001.

power interruptions. The average daily power supply has been 6-8 hours. The same picture is apparent from analysis of heating data. Central heating has been in the past, and continues to be almost non-existent in Albania. The heating situation did not improve even after the 90's. Therefore, 99,9 per cent of Albanians do not have access to any sort of central heating. The majority of the population, around 58,1 per cent, use wood stoves for heating, with gas and electricity heating following suit with respectively 25,4 per cent and 13,5 per cent.

Gender equality – a priority of state policies

Special contribution by Nora Malaj, Chairperson,
Committee for Equal Opportunities

Gender equality is a necessity for the development of Albanian society and, at the same time, it is also one of the top priorities of the Millennium Development Goals. In this light, the National Human Development Report for Albania on pro-poor and pro-women policies places a strong emphasis on women as an indispensable and decisive force in the country. The report focuses on the elaboration and implementation of inclusive, concrete pro-women programmes where women can play a vital role as important partners.

Women development and empowerment, which is the mission of the Commission on Equal Opportunities, can only be realized with ambitious projects and by intensifying activities. This will consequently lead towards the strengthening of institutional mechanisms that are meant to ensure gender equality and the application of gender inclusive policies in all sectors. Definitively, the concept of gender equality should be introduced as a new approach, which aims at the institutionalization of gender issues. This is a technical and political process that requires changes in both the organizational culture and mentality.

From this point of view, gender inclusive policies require the mainstreaming of gender policy frameworks at all the levels and phases of policymaking. The end result of this process is the important cooperation between men and women, leading to the improvement of all indicators of welfare and living conditions.

The pro-women strategy provided in this report also underlines the efficient use of human resources and good governance through inclusive and legitimate policies. It aims to include the gender component in all domains of life and to ensure equality in political representation, the health sector, increased access to employment policies, as well as in developing a solid market for the economic empowerment of women as a necessary precursor to economic development.

Therefore, the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals can only be achieved through substantial actions, fulfilling the government of Albania's national and international commitments to ensure gender equality and the empowerment of women in Albania.

- INTRODUCTION
- 4.1 THE LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS
- 4.2 GENDER AND HEALTH
- 4.3 THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF ALBANIAN WOMEN
- 4.4 GENDER AND POVERTY
- 4.5 GENDER AND EDUCATION
- 4.6 ALBANIAN WOMEN AND DECISION MAKING
- 4.7 WOMEN AND MIGRATION
- 4.8 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN
- 4.9 WOMEN AND CRIME
- 4.10 TRAFFICKING AND PROSTITUTION OF ALBANIAN WOMEN AND GIRLS
- 4.11 THE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT IN ALBANIA

INTRODUCTION

The gender dimension of development in Albania is now acknowledged to be significant from a number of standpoints. First, women are among the largest component of the poverty groups in the country; secondly the economic and social status of women in society has not changed much over the past two decades despite intensive efforts by the government and civil society to make a difference. This chapter of the report documents the progress made in recent years on women's issues and the essential linkages between gender and development.

In recent years, significant progress has been made in developing the national legislation to promote the protection of women's rights as basic human rights, and foster equality between men and women in economic and public life. The Albanian government has legally sanctioned this equality between men and women as a subject of law, and women now enjoy equal treatment while having equal rights and obligations. As far as international documents are concerned, the Constitution, in Article 122, Section 2, states expressly the supremacy of ratified acts over domestic laws that are at variance with these acts or agreements. However, a lack of political mechanisms to effectively enforce existing laws has resulted in drastic gender inequality, which directly affects the efficiency of the process of economic development, democratisation and political stability. Gender stereotypes and traditional mentalities preserve the structural inequality between men and women and the unequal power relations between them.

4.1 THE LEGAL and INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK of WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Legislation on women's rights

Today, with the adoption of the new Family Code which is bringing about crucial differences, Albania is going through a transitional period as concerns the legal norms of the family law. Albanian legislation has sanctioned gender equality in conformity with advanced democratic standards. The main laws contain references to the rights of women, such as:

- 1 –**The Albanian Constitution** (1998) the Article 18 states that all citizens are equal before the law and confirms the principle of non-discrimination on the grounds of gender, race, religion, ethnicity, language, political, religious or philosophical beliefs, economic, educational or social status.
- 2 –**The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)**, signed in 1993 by the Albanian Government. In the Article 11, it is stated that, “The countries, which has approved CEDAW, should take the necessary measures in order to ensure equal rights, in the name of the equality between women and men”.
- 3 –**The Civil Code** (last approved on 03.05.2001, No. 8781) recognises equal rights for women in all legal processes, such as the right to take someone to court or be tried by court of law.
- 4 –**The Penal Code** (approved on 21.03.1995, No. 7905) protects the equality of women and men in all areas of life, health, property and dignity. Women get the same sentences as men when they commit the same crimes.
- 5 –**The Labour Code** (last approval on 29.07.2003, No. 9125) recognises equal rights of work between men and women,

for protection at work, for paid vacations and equal pay. The formulation of the articles of the Labour Code is based on international labour standards; so, the Family Code recognizes the rights of men and women to be free to choose to marry or divorce, as well as their reciprocal rights and obligations in the family for upbringing and educating their children.

6 -**The Family Code** (approved on 08.05.2003, No. 9062) recognizes the rights of women and men to be free to choose to marry or divorce, as well as their reciprocal rights and obligations in the family for upbringing and educating their children.

7 - **The Law on Gender Equality** (approved on 01.07.2004, No. 9198) fulfils the legal framework in the terms of equal rights between women and men.

This law consists of placing both sexes in equal position relating to the employment, education, decision-making process, against discrimination and sexual harassments. Beside this, the law foresees legal punishment in case of infraction. According to the Inter-parliamentary Union's World Classification, Albania is categorized in the 103rd place through 183 countries regarding women's seats in the Parliament.³⁵

Institutional framework

The institutional mechanisms for women's development in Albania have evolved over the years, and are reflected in the attention the Albanian government has paid to women's problems and policies it has undertaken and implemented.³⁶ Among these are the following initiatives:

1992 The sector "Woman and Family" at the Ministry of Labour, Emigration, and the Politically Persecuted;

1994 The directorate "Woman and Family" at the Ministry of Labour, Emigration, and the Politically Persecuted;

1996 A State Secretariat, at the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports;

1997 The directorate "Woman and Family" at the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Woman;

1998 The Committee "Woman and Family" as a central institution, under the Council of Ministers, by the Decision No.415, 01.07.1998;

2001 By the Decision of the Council of Ministers, the "Woman and Family" Committee was given the name of "The Committee for Equal Opportunities".

One of the paradoxes of the Albanian society during this period of transition is the decline of the status of the Committee for Equal Opportunities. From being under the Council of Ministers, it became an institution under the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs (by the Council of Ministers' Decision N0.59, 23.01.2003). Indeed, this demotion in status and the limited resources of this institution will not create opportunities for it to play its major role in developing and implementing gender policies in Albania.

The platform of the Albanian government on the equality between men and women for the period 2002-2005⁴¹ has the following major directions: (1) gender equality in power and decision making; (2) economic

³⁵According to the information provided by <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm> (situation of 30 November 2004). Last accessed February 11th 2005.

³⁶Initial, and first, periodical national report on the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Woman. The Committee for Equal Opportunities, financed by OSCE – Presence in Albania, Tiranë: Ilar, May 2002, p. 20.

³⁷Excerpts from the Government Platform on the Equality between Man and Woman, the Committee for Equal Opportunities, 2002-2005.

and social affairs; (3) health and (4) education. One of the main objectives of this platform is to pay special attention women in rural areas, who are more discriminated against and almost aloof from the political and social life of the country because of the existing prejudices, legacy and low educational level. The accumulation of statistical data on women's status and trends and periodic publication and dissemination of information based on gender issues is an important step in building social policies to achieve gender equality.

4.2 GENDER AND HEALTH

Health problems are not simply related to physical inability or disability or the normal functioning of the human body. Health is a matter of the total individual well-being and it is deeply affected by psychological and social factors. This is why an analysis of the health aspects of gender and women's issues should examine human health along with the institutions, traditions, and customs that play an essential role in defining aspects such as equal health care, and other factors that bring about health problems.

Mother's Health

Albania is one of the 183 countries that have adopted the 1994 Cairo Conference Action Plan for the International Development of Population, which places women at the centre of reproductive health services with primary health care.³⁸ Stemming from this, Albania has developed a series of strategic documents, such as the National Strategy of the Health Care System, the Policy for Primary Health Care, and the NSSD,

with a focus primarily on improving the health of mother and child. Indeed, one of the objectives of the Millennium Development Goals (Goal 5) is "The reduction of maternal mortality by 75% within the 1990-2015 period."³⁹

Maternal Mortality

Although maternal mortality (MMR) in Albania in 2000 was 50 per cent lower than in 1990, compared with other European countries it is still high.⁴⁰ From 1990, because of the lack of statistical data, especially with regard to specific regions, fluctuations in maternal mortality have not yet found a definite explanation. Nevertheless, these fluctuations appear to be different in specific areas. This demonstrates that maternal mortality is connected to a series of economic, social, cultural and psychological factors. In Tropojë, Has, and Kukës (the poorest regions of Albania) maternal mortality is much higher than the country average.⁴¹ Given that the Albanian system of vital statistics reporting records only two categories of data – deaths during childbirth and abortions⁴² it is probable that the identified causes such as abortions, haemorrhage, epilepsy, complications from anaesthesia and infections may not be the only ones causing maternal mortality.

Factors bearing on MMR

The quality of services prior to, during and after childbirth is an important factor in the efforts to reduce and prevent maternal mortality. According to a recent poll, the problem of access to and availability of health care centres is perceived to be very difficult in rural areas. Some people have

³⁸Human Development Promotion Center (HDPC), "Improving Mother's Health". In: The Albanian Response to the Millennium Development Goals Prepared for the United Nations' System in Albania from the Human Development Promotion Center by Dr. Ylli Cabiri and Dr. Lindita Xhillari (Tiranë, May 2002), 34.

³⁹Ibid.

⁴⁰Ibid.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Ibid, p. 35

to travel 20 km or more to reach a health centre in which one nurse alone is available. At the same time, some physicians or nurses need to spend much travel time to reach these centres. On the other hand, in certain areas of the country maternal mortality is very low. Specifically, maternal deaths in the region of Fier almost nil. This fact is due in part to the quality of midwives and the legalisation of abortion. Meanwhile, the number of abortions in the district of Fier is high as compared to other regions of the country. In 2000, the district of Fier ranked second (following Tirana) in the national level.⁴³ The lack of reliable data on maternal mortality restricts the analysis of the causes and their specificities on a regional basis and the response required in the form of specific policies and programs. Obviously, economic, social and cultural factors varies from rural areas to urban ones, but access to and opportunity for receiving health care, the availability and location of the services and the quality of the services and care are particularly important for the maternal and women's health in general.

Abortion

During the last years of transition, the number of abortions in Albania has varied greatly. The Legalisation of abortion has created an opportunity for Albanian women and girls to have increasing control over their lives and bodies. However the effect of the growing number of abortions, has directed attention to the need for improving family planning policies and programmes. Abortion continues to be considered a commonplace method of family planning. The causes of abortion, include economic fac-

tors such as; degree of poverty; unemployment; number of children; health reasons, etc. The incidence of abortions is also related to whether the child to be expected is a girl. Traditionally, Albanian families have favoured boys over girls for two main reasons: the inheritance of the family name, and the prospect of boys growing up to become breadwinners.

At the regional level, the lowest number of abortions in the district of Fier was recorded in 1990 and the highest in 1993.⁴⁴ In this same district, official figures show a decline in recent years. These indexes are questionable as the number of abortions carried out in private which are unreported, is estimated to be increasing.⁴⁵

Family planning and the birth rate

The birth rate in Albania is high compared to those of other European countries, but is steadily declining.⁴⁶ Pro-birth policies applied by the socialist government boosted the birth rate prior to 1990, but it has since fallen drastically. The average number of children born in 1960 was 6.5; in 1989 it fell to 3, and later, in 1995, it was 2.7.⁴⁷ Apart from the changes in pro-birth policies applied prior to the 1990s, a number of other factors have affected the fall in the birth rates, notably the deep political, economic and social changes that began in the 1990s. These changes include policies and programmes that relate to family planning, such as the growing number of abortions as a result of its legalisation, the delay in getting married for girls (more in urban areas than in rural ones), deteriorating standards of living, the increased engagement

⁴³ Fier, Regional Development Strategy – Aligned with National Development and Millennium Development Goals, Connecting people to a common and better future, September 2003.

⁴⁴ Ibid, p. 34

⁴⁵ Ibid, p. 34

⁴⁶ The Center for Human Development, the effects of social changes in woman's status, financed by SNV. Tiranë, 2000, p. 31.

⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 32.

of women in the labour market, and their choices to secure a career, etc.

The decline in the number of births in general, particularly in urban areas relates to the fact that women prefer to have fewer children because of the difficult economic conditions, the easing of women's family responsibilities, the decline in the number of marriages, and the use of contraceptive methods.

Reduction in family size

The change in birth rates has also led to a change in the family structure. In 1960 the average number of the members of a family nationwide was 5.8, in 1997 it had dropped to 3.4.⁴⁸ The Legalisation of abortions and lower birth rates has had a great impact on the position and status of the Albanian woman within the family and community. This change is noticeable in urban areas, specifically in the biggest cities, while in rural areas, the decision to have a baby and the decision to use contraceptive methods is generally taken by the husband. A great number of women, mostly in rural areas, claim they don't use contraceptive methods for family planning, as their spouses don't allow them.

Infant Mortality

Infant mortality, as with maternal mortality, has been in decline as a result of a number of factors. Health policies and services offered by state institutions and non-profit organizations have led to a decrease in the infant mortality rates. From the data supplied by INSTAT, infant mortality in the districts of Fier and Lushnjë recently has decreased.⁴⁹ In rural areas, the level of infant mortality tends to be higher because

of a lack of access to health services, and the low level of information on health matters. Setting up and improving health care centres for mothers and children and maternity hospitals, especially in rural areas, where the ratio of infantile deaths is higher, is one of the ways to improve the situation.

Maternity Leave

Maternity leave plays an important role in lessening the burden and responsibilities within the family. In the postnatal period women are entitled to continue to be paid and so they can commit themselves to raising the child. Maternity leave in Albania lasts 365 days and women can be paid up to 50-80 per cent of their wages during this time. This, of course, is only applicable to state institutions. However, for private businesses or enterprises, this practice is not generally applied. More often women and girls are employed without a work contract and so they lose their jobs either because of their maternity leave, or because they leave their work to look after their children. Even though Albanian legislation provides for maternity leave to be taken by either parent, it has never happened that a father stays at home with his child for a period of time. This is a reflection of the gender stereotyping according to which mothers alone, can and should, take care of their children.

4.3 THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF ALBANIAN WOMEN

Employment and Unemployment

By late 1989, the level of employment of women in Albania was among the best in Europe but after the 1990s reforms, women and girls were the first to lose their jobs. Factories and plants, where women and girls made

⁴⁸ The Center for Human Development, The effects of social changes in woman's status, financed by SNV. Tiranë, 2000, p. 34.

⁴⁹ Fier, Regional Development Strategy – Aligned with National Development and Millennium Development Goals, Connecting people to a common and better future, September 2003.

up the greatest percentage of the workforce were closed due to their inefficiency and consequently women's unemployment increased rapidly. According to the most recent publication "Women and Men 2003" (by INSTAT), the employed labour force amounts to 926,000, or to 51 per cent of the economically active population.⁵¹ The participation of women and girls in the labour market is approximately 39.1 per cent of all employed as compared to the participation of men, which is 62.6 per cent.⁵² This difference in the employment rates between men and women is typical of all age groups.

Some regional data on women's employment

Not surprisingly there are significant regional variations in the male-female participation rates. According to the Regional Development Strategy for the district of Fier, 74.4 per cent of the employed are women and girls. The factors affecting this high percentage, include, the high level of emigration of men and boys, and the diversification of the labour market into the household service sectors where women are preferred as household workers/servants. However, this high figure disguises the fact that gender discrimination with relation to access the more remunerative jobs remains a problem and is reflected in the average wages of women and man.

Gender Pay Gap

Information on the ratios of pay between men and women (INSTAT) show that the wages of women in the non-agricultural sector were about 27 per cent lower than those of men, and the difference was greater in the private non-agricultural sector as compared to the state sector. This difference is evident

BOX 10: Health and the family in KUKES

The birth rate per capita in Kukës is the highest in the whole country (close to 50 per cent higher than in Tirana). Nevertheless, despite the high number of births in the district, only two consulting rooms for pregnant women are available there, one in Krumë and the other in Tropojë. In the town of Bajram Curri there are no specialised services for mothers. The National Action Platform to Improve the Status of Woman in Albania reveals gross discrimination in favour of male children in terms of medical treatment and nourishment. The Institute for the Implementation of Gender Policies, in a survey conducted by the Ministry of Health in Kukës in 1992, recorded far higher number of deaths of female infants and a higher proportion of male infants receiving intensive medical care.

A UNICEF survey in 1997 emphasises that girls up to the age of 3 are more exposed to malnourishment than boys. This again is due to gender stereotypes in which boys must be fed better, they must be stronger because they have to work harder and to provide for their families in the future. As far as the number of abortions performed, the district of Kukës falls below the country's average. This may be as a result of the failure to report the actual number of cases. Statistics on use of contraceptives are not available. According to the Development Strategy for the district of Kukës the number of pregnancies watched over by specialized physicians, is higher than the national average.⁵⁰

for all ages and almost in all branches of the economy. Gender pay gap is slightly lower in the educational branches and public administration, which is attributed to the fact that the state sector is dominant in these branches.⁵³

Gender discrimination in hiring practices and at work

Apart from gender discrimination, age discrimination is another phenomenon that affects job opportunities for women and girls. The possibility of women at reproductive age becoming pregnant means that these women are not favoured workers. Likewise, women above the age of 35 are not favoured.

⁵⁰ Kukës MDG RDS.

⁵¹ INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania- 2003, Tiranë 2004.

⁵² Ibid. p. 12.

⁵³ Women and men in Albania, INSTAT, 2003, Tirana 2004 p. 7.

Table 12: The extent of registered unemployment (in %) – men and women

	Year		
	2001	2002	2003
Rate of unemployment	16.4	15.8	15.0 ⁵⁴
Women	19.9	19.1	(the data is under processing)
Men	14.2	13.6	

Source: "Women and Men in Albania 2003". Tiranë 2004, p. 7.

In spite of the existing legal regulations on equal rights that the Constitution grants to women and men, job announcements that appear in the daily press do denote signs of gender and age discrimination. In 1997, 70 per cent of women hired worked in the agricultural sector, in family farms; 20 per cent worked in the public sector and 10 per cent in the private sector.⁵⁵

According to INSTAT (1998), in its Polls on the Family Living Conditions, the average wages of women in all sectors and all levels were only 70 per cent of those of men, which is due to their lower positions in the hierarchical structures.⁵⁶ A UNICEF report shows that in 2000 approximately 60 per cent of employers preferred to hire men.⁵⁷ This preference for employing men can also be connected to the opening of new sectors, such as that of construction (male dominated work force), but also to the fact that women are considered as less-efficient at work. In the private agricultural sector, local administration and many other areas, while the same general pattern of gender discrimination emerges, there are some promising signs. For example, women now make up 40 per cent of those employed in ministries and other high state institutions, mainly at the level of specialists. However, women occupy a smaller

number of positions in their capacity as head of departments and other higher levels. It is noteworthy to mention that the Tirana City Hall is one of the models that promotes and supports the work of, and the management by women and girls.⁵⁸

Women and girls in business and management

The involvement of women and girls working in private businesses is still low. In spite of an increasing number of women running a business, the percentage is also low. Out of the total number of managers working in the private sector in 1994, 1996 and 1997, women and girls represented only 21 per cent, 16.8 per cent and 18 per cent of them respectively. By the end of 1994, women managers running private businesses accounted for 21%, while men managers were 79%.⁵⁹ In 1996, the ratio was 16.8 per cent and 83.2 per cent accordingly; while in 1997 the participation was 18 per cent for women and 82 per cent for men. In 1998, the number of registered private businesses was estimated to be 56,453, of which 9902 were run by women, that is 17.5 per cent by women and 82.5 per cent by men respectively. Data drawn from INSTAT (2003), shows that the number of women running private businesses is still very low. Only 17 per cent of the total number of pri-

⁵⁴ According to the answer by INSTAT to the request for information from the Woman's Center (Protoc. No. 196, dated 03.04.2004).

⁵⁵ The Center for the Law and Policies on Reproduction, Women of the World, NY-USA, 2000

⁵⁶ INSTAT, Living Conditions Survey, Oct. 1998. This figure shows only of the fact that women have lower job positions than men, but there is no difference in pay for the same job.

⁵⁷ UNICEFF, MICS Report, Dec. 2000.

⁵⁸ Ibid., p. 8.

⁵⁹ Milano Municipality, Foreign Relations Sector, "Woman's Business in Albania", a study conducted in the framework of the project: "Fostering Woman's Business in Albania", (Woman's Center, International Training Center and Training Activities for Women, Italy, p.12.

vate business managers are women, and the greatest number of the registered businesses run by women is concentrated in Tiranë (31 per cent), Durrës (8.7 per cent), Elbasan (6.2 per cent), Lushnjë (3.5 per cent) etc. 85 per cent of the businesses run by women are located in urban areas and 15 per cent of them in rural areas.⁶⁰

Women's access to financial services and credit

Data on bank credits given to women in the period 1999-2000 is almost non-existent.⁶² Out of 200 applicants for loans to the Albanian Commercial Bank, only 5 of them, or 2.5 per cent of applicants, were women.⁶³ Women entrepreneurs, or women seeking to create a business do not receive any special, direct or indirect, aid from the government. State institutions do not provide any policy of encouragement for women's enterprises. Women have scarcely any ties with the banking system, either in receiving a bank credits and carrying out transactions dealing with their operations in the business field, or simply in keeping there their savings. The exist-

ing associations of entrepreneurial women are underdeveloped and there is a lack of cooperation between them. Women, however, have begun to feel the need for cooperation and involvement in these organisations.⁶⁴

4.4 GENDER AND POVERTY

Gender and poverty – some features

In Albania as elsewhere, poverty produces different effects on women and men. In most cases women have to balance their roles: the productive, social reproductive and community roles. Women's responsibilities often restrict their opportunities to look for jobs and to take an active part in the community. The conclusions drawn from the LSMS 2002⁶⁵ show that while the average consumption of a family is approximately 37.500 Leke per month. In a family whose head is a woman, the average monthly consumption is about 23,300 Leke. According to these results, the average consumption in families headed by women is lower than in families headed by men.⁶⁶

Table 13: Women' businesses in various sectors⁶¹

Kind of Business	1996				1998			
	Total		Women		Total		Women	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture	1,466	2.5	31	0.3	1,241	2.2	32	0.3
Indy/agribusiness	5,231	9.1	560	5.8	5,674	10	606	6.1
Construction	1,417	2.5	93	1	1,905	3.4	124	1.2
Trade	30,750	53.3	6,501	67.2	29,370	52	6,415	65
Transport	9,117	15.9	150	1.6	8,199	14.5	157	1.6
Services	9,732	16.9	2,342	24.4	10,042	17.8	2,564	26
Total	57,712	100	9,677	100	56,453	100	9,902	100

Source: INSTAT (Sept. 1996, March 1999)

⁶⁰ Ibid., p.30

⁶¹ Ibid., p. 13.

⁶² Katro, Jeta & Ass.Prof. Selimi, Yllka, "Gender and the economic and political status of women in Albania", Tirana, June 2001, p. 29.

⁶³ Ibid., p. 31.

⁶⁴ A National Study on Albanian Women in Business, The Association of Professional and Entrepreneurial Women . Tiranë, 1997.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania, 2003, p. 6.

The table 14 below shows the gap index existing in the families headed by men is however higher than for women.

Feminisation of Poverty

While the official statistics on household poverty do not allow a clear picture of the extent of women's poverty to emerge, there are some positive initiatives and experiences in the agricultural field. These experiences include pilot projects to give small loans to women who have set up successful savings and loans union; the practice of employing women through projects that promote employment; and women focused rural credit projects in conjunction with savings and loan schemes.

Women in rural areas

It is difficult to delineate a full and precise picture of the economic status and the legal rights of rural women, in the absence of definite statistical data on the role of women in the agricultural economy. Official statistics are weak on issues in relation to gender identity, such as: access to credit programs and financial institutions; the ratio of self-employed women to women as managers of non-agricultural activities; the gender profile of rural poverty, etc.

Women's roles and status in agriculture depends on a number of factors, the most important being related to the size of the farm. In relatively well-developed farms, oriented mainly towards market production, the man

plays the lead role in managing and marketing activities, with women and children involved in productive chores and servicing activities. In middle-sized farms, which produce mainly for the needs of the family and partly for the market, usually both partners, husband and wife, engage in productive activities and in managing the products. In small un-mechanized farms in the hilly and mountainous areas where productivity is very low, family incomes come mainly from men employed outside the country or in urban centres. The survey on "Economic and Legal Rights of Rural Areas Women" conducted by the Committee for Equal Opportunities (2004), in which 812 women from 5 districts of the country (Elbasan, Shkodër, Kukës, Berat, Gjirokastër) were polled, revealed that the husband played the main role in providing the incomes for 83 per cent of families, while wives work beside their husbands in 45 per cent of families in rural areas.

Economic opportunities for women

There is a big difference between men and women as regards the extent of ownership, private business and access to the financial and credit institutions.⁶⁸ According to the report "Gender and Agriculture" prepared by the Woman's Centre in 2003,⁶⁹ there is a lack of data on the gender perspectives in agriculture. However the growing participation of women in agricultural activities has been observed. Woman's participation in those agricultural activities which for a long time have been considered as "men's monopolies" is also

Table 14: The poverty index by the gender of the family head⁶⁷

Family head: man/woman	Poverty index	Gap Index
Men	25.9	5.8
Women	20.4	4.6
Total	25.4	5.7

⁶⁷ INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania, 2003, p. 6.

⁶⁸ Woman's Center, Report on Gender Problems in Rural Areas, July 2003.

⁶⁹ Woman's Center, Report: "Gender Identity and Agriculture". Consultants: MSW Eglantina Gjermeni & MBA Agron Hetoja. Contributed: Elona Dhëmbó & Admir Meko. Tiranë, 2003.

evident. Poverty, tradition, previous experiences, migratory movements and education are factors that affect mostly the participation of women in agriculture.

Women and the opportunities for agricultural credits

Official data in relation to some important issues of gender identity, such as: access to credit programs and financial institutions; the extent of self-employed women are lacking. In general, the data on loan-takers by gender, is available in the data banks of the organisations that operate in this field, but are not published. In rural areas the trend of borrowing from relatives and friends has increased. Two surveys conducted by ACER⁷⁰, showed that 5-7 per cent of farmers take loans from their relatives. The loans are primarily for agricultural businesses. Other surveys based on questionnaires show that: i) in 96 per cent of applications, the loan-takers were married, and ii) 78 per cent of them were (male) family heads. Women were loan-takers in 14 per cent of cases, and unmarried men in 6 per cent of cases. A woman or a couple of aged parents were loan-takers in 1 per cent of cases.

Enlarging access to credits and making crediting easier will promote activities and businesses managed by women in both the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. This will require the enlargement of the structures that can supply immediate credit, and these organisational and supportive initiatives will attract an increasing number of women that wish to start up a business of their own.

4.5 GENDER AND EDUCATION

Educational attainment of women

Education is one of the values that tradi-

BOX 11: The Poverty and gender nexus of energy and climate change

Albanian households consume around 60 per cent of the generated electricity for heating, cooking, lighting etc. But 17 per cent of Albania's population or 55 per cent of rural communities still rely on firewood for heating and cooking. In rural areas, woman and children spend their time to get firewood, thus missing opportunities for education and other productive activities, and therefore giving "giving the face of energy poverty a gender dimension

Based on this evidence, the Albanian Government has taken clear measures through its newly adopted National Energy Strategy, for the promotion of affordable alternative energy sources for heating energy demands and most important energy services. In the frame of the MDGs process and mainstreaming, the Climate Change programme links up national energy planning, and poverty and climate change issues. The National Energy Strategy has already integrated many findings and outputs from the Climate Change project. The development and transfer of technologies such as the utilization of solar energy for hot water supply, thermal insulation of households, LPG (Liquefied Petroleum Gas) and Diesel for heating and cooking will; help to reduce electricity consumption; increase the security of the power system; and reduce the family budget for energy services. These technologies are assessed under the climate change programme through an in-depth assessment process, which took into account among other criteria their impact to poverty eradication and gender.

UNDP Climate Change Programme

tionally have been looked up to by Albanian society. The high educational level of Albanian women and girls is the best indication that they are successful, and that education is the key to a higher status in the family and society. According to INSTAT data⁷¹, women in general have higher educational standards than men. In middle and higher education, female students outnumber male students at the end of each school year, despite the fact that at the beginning of the same school year the number of enrolled males outnumbers females. In the academic year 2001-2002, 62 per cent

⁷⁰ (ACER - The Albanian Center for Economic Research) & ASET, Micro-Credit Beneficiary Assessment, 2003 & ACER-ASPA (The Agrarian Studies & Project's Association) – ASET, Baseline Study for MADA Program Area, 2003.

⁷¹ INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania, 2003.

BOX 12: Creative women with creative hands

In the framework of “Support Women Artisans Entrepreneurship” 20 women from Terihat, Dropulli i Poshtëm organized in a women’s CBO, approached in March 2004 the UNDP Local Government Project for support through a revolving fund to expand their business in embroidery. This allowed more women to be employed and the business expanded to cover the Greek market and Albanian markets. The products include linen or cotton embroidery on a white “cut-out” design and many of the items are trimmed with lace. The work is done using a combination of treadle and electronic sewing machines and handwork. These women are now generating incomes from their businesses and feel proud with what they are doing, not only because this is part of their tradition, something inherited from their grandmothers, but also because they are benefiting financially and feeling more independent.

Thalia Pulla, the head of the women CBO is emphasizing that “This assistance is a great help for us, because we can’t live on state salaries. If we had a secured market, we could employ a greater number of women. Most of the women here are unemployed.” The women think that by being organised in the “Women artisans association” they will have more opportunities in the future to participate in different regional and national fairs, concentrate their works in an artisans shop and reach the national market and other international markets other than Greece.

UNDP Local Government Programme in Gjirokastra

of the total numbers of students were girls. Based on the INSTAT data (2003), the educational level of women in Albania is still lower in comparison to other countries in the region. 27 per cent of girls aged 15 and above have finished high school, and 13 per cent of them have graduated from a university.

Primary school education and women

In Albania, primary education is compulsory for all children, regardless of gender, and there are no great differences in attending school between the two sexes⁷². The total number of students that attended secondary education (the 8-year level)

during the academic year 2002-2003 was 61,398, out of whom 30,211 were girls and 31,187 were boys⁷³. Traditionally, Albanian families have held schooling in high regard, regardless of their economic conditions. From 1990, there was a drastic decline in the number of school students, while the equality in enrolment was retained. During the 1990s, the net registration rate both for girls and boys in primary schools fell considerably, although this rate has marked an upcurve in the secondary (8-year) and middle schools. In secondary schools, the registration rates have fallen less for girls than for boys, while in high schools the opposite is true.

Variations in regional educational levels

In the district of Fier, the education level by gender is almost identical to the ratio of the whole population of the country. In the district of Lushnjë alone, the number of girls attending the primary school is higher than that of boys (the ratio being 1.011), and in the district of Mallakastër the opposite is the case (the ratio being 0.901)⁷⁴. The number of girls that attend middle school education is higher than that of boys. As noted above, that is not the case for the district of Fier alone, but for most of Albania. This higher number of girls in education can be explained by the fact that their education is considered as an investment made by their families to be helpful to their employment later, as well as for them to have a more secure future. Instead, the lower number of boys attending middle education in this region can be accounted for by the fact that many boys emigrate as soon as they finish secondary (8-year) education; they start working to help their families; they engage

⁷² Regional Development Strategy for the District of Fier, devised according to the National Strategy for Socioeconomic Development and Millennium’s Objectives. By: Vasilika Kume, Sabri Laci, Eno Dodbiba/ECAT, Manuela Murthi, Edlira Haxhiymeri, Ilir Gëdeshi, Mihallaq Qirio/REC, Sept. 2003, p. 27.

⁷³ Ibid., p. 27.

⁷⁴ Ibid.

in the family business; or they work in their land (especially when adult males of the family have emigrated abroad).

Women as school and educational teachers Albanian women and girls make a great contribution to the field of education, and during the academic year 2001-2002 women represented over 64 per cent of the teaching 'staff in secondary education, and more than half in middle school education. In higher education (university), women accounted for 40 per cent of the teaching staff, with professors being 91 per cent men and 9 per cent women⁷⁵.

School drop-outs

School dropout is a relatively new phenomenon for Albanian society; the causes that make it happen are different for boys and the girls, and the effects it produces are different. According to the results drawn from a study supported by UNICEF (2001), even though boys that drop out of school are less than girls, the number of boys dropping out of school for economic reasons is 1.4 times higher than for girls. It is obvious that, in terms of school dropout rates, gender factors affect this difference. Because of poverty, parents deprive boys of their schooling more than they do it for girls⁷⁶. According to tradition and mentality, boys are considered to be able to bring incomes to the family, so they are taken away from school to help the family to survive. With girls other reasons can be pointed out that lead to their dropping out of school.

From the table below it is clearly seen that girls discontinue their schooling mostly on account of their family mind-set. Their number amounts to 9 times that of boys. So, there exists a gender distinction in at-

tending school or dropping out.⁷⁷

Women in higher education

While the number of women and girls graduating from higher schools is greater than that of men and boys, and the academic staff of universities are comprised more women and girls, in leading positions men prevail. As is the case in other spheres of decision-making, a number of factors affect the number of women leaders in universities as compared to men. Again, the division of labour by gender, responsibilities in the family, mentality, patterns of socialization, access to information and training, low self-esteem, etc., are directly connected to this phenomenon.

4.6 ALBANIAN WOMEN AND DECISION MAKING

The participation of women in the decision making processes and in politics in Albania in particular, has remained below those in other East and Central European countries. The level of the participation of women in politics is determined by the quality of the democratic development of society; the economic, social and cultural development of the country; the cultural heritage and existing mentalities; how society educates boys and girls and defines their expectations; the specificities of the transition period in Albania, and so on.

Women in politics

The tables presented below show the make-up of the Albanian Parliament from 1920 to 2001. What is immediately striking in it is that the percentage of women in the 2002 Parliament is comparable to that of 1945. The highest level of the participation of women in Parliament was during the period of socialism during the period 1970 and

⁷⁵ INSTAT, *Women and Men in Albania*, 2003.

⁷⁶ The Association "Development of Education" – School Dropout, causes, recommendations, supported by UNICEF, Tiranë – Dec. 2001, p. 27.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

Table 15: School dropout for various reasons, the dropouts analysed by gender:

Dropouts	Girls	Boys
Total	49,1 %	50,9 %
Economic reasons	41,5 %	58,5 %

Source: UNICEF, School dropout, causes, recommendations; the District of Durrës, Tiranë, December 2001

1990. It is widely known that during this period, the emancipation of woman and their wide-scale participation in all spheres of life was a top priority. The education of women and girls and their extensive involvement in the labour market were two major achievements. It is important to emphasise that the

socialist system did not make any great efforts to alleviate the woman's position in the family; nor did it reduce the prejudices and stereotypes concerning gender identity. The negative consequences were the loss of women's femininity and lack of equal treatment with men in the most difficult sectors.

Table 16: The participation of women participation in University leading positions 2002-2003⁷⁸

Position	Number		%	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Rectors	10	0	100	0
Vice/Rectors	6	2	75	25
Senate members	129	37	77	23
Deans	25	4	86	14
Vice/Deans	12	4	75	25
Faculty Council Members	253	135	65	35
Department Heads	87	26	77	23
Department Council Elected Members	34	34	50	50

Table 17: Division by gender of Rectors, Deans and Heads of Department in Albanian Universities for the academic year 2003-2004:⁷⁹

No	Universities	Rectors		Deans		Department Heads	
		Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1.	University of Tirana	1	0	7	0	44	10
2.	Polytechnic University	1	0	4	0	21	4
3.	Agricultural University	1	0	3	0	12	3
4.	University of Elbasan	1	0	5	2	12	3
5.	University of Shkodër	1	0	6	1	14	6
6.	University of Korçë	1	0	3	1	6	5
7.	University of Gjirokastër	1	0	3	0	9	1
8.	University of Vlorë	1	0	3	1	8	4
9.	The Academy of Fine Arts	1	0	3	0	5	1
10.	The Academy of Physical Culture	1	0	0	0	4	0
11.	High School for Practitioner Nurses	1	0	0	0	1	1
	Total	11	0	37	5	136	38

⁷⁸ INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania, Tiranë 2003, p. 42.

⁷⁹ Data supplied by the Ministry of Education and Science, the Information and Statistics Directorate (According to the reply to the request for information with the Protocol Number 1245).

Table 18: The constitution of the Albanian Parliament from 1920⁸⁰

Year	Number		In %	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
1920	37	0	100	0
1921	78	0	100	0
1925	75	0	100	0
1928	57	0	100	0
1945	76	6	92.7	7.3
1950	104	17	86	14
1958	171	17	91	9
1970	192	72	72.7	27.3
1974	167	83	66.8	33.2
1982	174	76	69.6	30.4
1990	169	81	67.6	32.4
1991	199	51	79.6	20.4
1997	144	11	92.9	7.1
2001	132	9	93.6	6.4

Table 19: The gender constitution of the Albanian Parliament, June 2001

Year	Number		In %	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
1920	37	0	100	0
1921	78	0	100	0
1925	75	0	100	0
1928	57	0	100	0
1945	76	6	92.7	7.3
1950	104	17	86	14
1958	171	17	91	9
1970	192	72	72.7	27.3
1974	167	83	66.8	33.2
1982	174	76	69.6	30.4
1990	169	81	67.6	32.4
1991	199	51	79.6	20.4
1997	144	11	92.9	7.1
2001	132	9	93.6	6.4

Table 20: Women's participation in government, September 2003⁸¹

Position	Men	Women	% Women
Chairperson of Parliament	1	0	0
Vice Chairperson of Parliament	0	2	100
Chairpersons of Parliamentary Commissions	13	0	0
Chairpersons of Parliamentary Sub-commissions	5	0	0
Chairpersons of Parliamentary Groups	11	0	0

⁸⁰Women and Men in Albania – INSTAT 2003, p. 37.⁸¹This information is provided and updated by the official web-site of Council of Ministers <http://www.keshilliministrave.al/shqip/qeveria/perberja.asp>. Last accessed: December 30th, 2005.

Women in local government

In local government, the participation of women is very low. In the last local elections (October 2003), out of the 76 candidates (men and women) for the Mayor's office, only 3 women won the race (in municipal governments), that is, about 4 per cent of the candidates⁸². For the office of the chairperson of the commune, out of 308 candidates, 6 women were elected, only 2 per cent of the overall candidates. However, the number of women in municipality councils has increased.

Women in decision making

The most recent statistics show that the number of women in decision making structures have fallen drastically, despite efforts to encourage political parties to reach the quota of 30 per cent of women's participation as Parliamentary Members. Even though such efforts are under way, the low level of women's involvement in the decision making process is a real challenge to Albanian society. The last parliamentary elections of 2001, with 40 women candidates, showed that there is a great number of women who are able and wish to be involved into the political decision making structures. The growth of the non-government sector and women's organisations has helped the development of women leaders who possess management skills, and these skills have been applied through various national and local projects. According to a survey conducted in 2003 on the status of women in politics, the number of women and girls that hold administrative offices in the second level of government, such as department heads in ministries, have been on the rise. At the moment, women hold over 24% of these offices⁸³.

4.7 WOMEN AND MIGRATION

Migration in Albania has had a considerable impact on social life. This phenomenon brings about serious consequences for the family structure in particular and to social life in general. Recent surveys show that though young women migrate in the same way as the men, their number is smaller. As a result, families and family relationships can be broken.

Migration and Gender

Men in general (76 per cent) are inclined to move more than women (24 per cent) and to stay away from the country and family for a longer time. However, of all the women that had left Albania, 50 per cent of them had stayed away from the country for 2-3 years. The respective ratio for the same period of staying for men was 52 per cent. With the fall of the communist regime, Albania was characterised by two forms of migration, internal and external⁸⁴. Since the early 1990s, nearly 1/6 of the population have emigrated abroad temporarily or forever the majority of them men. The main reasons for the migration of women are as following:

- Poverty (the hope of finding better living conditions);
- Discrimination (unfair treatment by the family or community they were living in);
- Unemployment (an opportunity to find a job – in many cases a sham one – and a better-paid one than in Albania);
- Low educational level;
- The loss of resources (lack of land, loss of the job, etc.); and

⁸² Official Gazette of the Republic of Albania, No.8, February 27, 2004.

⁸³ SIDA, UNDP, A Survey on the Status of Woman in Politics in Albania, Tiranë, December 2003, p. 4. More information on the Women in Leadership Project could be found at <http://www.lgp-undp.org.al/>

⁸⁴ Council of Europe, Parliamentary Assembly, "Migration connected with trafficking in women and prostitution", - Doc. No: 9795, 25 April 2003

Table 21: Migrants vis-à-vis non-migrants by the official number of family heads

Position	Number		%	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Prime Minister	1	0		
Vice/Prime Minister	0	1		
Ministers	15	3	83.3	16.7
Vice/Ministers	19	6	76	24
General Secretary	13	2	86.7	13.3

- Economic and political instability⁸⁵.

Internal Migration

Since the fall of the communist regime in 1991, over 400,000 Albanians have migrated within their own country. Many of them have moved from rural areas to the urban centres of Tirana and Durrës and other medium size towns. The prefectures of Tirana, Durrës and Fier received 53 per cent of the total number of migrants in the rural zones. While for the urban migration, Tirana and Durrës received nearly 74 per cent of the total number of migrants⁸⁶.

Migration Abroad

Among the men who have emigrated, a small part of them were single, while the bulk were married and had children before they emigrated. Among the women that have emigrated and who now are family heads, few of them live alone and many live in pairs and have children.

4.8 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Origins of domestic violence

While domestic violence crosses boundaries of race, ethnicity, national origin, class,

religion, age, and sexual orientation, men are most likely to be the perpetrators and women the targets⁸⁷. Furthermore, it is acknowledged that social structures serve to maintain the legitimacy of male violence and to reinforce the patriarchal view that “male domination over women is normal, natural, and expected.”⁸⁸ All over the world, feminists have exposed the long suffering of women because of domestic violence and how home has become a place of fear and suffer⁸⁹. In fact, domestic violence does not finish with women. Male children who have witnessed a father battering a mother are more likely to use violence in their own adult lives than are male children from non-abusive homes⁹⁰.

Extent of domestic violence

Even though there are no accurate statistics on the national level concerning domestic violence from various sources, such as police, prosecutors, judges, etc., some studies undertaken by Albanian NGOs reveal the problem of domestic violence as serious and prevalent⁹¹. For example, the survey conducted in the 1996 by the Albanian Women’s Association Refleksione in eleven districts shows that “almost 40% of women surveyed claimed to experience physical violence regularly and the

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ INSTAT, Migration in Albania 2004

⁸⁷ Amy J. Marin and Nancy Felipe Russo, “Feminist Perspectives on Male Violence against Women. Critiquing O’Neil and Harway’s Model.” In: Michele Harway and James M. O’Neil (ed.) What causes Men’s Violence against Women? (Sage Publications, Inc. 1999) 25.

⁸⁸ Ibid., 23.

⁸⁹ Ibid., 24.

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights Report, Domestic Violence in Albania, (Minneapolis, MN 1996) and UNICEF, Domestic Violence in Albania. An Explanatory Study (Tirana 2003) 15.

percentage of abused women and girls in rural areas is twice as much as that in cities.⁹² The survey undertaken in ten villages, by the Counselling Centre for Women and Girls, with 462 women reveals the extent of violence that women are suffering in their lives. While the level of abuse from unknown persons was very low, in most of the cases, the abuser was the husband⁹³. 19.2% of women who were interviewed reported that their husbands have threaten to kill them, meanwhile the number of armed people in Albania, since the upheavals of the 1997s, is still high.

It is also clear, as the study carried out by the NGO Refleksione shows, that the percentage of the abused women and girls in rural areas is twice as much as that in cities. Meanwhile, an estimation carried out by the Counselling Centre for Women and Girls shows that only 1 in 13 phone calls in the Counselling Centre for Women and Girls come from a village⁹⁴. Many problems increase the vulnerability of women who suffer domestic violence. Especially in rural areas “the absence of telephone lines and infrastructure, isolation from socio-economic life, unemployment problems, the lack of information and qualified services, insecurity and the limited possibilities for village women to leave the family,⁹⁵ determine their lives’ experiences including the violence they suffer and endure. Social services offered to battered women are nearer to women living in the cities than those living in villages.

Economic violence

is another form of abuse in which women

are the major victims. Traditionally men have controlled and dominated the financial incomes of the family, and have enjoyed the power in making financial decisions in the family⁹⁶. Such practices and approaches on the part of men in many cases and areas are creating the mentality that property belongs to men and that a woman cannot enjoy the right to property, though such a legal right in fact exists. This is a dangerous subjugation of women’s substantive rights and in the rural areas this conflict has created a general opinion that denies women’s right of ownership⁹⁷.

Gender and violence at the workplace

Violence against women may appear in the workplace as well. This kind of violence, even though in many cases not recorded in judicial decisions, exists in many forms. The reluctance of women and girls to denounce this kind of violence has to do with their fear of losing their jobs, as it is known that over 85 per cent of managers at workplaces are men⁹⁸.

Media coverage of domestic violence

During 2001 and 2002, the Women’s Centre monitored reporting in seven daily press newspapers,⁹⁹ which resulted in 207 and 124 news stories in the respective years that covered domestic violence. In 2002 and 2003, media articles show that the most prevalent forms of domestic violence are the physical and sexual violence. Psychological/emotional violence, even though it is also present is not extensively covered in the media. 72% of the violent acts occur within the family house

⁹² Albanian Women’s Association Refleksione, *Violence against Women* (Tirana 1996) 10-11.

⁹³ Counselling Center for Women and Girls, *Survey on Violence against Women and Trafficking in Rural Areas of Lezha District*, prepared by Silvana Miria, Marjana Bello, Blerta Bodinaku (ECHO, INTERSOS 2000) 12.

⁹⁴ *Ibid.*, 4

⁹⁵ *Ibid.*, 3

⁹⁶ Baban, Adriana, “Violence against women in family in Albania”, an in-depths study. UNICEFF; Canadian International Development Agency, Royal Netherlands in Tirana; ISOP. Pegi, Tiranë, p. 37.

⁹⁷ The Association of Women’s Lawyers, *Studies: divorce, its causes and effects; On the violence exerted on women; Alimony and judicial practices*, financed by USIS, US Embassy in Albania. Tiranë 2000, pp.86-87.

⁹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 88-89.

⁹⁹ Gjermeni, Eglantina and Bregu, Majlinda, “Media monitoring on domestic violence 2001 & 2002”. Published by the Women’s Center, Tiranë, August 2003.

walls.¹⁰⁰ Abusers are generally persons who know the victim for a long time, or who live under the same roof with her. The father or brothers are the ones who exert greatest violence on other members of the family.¹⁰¹

The image promoted by the media greatly affects the status and role of woman in society, particularly in cases of abuse both within and without the family. The woman's manifold role in the family or her contribution to society will find very thin media coverage. The press coverage and positions affects professional and individual norms and values, institutional structures and processes, audience's perceptions and preferences. On the other hand, the domestic profile of gender roles reflects the socioeconomic conditions, especially the rules of the market and the political ideologies in any society. Since these elements take a long time to change, by the same token the stereotypes that linger on are difficult to change too.

In 2004 Gender Alliance for Development Centre monitored approximately 4000 articles and 3000 photos from 15 newspapers and magazines, including Panorama, Shekulli, Koha Jonë, Albania, Korrieri, Republika, Teuta, Klan, etc. These articles were analyzed based on some key words, such as unemployment, prostitution, trafficking, domestic violence, politics, suicide, NPOs, divorce, family tragedies, law, health, emigration, media, Family Code, sexual harassment, business, family planning, minorities.

Some of the questions addressed were: How does press portray women and men? (including the language used, images, titles and subtitles). In what way do journalists analyze social problems? Where do they focus?

Box 13: The Albanian Network Against Gender Violence and Women Trafficking¹⁰²

Each year on November 25th (The International Day Against Domestic Violence on Women) till December 10th (The International Day of Human Rights), many people and organizations throughout the world organize joint activities in order to defend women's rights as basic human's rights. In Albania, this activity is organized by The Albanian Network Against Domestic Violence and Trafficking. This network aspires in a human world, where all the people despite the sex, have equal opportunities, and enjoy the same rights to decide about their own life. The following are the Albanian organizations, members of this network:

1. "Counselling Centre for Women and Girls 'Break the silence"- Its mission consists in helping and supporting women and victims of gender violence within and outside of the family. This centre has its branch in Tiranë, Shkodër, Pogradec and Berat.
2. "Women's Advocacy Centre" – its vision is: 'Legitimacy – a mean of development for women and girls in Albania'. Its mission is to increase women and girls access to legal system. The WAC has its office in Tiranë and a branch in Shkodra.
3. "Gender Alliance for Development Centre (Ex-Women's Centre)" – is a non-for-profit organization that aims at creating equal opportunities between the sexes through: information studies, advocacy, lobbying and training courses, all which are approached with gender perspective. GADC plays the coordination role of this network.
4. "Refleksione" Association – works for: protection of women's rights from any kind of violence and discrimination; encouragement of women's integration in the economic and social life; supporting women's participation in the decision-making, etc. "Refleksione" has its branch in Tiranë, Shkodër and Pogradec.
5. "Shelter for abused women"- the service of the shelter is an important part of the network of services against gender violence and women trafficking. The Shelter offers psycho-social support to women and girls victims of domestic violence in crises situations and lack of support.

This monitoring process led to several conclusions. Regarding domestic violence, it is widely recognized in the written media that the roots of domestic violence can be found in poverty and transition. Usually, the focus of journalists is very narrow and they do not attempt to give a holistic view.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid., p. 20.

¹⁰¹ Ibid., p. 21.

¹⁰² The Albanian Network against Domestic Violence and Trafficking was established on the beginning of 2000, as a result of several women's organizations will. The need for creating such a structure came out as a necessity of setting up a multidiscipline and continuous service for women and girls facing gender violence and trafficking.

Box 14: Gender equal opportunities through the use of Media

It is important to mention that several NPOs are implementing projects, through which they introduce gender concepts to journalists and media representatives. Gender Alliance for Development Centre in 2004-2005 implemented the project Promoting Gender Equality through the Media funded by the American Embassy (Tirana). Media was monitored on gender issues and conclusions were introduced to media representatives. Some training sessions were organized with media professionals on how to write good articles and analyze social problems, especially when it comes to domestic violence, women in decision-making, prostitution and trafficking of human being.

One of the main findings of the monitoring is the blaming of the victim. Especially in cases of crimes articles focus on the 'woman's honour' and the way that the crime is committed. Mostly, domestic violence continues to be considered a personal problem. Domestic violence is reported in a very sensational way and journalists are not focused on the real cases of domestic violence and their survivors. Journalists put the emphasis on the way that the victim behaves, trying to find the relationship between the act and the way that the perpetrator behaves.

Albanian Legal Response to Domestic Violence

According to A Comparative Study of the Albanian Legislation and that of Developed Countries on the Issue of Violence against Women¹⁰³, there are two important aspects of the way that Albanian culture reflects domestic violence. First, people themselves consider domestic violence as a personal issue, which pertains only to the victim and the perpetrator. Second, the state and its structures are part of the patriarchal culture.

According to the actual law, domestic violence does not make a special penal act. It is prosecuted the same as a common, ordinary in-

*sult or battering caused by stranger, unknown people in the street...*¹⁰⁴

According again to the above study, there are identified many problematic stages concerning domestic violence that are not reflected adequately in the actual law. The Albanian Civil Code does not have specific provisions, according to which every person, who believes to be in danger, has the right to require a temporary court decision in order to avoid the danger. Furthermore, under the Code of Penal Procedure, domestic violence is prosecuted when the victim files a complaint and the case is closed when the victim withdraws it;¹⁰⁵ the victim must prepare the whole case herself, gathering evidences and witnesses and presenting the case in the Court¹⁰⁶.

Even in cases when women succeed in prosecuting perpetrators, the Court does not give them a heavy punishment¹⁰⁷. Consequently, the woman after the partner is released might pay severe consequences for prosecuting him.

It can be concluded that in general, domestic violence continues to be considered a private issue, an attitude that in part is reflected in the actual legal response. In this respect, reforms

¹⁰³ Women Association Refleksione, A Comparative Study of the Albanian Legislation and that of the Developed Countries on the Issue of Violence Against the Women (Refleksione, Tirana 1996) 2.

¹⁰⁴ A. Fullani, Women's Legal Rights, Tirane 1999, 7.

¹⁰⁵ International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, Women 2000 - An Investigation into the Status of Women's Rights in Central and South-Eastern Europe and the Newly Independent States. Last accessed on June 3, 2004 <http://www.ihf-hr.org/view-binary/viewdocument.php?doc_id=2050>

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid., 6

undertaken in the legal field concerning domestic violence have failed to address changes that the family as an institution is undergoing. In addition, the women's movement in Albania during the enactment of the new legislation was, and still is not strong enough in lobbying parliamentarians and politician for the importance of protecting women's rights as an indispensable part of human rights.

4.9 WOMEN AND CRIME

Incidence of women involvement in crime

The involvement of women in criminal acts runs counter to the gender stereotypes which portrays men alone as capable of committing crimes. However the data on convicted women in Albanian prisons contradicts this view and in many ways reveals the complex position of women in Albanian society¹⁰⁸. Statistics show that Albania compares with other European countries in terms of the percentage of convicted women as part of the whole population. This percentage always amounts to between 3.5-4 per cent¹⁰⁹. Based on a study conducted by the association "Përthyerja", in January 2004, 42 women and girls were in jail and 38 were under arrest. This study was based on the interviews of 80 women (both convicted and under custody). The age of the interviewees varies from 15 to 75 years and many of the convicted women had committed serious crimes. The data show that a significant proportion of these women and girls do not have any previous criminal records and yet their crimes, in most cases, had resulted from violence.

Media coverage of criminality

Media coverage of the violent acts com-

Box 15: The law on domestic violence

On October 28th 2004, different Albanian NPOs have gathered in an ad hoc Alliance, consisted by: "The Office of Citizen's Protection", "Gender Alliance for Development Centre", "Women's Advocacy Centre", "Counselling Centre for Women and Girls", "Children's Legal Clinic", "Centre of Protection Children's Rights", "Albanian Centre for Population and Development", "Useful to Albanian Women", "Refleksione" Association and "The Shelter for Battered Women".

This Alliance aims to promote the Albanian legal initiative against domestic violence. This initiative will focus on issues like: developing of a draft law, recommending the draft law in the Albanian Parliament, organizing public discussions and lobbying to the decision-making institutions.

mitted by women reveals clearly that they had usually reacted against frequent violence from their spouses.¹¹⁰ 90% of women that are serving their time in prison 313 in Tiranë have killed their husbands because they have been prey to physical and sexual violence for years¹¹¹. More specifically, 70 per cent of them had been subject to physical abuse and 30 per cent of them to sexual abuse¹¹². The Penal Code and the Penal Procedures do not provide special remission in the custody periods for women. In general, after having committed a criminal act, women ponder at length over it and repent much more than men do. At the same time, fewer offences take place in women's prisons and atmosphere therein is quiet¹¹³.

4.10 TRAFFICKING AND PROSTITUTION OF ALBANIAN WOMEN AND GIRLS

The rise of human trafficking

According to a June 2002 Report by the U.S. Department of State, Albania has been identified both as a transit country for trafficked women and girls from Roma-

108 "Përthyerja", a study on the creation of opportunities for convicted women – Tirana, Jan. 2004.

109 Ibid.

110 Gjermeni, Eglantina and Bregu, Majlinda, "Monitoring the press over the in-family violence 2001 & 2002". Published by the Woman's Center, Tiranë, August 2003, pp. 39-40.

111 Ibid., p. 83.

112 "Përthyerja", a study on the creation of opportunities for convicted women – Tirana, Jan. 2004.

113 Ibid.

nia, Moldova, Bulgaria and Ukraine, and a source of trafficking in Albanian women and girls to the West¹¹⁴. While there is a lack of statistics concerning the number of trafficked Albanian women and girls for prostitution, it still remains a social problem for the whole of Albanian society.

The start of the trafficking phenomenon date from 1993, when Albania turned into a source and transit country as well as a country where the services of prostitutes are utilised, and often a country of usage. A series of national and regional factors affected the emergence and the rise of trafficking in women and girls for prostitution purposes, these include, extreme poverty, the traditional mentality by which women and girls are considered to be “property”, a lack of hope, in-family violence, a lack of information to tackle this problem, the images produced by media about a better life abroad, and the lack of border controls. Other factors that have stimulated trafficking include; the links of Albanian traffickers with other traffickers abroad and the profits that trafficking has brought, as well as many other complementary factors. Another factor, although not often mentioned, has been the demand from developed Western countries for girls from Eastern countries.

A number of anti-trafficking laws

(Articles 110/a, 114/a and 114/b, 128/b of the Penal Code) prohibit the trafficking of women and children and provide sentences of 7 to 15 years of imprisonment for trafficking in adults and 10 to 20 years for trafficking in children¹¹⁵. The Albanian Penal Code anti-trafficking legislation does not defines pre-

cisely the “actions” of trafficking. However, Albania has signed and ratified the United Nations’ Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, supplementing the *U.N. Convention against Transnational Organized Crime*¹¹⁶. One of the achievements in the context of improving the fight against trafficking is the passing of the Law on Witness Protection (adopted by the government, March 2004) which will encourage the indictment and punishment of traffickers.

Actions against trafficking

In June 2001, the Prime Minister authorised the Ministry of Public Order to create an Inter-ministerial Work Group to address the problem of trafficking and to develop a National Strategy against trafficking in human beings. The Working Group comprised representatives of the Ministry of Public Order, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education and Science, the Office of the General Public Prosecutor, the Ministry of Youth and Sports, and was led by a national coordinator. In November 2001, the Working Group prepared a draft National Strategy to fight trafficking, which was adopted by the Parliament in December 2001¹¹⁷.

The Ministry of Public Order, in cooperation with a series of international organizations and non-profit organisations (NPO) have been actively involved in the efforts to fight the trafficking in human beings. The enforcement of the law is one of the points where the cooperation between the government and non-government mechanisms appears to be most efficient¹¹⁸.

¹¹⁴ Aronowitz, A. Alexis – Anti Trafficking Programs in Albania – Final Report. Management Systems International: February 18, 2003. (The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000. Report on the Trafficking in Persons, U.S. Department of State, June 2002).

¹¹⁵ Ibid. p. 4.

¹¹⁶ Albania has signed the Protocol on December 12, 2000 and ratified it on August 21, 2002.

¹¹⁷ The National Strategy of the Struggle against Human Beings’ Trafficking – Republic of Albania, the Council of Ministers, Tirana 2001.

¹¹⁸ Ibid., p. 5.

The National Action plan involves concrete actions against trafficking, designates responsible institutions for these actions and allocates a budget for all the measures, which include:

- Studies in the field of trafficking;
- Providing services for the protection of the trafficked persons, including shelters managed by non-profit organizations (NPOs) with government assistance, as well as training the shelters' staff;
- Reintegration programmes for victims of trafficking;
- A broad awareness and education campaign supported by the Ministry of Education, including the HIV/AIDS education;
- The education of women and children on the problem of trafficking and exploitation;
- Improving the socio-economic conditions of women and girls;
- Taking measures to bring traffickers to justice and punish them, which includes changes in legislation and the better enforcement of laws;
- Strengthening the check across the borders.

In recent years the number of arrested traffickers has increased, but in spite of the efforts made by the Albanian Government and various local and international organizations, the weaknesses in the current approach are in the areas of prevention, improvement and enforcement of legislation as well as in the rehabilitation of victims.

Local and international organisations that deal with the rehabilitation of women and girls, victims of trafficking, are scarce. This

is so because of the insecurity or danger they had to face and because in most cases the trafficking in human beings is linked to the trafficking of weapons. Presently, the "Vatra" association in Vlora provides immediate shelter and assistance to the repatriated women and girls returning to Vlora. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) provides shelter, and reintegration support as well as long-term care for trafficked Albanian women¹¹⁹.

4.11 THE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT IN ALBANIA

Development of women's movement

The period between 1994 and 1996 was a dynamic period for the women's movement in Albania, reflecting the politically favourable climate because of the very conditions the country was going through. Nevertheless, there was little or no communication among women's NPOs created in the mid-1990s¹²⁰. The period between 1995 and 1999 saw gradual progress towards the maturity and creation of the network of cooperation among women's organisations. As a result of their increased maturity, some networks of these organizations were institutionalised as groupings around the following intentions:

- Undertaking joint actions (The Federation of the Albanian Woman, Millennium);
- Cooperation in developing common strategies (The National Council of Albanian Women).

A special characteristic of women's organisations is their ability to offer social serv-

"The women's movement in Albania needs more coordination and collaboration efforts in order to have an impact on the social and political developments in Albania"

119 Ibid., p. 12.

120 The Foundation "Open Society" for Albania – SOROS, 90+10 Woman in the Post-communist Transition, national conference, Tiranë, March 12, 2001, pp. 23-24.

ices to the most vulnerable categories of society. The data bank that is available in the premises of the Gender Alliance for Development Centre indicates that out of 100 registered women's NPOs, 23 per cent of them work in the field of law; 18 per cent are focused on Woman and the Family (children); 11 per cent work in the field of economy; 10 per cent are working the field of culture; 9 per cent work in the information field; 6 per cent work with in counselling and direct services; 6 per cent focus on work with rural women. Furthermore, 4 per cent of these NPOs belong to women's Political Forums; while 2 per cent of the NPOs focus on the field of decision-making, religion, education, media, employment, and trafficking.

In spite of the achievements of the women's movement in Albania, it still faces challenges and difficulties as with the whole of Albanian society. There is a noted need for more coordination and collaboration efforts in joint activities, programs and projects, in order to have an impact on the social and political developments in Albania. One of the difficulties that all the NPOs are facing in recent years is the withdrawing of foreign donors from Albania. Under such circumstances, the chances to survive are limited and the competition has increased. The continuation of social service NPOs offer, will become possible only in case that either the government – whether at central or local level – or business financially support these activities.



A Divorcee's Battle for Her Children Remains Half-Complete By DENISA XHOGA

It was not the divorce at the age of twenty-four in a deeply conservative village that crushed Mahmudije Matvuja. It was the seven-year-old battle since then to regain her children and that was a job only half completed. It took two district court rulings, two appeal court rulings, pressure on Albania's Ministry of Justice, complaints filed with the country's Ombudsman, one fine of Lek 150,000 (\$1500) on her ex-husband, and then police intervention for Mirgen, her now ten-year-old son to move in with his mother. Yet Matvuja cannot see her daughter. When her husband divorced her, in the remote village of Pobrek in Kukes, Northeastern Albania, Matvuja, a mother of two, had to move in with her mother in the suburbs of Tirana. "The woman lives like an animal in the village," she says. "Where there is no work, there is no life. In Tirana, everyone has a job." The village was too oppressive and poor. While the Albanian civil law, in most cases, awards the children to the mother after a divorce, patriarchal customary codes in the country press for the father to take care of at least the male children. The courts gave her son, while her husband became responsible for taking the daughter. Instead, he kept both of them and remarried. After three years of her husband barring her from seeing Mirgen, the Ministry of Justice arranged that they meet at the Kukes police station. When she was awarded her son back, the police escorted them halfway towards Tirana. After three days, the father came and slept outside her house in the hopes of seeing his son. "I felt sorry for him. He feels for our son as much as I do." She does not feel prepared to find a job right now, as she is still repairing the relationship with her son and wishes to spend more time with him. After, she will try and find a job as a tailor. An agreement with the father to allow the daughter to visit Mahmudije while the son spends holidays with the father, never worked. The father now sees his son at the police station in Tirana. Mahmudije has to press the Women's Advocacy Center, a Tirana-based group that offers free legal assistance to women in need, to help her see her daughter. "My son lives like a king here," she says. "He is studying English, there is a playfield here, and he has nice clothes. He had no chances like this in the village."

- INTRODUCTION
- 5.1 THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX
- 5.2 GENDER EMPOWERMENT MEASURE
- 5.3 THE HUMAN POVERTY INDEXES (HPI-1/2)

INTRODUCTION

The National Human Development Report for Albania for the first time, in 2002, piloted calculation of the Human Development Indexes in Albania. It went a step further, and based on the Population Census of 2001, provided a disaggregated map of human development indicators down to the regional level. The exercise laid the ground for the continuous calculation of indexes through the improvement of the methodology and better use of the available data.

Indices calculated

The following indicators have been calculated for the 2005 NHDR in accordance with the standard procedures

- the Human Development Index – HDI;
- The Gender Development Index – GDI;
- The Gender Empowerment Index – GEM;
- The Human Poverty Index – HPI (versions 1 and 2).

Changes in methodology for calculation and estimation¹²¹

This year, the Human Development indexes have been calculated based on the

official results of the Living Standards and Measurements Survey that was carried out by INSTAT in 2002. This means a change in the methodological approach, since the previous report employed a series of proxies to calculate the indices' components.

Secondly, and more importantly the map of human development of this report will be based on the LSMS geographical division of the country. Hence, indexes have been calculated for the Coastal Areas (Delvina, Durrës, Fier, Kavajë, Laç, Lezha, Lushnja, Mallakastër, Saranda and Vlora), Central Area (Berat, Devoll, Elbasan, Gjirokaster, Kolonjë, Korçë, Krujë, Kuçovë, Malësi e Madhe, Mat, Mirditë, Peqin, Përmet, Pogradec, Pukë, Skrapar, Shkodra and Tepelena), Mountain Area (Bulqizë, Dibër, Gramsh, Has, Kukës, Librazhd and Tropoje. Tirana has been calculated as a separate unit based on the Municipality of Tirana. While, this approach leaves only limited and highly qualified room for comparison with the disaggregated regional indexes of 2002, the trend at the national level can start to be built and begin to place it in the perspective of the Global Human Development Report.

The new Human Poverty Index

The novelty of this report is the calculation of the Human Poverty Indexes. Since one of the leading themes of this report is poverty, emphasis was put on the calculation of the two human poverty indices - HP-1 and HP-2. They are presented for the first time and their focus is to capture the extent of deprivation and the social exclusion side of human development.

5.1 THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX

The national HDI as calculated from the new data based on the LSMS 2002 is re-

BOX 16: Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development:

- A long and healthy life: as measured by life expectancy at birth;
- Knowledge: as measured by the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weight) and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (with one-third weight);
- A decent standard of living: as measured by GDP per capita (PPP US\$).

¹²¹ For details on the new methodology – please refer to the ANNEX

corded at 0.771 as compared to a figure of 0.764 in the 2002 NHDR. While this represents an apparent improvement compared to the earlier figure (in the 2002 National Human Development Report), there are differences in the methodological approach, thus the following cautionary remarks are in order. However, the HDI figures and moreover their disaggregation show some important disparities in human development within Albania.

The Regional HDIs Disaggregated at the LSMS geographical areas, the HDI values for Albania highlight considerable differences in human capabilities and welfare captured mainly the regional variation in GDP per capita. Understanding the human development trends is critical for designing appropriate policy interventions to address these disparities. As expected, the HDI for Tirana is the highest (0.830) followed by Coastal Areas (0.798) this calculation falls drastically in the Central (0.725) and Mountainous Areas (0.632). This clearly underlines the fact that Albania's development is unequal. Through a weighted analysis of the human development index components the strengths and weaknesses in each region can also be identified. With the life expectancy index being considered as invariable across all regions (0.823), the education (literacy) index offers significant disparities with Tirana at 0.894 and the Mountainous Areas at 0.819.

At the same time, disparities in the GDP in-

dex (GDP per capita) are striking, with Tirana at 0.772 and Mountainous Areas at 0.252. These regional disparities reflect the real situation of regional development in Albania and are confirmed by a number of other studies that have been undertaken by, inter alia, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank.

Furthermore the figures reinforce the message of the last National Human Development Report that the remote areas of the country are lagging behind in development and still nothing has been done to reverse this situation.

Comparisons with the *Global Human Development Report 2004*

The calculation of indexes for this report is not directly comparable either to the previous NHDR or to the 2004 Global HDR. This is due to the fact that the basis of calculation differs: in the NHDR 2002 the data from the Census 2001 was used, whereas this year the calculation is based on the LSMS data. The discrepancy is also valid for the comparison with the Global HDR indexes. Nonetheless, to better illustrate the great inequalities within Albania, it can be noted that with a HDI of 0.830, Tirana ranks among the entities with a high human development index equal to Croatia which ranks 48th. Whereas the Mountainous Areas of Albania with a HDI of 0.632 rank at the bottom of the medium human development table just above Solomon Islands (124th) with a HDI of 0.624.

Table 22: Human Development Index – regional variations

	Life expectancy index	GDP Index	Education Index	HDI Index
Tirana	0.823	0.772	0.894	0.830
Coastal	0.823	0.728	0.842	0.798
Central	0.823	0.511	0.840	0.725
Mountain	0.823	0.252	0.819	0.632
Total	0.823	0.647	0.843	0.771

NHDR 2004 (LSMS 2002 data)

BOX 17: The gender-related development index (GDI)

While the HDI measures average achievement, the GDI adjusts the average achievement to reflect the inequalities between men and women in the following dimensions:

- A long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth;
- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio;
- A decent standard of living, as measured by estimated earned income (PPP US\$).

BOX 18: Gender Empowerment Index (GEM)

Focusing on women's opportunities rather than their capabilities, the GEM captures gender inequality in three key areas:

- Political participation and decision-making power, as measured by women's and men's percentage shares of parliamentary seats.
- Economic participation and decision-making power, as measured by two indicators—women's and men's percentage in employment such as legislators, senior officials and managers and women's and men's percentage shares of professional and technical positions.
- Power over economic resources; as measured by women's and men's estimated earned income (PPP US\$).

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) was introduced in 1995 to capture some of the differences between the achievements of women and men. The GDI uses the same variables as the HDI to measure any gender disparities.

In Albania, the GDI is calculated at 0.771 and follows the same pattern as the HDI on a regional basis. Tirana has the highest GDI at 0.864 and the mountainous areas (being the area which experiences the greatest exclusion) with the lowest figure

of 0.629. Using the same approach as the HDI, if these GDI figures are put in the Global HDR 2004 context, it can be noted that Tirana (with its high levels of GDI) would rank just below the Czech Republic (32nd) leaving behind many newly admitted EU countries. At the same time, the mountainous areas would only rank 100th, below Egypt.

There is only one conclusion that can be drawn based on this analysis. Gender oriented disparities of human development in

Table 23: Gender Development Index (GDI)

	Equality distributed life expectancy index	Equality distributed education index	Equality distributed income index	GDI
Coastal	0.840	0.841	0.652	0.777
Central	0.839	0.839	0.493	0.724
Mountain	0.839	0.818	0.229	0.629
Tirana	0.839	0.894	0.858	0.864
Total	0.839	0.842	0.631	0.771

Albania are extremely high, from and the three variables from which this disparity is calculated, show education and incomes are where there is most disparity. As it is clearly the case with human development, these disparities need to be addressed in order to create an enabling environment for the development of women in all geographical areas of Albania.

5.2 GENDER EMPOWERMENT MEASURE

The Gender Empowerment Measure is another index, which examines to what extent women and men participate in the economic and political life of the country including the decision-making processes. In other words, the GDI focuses on capabilities and the GEM indicates the use of those capabilities to take advantage of existing opportunities. Based on the LSMS 2002 data Albania's GEM is equal to 0.306.

The global HDR calculates the GEM only for 78 countries and it ranges from 0.908 (Norway – ranks first) to 0.123 (Yemen – ranks 78th). While for the Balkans (not every country though), the GEM values are given in the following tables, which ranks Albania between Romania and Turkey (very closely to Turkey) and in fact represents a low value of GEM.

5.3 THE HUMAN POVERTY INDEXES (HPI-1/2)

The Human Poverty Index

While the HDI measures average achievement, the HPI-1 and the HPI-2 measure deprivations in the three basic dimensions of human development captured in the HDI in the case of the former plus social exclusion in the case of the latter. HP –1 is more relevant for low-income countries whereas HP -2 is used for the more advanced OECD countries.

The outcome of this exercise shows that the HPI-1 for Albania in 2002 was 14.86 with a characteristic regional variation from a low of 6.65 in Tirana, to 19.97 in the mountainous regions. Indeed the regional variation in the HPI is far more pronounced than that for the HDI, and reflects the complex and compounding nature of the poverty situation in the poorest regions and the very high levels of deprivation observed.

To put the index under a global perspective, according to the global HDR, the HP –1 index which is only calculated for 95 developing countries ranges from 2.5 (Barbados ranks 1st) to 65.5 (Burkina Faso ranks –95th) with Albania being directly below Bolivia which is 27th with the figure of 14.4. However, if only Tirana is considered,

Table 24: GEM in the Balkans

Country	GEM value
Slovenia	0,584
Croatia	0,560
Greece	0,523
Macedonia, FYR	0,517
Romania	0,465
Albania	0,306
Turkey	0,290

BOX 19: Human Poverty Index 1 (HP – 1)

- A long and healthy life—vulnerability to dying at a relatively early age, as measured by the probability at birth, of not surviving to the age of 40;
- Knowledge; exclusion from the world of reading and communications, as measured by the adult illiteracy rate;
- A decent standard of living; lack of access to overall economic provisions, as measured by the un-weighted average of two indicators, the percentage of the population without sustainable access to an improved water source, and the percentage of children that are under weight for their age.

BOX 20: The Human Poverty Index 2 (HPI – 2)

- A long and healthy life – vulnerability to death at an early age – as measured by the probability of not surviving beyond 60 years;
- Knowledge – measured by the percentage of adults (15–65) lacking functional literacy skills
- A decent standard of living; the percentage of people below the income poverty line (50% of the median adjusted household disposable income) and
- Social exclusion; as measured by the rate of long-term unemployment.

Table 25: Human Poverty Index - 1

	Children under weight for age (under 5 years)	Population without sustainable access to an improved water source	Underweight population	Adult illiteracy rate	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40 (times 100)	HPI-1
Coastal	6.40	37.23	21.82	5.8%	5.88	15.22
Central	20.20	32.36	26.28	5.7%	5.88	18.29
Mountain	17.30	39.27	28.29	7.2%	5.88	19.67
Tirana	14.30	3.26	8.78	3.3%	5.88	6.65
Total	14.55	28.03	21.29	5.6%	5.88	14.86

Table 26: Human Poverty Index - 2

	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 60 (times 100)	Adult illiteracy rate	Population under poverty line	Unemployment rate according to ILO definition	HPI-2
Coastal	13.41	5.83%	20.60%	8.76	9.17
Central	13.41	5.71%	25.58%	9.02	9.23
Mountain	13.41	7.17%	44.53%	8.50	9.11
Tirana	13.41	3.34%	17.83%	20.60	14.07
Total	13.41	5.64%	25.39%	9.98	9.48

it would be measured at 7th position out of the 95 developing countries, for which this particular index is measured,

In the case of HPI-2 index, the global context needs to be taken with caution because

the calculation of this index is based on data such as the unemployment rate and the population under poverty line, which varies substantially based on differing country methodologies and definitions. In the Global HDR 2004, this index was calculated

only for 17 selected OECD countries and it ranges from 6.5 (Sweden ranks –1st) to 15.8 (United States ranks –17th). What it is interesting to note here, is the fact that the situation is reversed compared to the HDI and GDI for the Albanian regions. As expected, the high level of unemployment for Tirana due to the large scale of the population lead to a high HP-1 figure compared to other regions. Nonetheless, since HPI – 2 puts a great emphasis on social exclusion, it would be interesting to monitor it continuously in the upcoming reports in order to build the trend analysis relevant for the integration of the country in the European Union.



A woman wearing a patterned sweater and a polka-dot skirt is working in a cluttered room. She is leaning over a table or counter, possibly washing or sorting items. The room is filled with various objects, including a large basket on the floor, a wooden table, and a chair. The lighting is dim, and the overall atmosphere is one of a busy, modest workspace.

OPERATIONALIZING
A PRO-POOR AND
PRO-WOMEN AGENDA IN ALBANIA

PART B

Special Contribution by HE. Ms. Jozefina Topalli Deputy Speaker of Parliament

The successful global initiative to put humankind at the centre of development has encouraged the debate on key economic and social issues that trouble communities, preoccupy politicians and grip decision-makers. The series of Human Development Reports have earned their merit by inspiring this debate in Albania too, through periodically analysing the situation, by exploring available models, and suggesting new ideas for facing development challenges. As a result, these reports have often served to positively influence the reform agenda and other significant actions undertaken at the central and local level. Accordingly, the Human Development Report for Albania – 2005 is an invitation to re-open and deepen the debate on the alleviation of poverty and the promotion of gender equality.

Human development in Albania is strongly shaped by our concept of development. It is proven fact that a stable macro-economic framework, no matter how well regarded, is entirely insufficient to fight poverty. Behind the figures of impressive economic growth, poverty intensifies in silence and, as noted from the situation analyses at the regional, municipality and commune level, everything achieved remains inadequate. According to the report, while this trend appears to be more typical for the North-Eastern part of the country, there are many other urban and rural areas that are marked by high unemployment levels, low incomes and only limited access to services. The poor should not suffer from the effects of poverty in silence. Likewise, poverty must not be tolerated by society nor accepted by the state. The real challenge involves the mobilisation of stakeholders, communities and individuals against deprivation. Revising dated policies, prioritizing mobilisation and a fairer distribution of wealth through an integrated and efficient approach are pressing needs required to accelerate the pace of progress in areas with low human development indices. It is only in this way that poverty alleviation will become a practical and attainable objective rather than a distant ideal.

The purpose of development is not only to raise incomes, but it is also for the expansion of equal opportunities for the entire nation's social strata, as growth cannot be achieved without the over-arching and equal inclusion of both men and women. The reality of represented by the continuous decline of gender development indices in Albania, as the report clearly states, is an alarm bell, which continues to be ignored by the majority of Albanian society, including both men and women. The debate based on the insufficient role of women in development is weak and often academic, giving the impression that it is being discussed about gender issues in other countries and rather than Albanian ones. The speedy rectification of these trends requires, first and foremost, a comprehensive political commitment to consider the concept of gender equality as an essential component to the democracy we are trying to build.

In appreciation of the opportunity to forward these thoughts for the National Human Development Report for Albania – 2005, I express my belief that this report will be invaluable to future policy-making, the taking of progressive actions and to the realization of concrete results in the fight against poverty and ensuring gender equality.

- INTRODUCTION
- 6.1 PRO POOR POLICIES AND STRATEGIES
- 6.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF ECONOMIC GROWTH FOR POVERTY REDUCTION
- 6.3 PRO-POOR POLICIES AND STRATEGIES LINKED TO THE NSSED
- 6.4 POVERTY SOCIAL IMPACT ANALYSIS AS A DEVELOPMENT TOOL
- 6.5 HEALTH CARE FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE
- 6.6 GENDER AND EDUCATION
- 6.7 ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND SOCIAL DIMENSIONS OF PRO-WOMEN POLICIES

INTRODUCTION

The analysis in PART A of this Human Development Report has provided a wealth of detail on the performance of the Albanian economy and its impact on society over the past decade and the extent to which it can be characterized as either/ both pro-poor and pro-women. It is clear that the record is mixed on the pro-poor development side, and much needs to be done to intensify efforts on poverty reduction. Efforts in order to reduce the wide economic and social gaps that have emerged in society in terms of social structures and in terms of the disadvantaged regions. Likewise the record over the last decade or more (since the demise of the communist government) on women's development has also been patchy. Important areas of the earlier involvement of women in society and in the economy have been dissipated as the structure of the economy has been transformed through reforms and in some respects women can be considered as "worse off" than before. But in significant areas, including education and health, women are now filling important and complementary roles.

In PART B, the future task and challenges ahead are closely examined in terms of the policy position, which will address pro-poor and pro-women development most effectively. The requirement to meet the challenges in these areas is reinforced by the demands placed on the country in terms of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – and especially MDG 1- on poverty reduction and MDG 3 – on women's development. The core instrument in both areas will be the NSSED and its successor programmes – and the current need to gear up to meet the challenges ahead. This section of the NHDR offers some suggestions in this endeavour.

6.1. PRO POOR POLICIES and STRATEGIES

The policy framework

Albania has in place a large framework of policies, which address the economic, social, security and institutional priorities for the country's development. The MDGs, the Stabilisation and Association Process (SAP), the NATO membership agenda, and the advancement towards market liberalisation and regional integration in general. These frameworks provide an important role for the NSSED. The incorporation of the objectives of EU integration, and phases of this integration into the NSSED will bring about a change in the emphasis of the Strategy, and will enable it to be considered increasingly as a truly comprehensive national strategy. The NSSED and the MDGs, capture the Government agenda for social and economic development, while the SAP provides a strategic guide towards European integration.

Linkages between the NSSED, MDGs and the SAP)

There exists a topical correlation among the three agendas of the NSSED, SAP and the MDGs. They are complementary in the areas they cover, the methodologies they use and the timetables they establish. However, they are also different because they centre on specific priority areas. The MDG agenda represents mainly a set of long-term development objectives and targets but with strong political overtones or inducements for their achievement, the NSSED represents a broad medium-term development strategy, and the SAP represents a specific instrument leading to the country's integration into the European Union.

Under the NSSED and the SAP process, the dimensions of poverty reduction and social and economic development must be maintained, but the focus should be shifted onto efforts to fulfil three essential criteria that bring Albania closer to EU membership: political stability and efficiency, balanced economic development, and the mastering of the *acquis communautaire*. It is very important to establish strong links between all these development agendas and their institutionalisation in the framework of the NSSED. The agendas should complement one another, avoiding overlap or duplication, throughout the processes of planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. The MDGs are now incorporated into the NSSED, providing this Strategy with a long-term clear vision. The first steps have been taken in order to ensure that the SAA (Stabilization Association Agreement) becomes a part of the NSSED.

6.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF ECONOMIC GROWTH FOR POVERTY REDUCTION

Poverty reduction and economic growth

While much debate surrounds the nature of the relationship between economic growth and poverty reduction it is clear that without direct intervention to promote the economic status of the poorest groups and regions, they can be left out of the growth process. Thus, it is clear that while economic growth is necessary it is not a sufficient condition for rapid poverty reduction.

In Albania, “progressive” economic growth and sustainable development at large is considered to be the main vehicle for poverty reduction in Albania. This concept underpins the NSSED. This also implies that the policy position of the authorities cannot be neutral as to poverty reduction and the so-

cial impact of its economic policies. This is the position adopted in the NSSED, which now requires some reinforcement.

Rapid but unbalanced growth

During the last 5-6 years, the Albanian economy has grown rapidly from between 4.7 – 12.7 per cent annually with an average increase in GDP per capita of approximately 4% over the last 10 years. Albania’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP), in nominal terms, was estimated at 822.7 billion Leke in 2003 or 10.4 per cent more than in 2002, and approximately twice as much compared to 1998. The GDP per capita in 2003 was US\$ 1950 or 2.4 times more than in 1998 (in nominal terms). However, the GDP per capita is still one of the lowest in the region.

While economic growth has also brought a progressive reduction of official unemployment (from approximately 20 per cent in 1995 to 15 per cent in 2003, stable inflation rates between 2-4 per cent and a controlled budget deficit have been accompanied by the increasing depopulation and stagnation of the poorest regions. The GDP expansion has also been mainly concentrated in a few sectors, namely construction, external trade and transport. To a great extent, the rapid and indeed often uncontrolled growth of the construction sector has been fuelled by remittances from overseas. However, the agricultural sector, which was and to some degree still is the mainstay of the rural economy has suffered and recorded only minimal growth. In many regions the agricultural sector has stagnated or even declined. Herein lies a major problem for the sustainability of the Albanian economy – the decline in the rural economy which has resulted in massive out migration from these areas. Indeed much of the growth in Albania over the past decade has been

confined to a narrow corridor between Tirana and Durrës. It is encouraging to note that the authorities are concerned by these trends, however the unbalanced nature of spatial economic development in Albania must be addressed more forcefully.

Impact of growth on poverty

It is difficult to estimate in Albania the elasticity of poverty reduction versus the economic growth due to the lack of necessary data¹²². However, taking into account the general economic development and the standard of living in the country, the conclusion can be drawn that the elasticity indicator must vary between the levels of -1.07 and -4.0. Thus supposing an annual average growth of 6 per cent and assuming elasticity levels of -2.5 to -1.07, the MDG Goal 1 of halving the poverty level by 2015 would be attained within a period of 4.3 to 8.9 years based on this scenario. Whereas

with an annual economic growth scenario of 5 per cent, the necessary time needed for the attainment of the Goal 1 varies from between 5.2 to 10.6 years. (see Table 27). This demonstrates how sensitive the rate of overall poverty reduction (defined by income per capita) is to the rate of economic growth. However, this prognosis ignores the impact on income distribution (and the Gini coefficient) and the possible implications for the poorest regions, which could continue to decline and grow poorer. Thus measures must be taken to improve the non-income components of poverty reduction – as outlined in PART A of this Human Development Report.

However, as already understood, the poverty elasticity can be improved through direct social oriented policies and made more reflective of the real situation in the country. For example, the poverty elasticity in the poorest regions could be increased with targeted interventions and appropriate economic and social stimuli through local employment generation, micro-credit, improved social services provision and other programmes. This intervention could rapidly reduce poverty levels, improve the human development indicators, and generate more sustainable and balanced development throughout the country (see below).

Box 21: Future prospects

The economic stability and NSSD forecasts suggest an achievable real annual economic growth of 6 per cent in the medium-term (2004–2007) based on the following considerations:

- Economic growth mainly of service sectors such as construction, transport, agro-industry. As well as developments in the industry sector following the privatisation of some of its components especially the strategic sectors.
- Consolidation of macroeconomic stability through better harmonisation of fiscal and monetary policies;
- Continuation of intensified institutional reforms including public administration reforms;
- Reorientation of budget expenditure towards priority sectors especially health, education, infrastructure and energy;
- Improvement of market institutions and creation of an encouraging economic environment for investment and in particular foreign investment;
- Securing and mobilising foreign financial resources oriented towards poverty reduction.

6.3 PRO-POOR POLICIES AND STRATEGIES LINKED TO THE NSSD

Poverty and growth forecasts of the NSSD

According to the NSSD, the percentage of the population living in poverty will decrease from 25.4 per cent in 2002 (base

¹²² Indicators captured from various living standards surveys are not comparable due to different methodological approaches. For instance, in relation to the inequality level, according to the Living Conditions Survey (LCS) of 1998 the Gini coefficient is 0.48, whereas according to the Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) 2002 the Gini coefficient results to be 0.28. This discrepancy is due to the fact that the first study is based on income whereas the second is based on consumption.

Table 27: Growth rates, poverty elasticity and rate of poverty reduction

Supposed elasticity of poverty versus growth.	A 6% annual economic growth scenario		B 5% annual economic growth scenario	
	Required Accumulative economic growth ¹¹⁵	Number of required years ¹²³	Required Accumulative economic growth ²²	Number of required years ²³
-2.5	29%	4.3	29%	5.2
-2	35%	5.2	35%	6.2
-1.5	47%	6.6	47%	7.8
-1.07	68%	8.9	68%	10.6

Source: The Institute of Contemporary Studies – Macroeconomic Policies for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction, the case of Albania. Based on data from LSMS 2002; Mancellari, Hida.

year) (according to estimates from the 2002 LSMS) to below 20 per cent in 2006, and below 10 per cent in 2015. The number of people living in extreme poverty will drop from 4.7 per cent in 2002, to 3 per cent by 2006, aiming at the total elimination of extreme poverty by 2015. This will only be achieved if there is a pro-poor focus to economic and social policy. The following describes additional measures, which could support these objectives:

- Support for accelerating the transition reforms and the reform process in general as the principal vehicle for poverty reduction and pro-poor initiatives;
- The reform and institutionalisation of the market, with special emphasis on market facilitation for goods and services for poorer families (basic goods and services etc);
- The improvement of governance and institutions to provide public goods and services for poor groups/families in society – with special emphasis on the poorest regions under the decentralisation programme;
- The creation of a climate favouring investments while increasing the possibilities for private undertakings and market entry for all groups in society and in poorer regions;
- Improving linkages between private business and the central and local government which takes into account the needs of poorer families.
- This includes:
 - o Improvement in the legal base: property rights; facilitation of administrative procedures; intensification of the fight against corruption and against tax evasion and smuggling in support of the private sector;
 - o Acceleration of the process of privatisation of the strategic sectors of the economy, as well as better promotion of public services where benefits can be demonstrated to accrue to the poorest groups in society;
 - o Radical improvement in economic infrastructure, especially in the energy sector which takes into account the impact on poor groups and communities;
 - o Continuation of reforms in the financial sector with emphasis on those which have a positive effect on the access for poorest members of society, notably credit support schemes;
 - o Intensification of reforms in the tax and custom administration: increase in number of taxpayers; improved service towards taxpayers; enhanced

¹²³ The number of required years (n) is calculated based on the formula: $\{\ln(\text{required cumulative growth index}) = n * \ln(\text{average annual growth increase index})\}$.

fiscal transparency; reduction of administrative hurdles; computerisation of the tax and customs system. All of these should be undertaken bearing in mind the potential positive effects on the welfare of the poorest groups in Albania

Redistributive policies In addition, redistributive policies should be the focus of the NSSED through:

- Changing the allocation of public resources through altering the pattern of expenditure and taxes raising revenues. As supposed to cutting spending in particular in social sectors such as education, health, sanitation, nutrition;
- Removing hidden and perverse subsidies and tax expenditures which benefit the rich;
- Removing exemption or concessions in the application of tax laws;
- Providing access to micro credit to low-income household and providing loans to small and medium enterprises - with emphasis on increasing access rather than subsidies credit;
- Land reform-access to inputs and credit

for the poor

Improved governance and poverty reduction

Governance issues are important in terms of fighting poverty and ensuring the country's progress towards the attainment of the MDGs and eventually achieving EU membership. Likewise there are key elements of governance that need to be in place to support the effectiveness and efficiency of any pro-poor policy. They consist in observing the rule of law through equitable laws and equitable application and enforcement of law, transparency and accountability, functional decentralization reform and participation.

Institutional focus and monitoring

In the context of advancing the implementing, monitoring and evaluating role of NSSED for the year 2003, efforts were made to improve the NSSED Policy Matrices in four sections: Matrix 2003-Annual Review, Matrix 2004-Annual Plan, Matrix 2004-2007-Mid-Term Plan and Monitoring Indicators. Within this structure, a set of Indices should be devised to assess the NET impact on the poorest groups (and where relevant on women's development). Thus each institu-

BOX 22: NSSED Macro Economic Targets

- GDP will grow by over 18 per cent during a 3-year period (2004–2006), and will double during a 15-year period;
- During the period 2004–2006, GDP per capita will grow from \$1,950 in 2003 to \$2,660 in 2006; The increase in the poorest (extreme) poverty groups should increase be at least 20 per cent higher than these averages
- Over the period 2004–2006, inflation should fall in the range of 2–4 per cent and the inflation of the Poverty Groups food/basic goods basket should be within these ranges
- Enhanced effectiveness of employment policies should be ensured through promoting the development of the productive sectors, and the service sectors in particular. The chief objective should be to reduce unemployment rates from 15 per cent in 2003 to 12 per cent in 2006; The fall in unemployment of the poorest groups in society should be at least within this range
- Liberalization of trade will ensure a major trade opening in terms of reducing tariff barriers and increasing trade coverage achieved. The target is to ensure that the respective indicators amount to 90 per cent over a medium-term period

BOX 23: Good Governance

The process of localising and validating the MDGs has resulted in the identification of an additional goal for Albania: Goal 9 - Good Governance. The Government recognises that it faces low governance ratings; that there is an increasing demand for better governance and increased participation from different stakeholders, from citizens and civil society at local and national levels, as well as from the business and donor communities. Good governance is the main condition for European integration and has also become a political conditionality for major donor assistance to Albania. The identification of Good Governance as an additional relevant goal for Albania has complemented the picture of the MDGs framework, setting in motion a process encouraging qualitative and sustainable development in Albania

Albania National Report on the Progress of Achieving the Millennium Development Goals, 2004, p. 8

tion responsible for direct implementation or oversight of economic and social policies should implement its own priority measures consistent with the relevant sector matrices and a pro-poor bias to its impact taken in to account. Thus the results which appear in the progress reports of each institution will contain: (i) an analysis of the policies and the most substantial measures, their impact (including on poverty incidence where possible) as well as a medium-term perspective; (ii) a matrix with qualitative indicators of the priority measures for 2003; (iii) data on the progress of the output and outcome indicators; and (iv) a matrix of medium-term priority measures for 2004-2007¹²⁴.

Regional policies with a pro-poor focus

The formulation of policies and strategies to address poverty in Albania along with a strong regional dimension is now an urgent priority. Some of the suggestions to this end include:

- Better targeting of vulnerable groups and their geographical distribution during the formulation and implementation of social programmes and policies;
 - Priority given to integration policies in relation to programmes and policies of social assistance and benefits;
 - Programmes and projects that take into consideration the entire definition of the non-monetary dimension of poverty in their formulation and implementation, and also the geographical and social characteristics of the poverty groups;
 - Increased budgetary and extra budgetary support for priority sectors in the framework of NSSD such as education, health, infrastructure and social services;
 - The improvement of the monitoring process of poverty distribution as well as the impact of particular programmes and policies in this field.
- The formulation of specific programmes and policies for the priority development of north-eastern areas in particular the marginalised mountainous regions;

¹²⁴ A current project: "Improve Costing and prioritization of NSSD Public Actions", financed by the World Bank Trust Fund is being implemented by SEDA (www.seda.org.al).

BOX 24: NSSED expected poverty related effects

Infant mortality

is aimed to be reduced from 17.4 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2001 (base year) to 15 deaths per 1,000 live births during a medium-term period (2006), and to 10 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2015;

Maternal mortality

is aimed to be reduced from 22.7 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2001 (base year) to 15 deaths per 100,000 live births over a medium-term period (2006), and to 11 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015;

The incidence of diarrhoeas diseases

is envisaged to decline from 1,200 cases per 100,000 inhabitants in 2001 (base year) to 600 cases per 100,000 inhabitants during a medium-term and long-term;

Literacy

The percentage of people aged 15–24 who know how to read and write is expected to rise from 98.4 per cent in the base period (2001) to 98.8 per cent over a medium-term period (2006), and to 100 per cent in 2015; The ratio between females and males who know how to read and write, should improve from 0.9 and 0.87 of the same age-group in urban and rural areas in 2001 (base year) to 1 by 2015;

Education

Compulsory 8-year schooling completion rate is expected to grow from 97 per cent in 2001 (base year) to 98 per cent during 2003 and to 99 per cent in the medium-term period (2006) and to 100 percent in 2015. At the national level the secondary education enrolment rate is aimed to rise from 42 per cent in 2002 (base year) to 43 per cent in 2003 and to 50 per cent during a medium-term period (2006). The average number of years of schooling is aimed to rise from 9.5 years in the base year 2001 to 10.5 in 2003 and to 10.8 years over a medium-term period 2006, to 13.5 in 2015;

Internet access

The number of Internet users should grow from 0.18 visitors per 100 inhabitants in 2001 (base year) to 1 visitor per 100 inhabitants in 2007, and to 10 visitors per 100 inhabitants in 2015.

Improvement in governance

The control of corruption is expected to grow from 23.2 per cent in 2002 (base year) to 73 per cent in 2015;

Voice and credibility

is expected to grow from 49.5 per cent in 2002 (base year) to 81 per cent in 2015. While the effectiveness of governance is expected to grow from 38.1 per cent in 2002 (base year) to 76 per cent in 2015.

6.4 POVERTY SOCIAL IMPACT ANALYSIS AS A DEVELOPMENT TOOL

The Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA) has the potential to complement the NSSED, to increase its ownership, and to take the debate over reform options and their potential impact on poverty to the lo-

cal level. By analysing the likely impact of reforms, the PSIA can deepen and broaden the debate on national poverty strategies, and at the same time map out what is needed to reach the MDG's by 2015.

The World Bank in Albania has already started to promote the Poverty Social Impact Assessments of the NSSED priorities

in Albania and has finalized two of them so far¹²⁵. While this initiative should be expanded, it is necessary to make the PSIA a policymaking tool of the NSSED rather than just analysing the potentially damaging impacts of policy choices already made¹²⁶.

Strengthening the NSSED for pro-poor and pro-women development

The NHDR 2005 concludes that the NSSED should be subject to upgrading of several policy intervention areas to speed up its pro-poor and women's focus and to respond to the human development of Albania which are now geared toward achieving the MDGs.

6.5 HEALTH CARE FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

Gender and Health issues

In the field of health care, gender distinctions and inequalities should be part of an analyses or aspects of a specific programme where the following major components should be included:

- Who benefits and who loses from health care services (in which cases women and girls do, and in which cases men and boys do); Whose needs have been fulfilled (of women and girls, of men boys, or of all these groups);
- Who participates and in what capacity (as a decision maker or official);
- The potential of the programme and its impact on moderating or minimizing gender inequalities.

Access to health care

Health sector reform should try to enhance equality and access to health care, but it should

BOX 25: The need for data collection for poverty (and gender) analysis

The measurement of the NSSED poverty impact will require the availability of a range of data collection approaches and techniques. Techniques such as the human development indexes at the commune level, focus group interviews, flexible participatory methods: mapping, matrices, diagrams and verbal techniques, open-ended interviews, discussion groups, and exercises that facilitate information sharing, intra-household dynamics, social groups (based on variables such as gender, class, caste, age), and community relationships are all to be employed. Most importantly of all, the continuation of the LSMS, complemented by additional household budget surveys and the conduction of the first Labour Force Survey in Albania are the necessary steps to measure in qualitative terms the impact of any pro-poor and pro-women policies in Albania. Desegregation of data in terms of its differential impact and relevance to pro-women's policies would be valuable.

also focus on the standards of care and services. To this end the analysis of the health sector reforms including a gender perspective needs to be developed. On issues dealing with access to health services, specific research/studies should be conducted, such as:

- Sociological polling which will reveal the attitudes, behaviours, and the care of women and girls concerning their own health;
- The obstacles women and girls encounter in receiving health services;
- The opinion of women and girls concerning the quality of services they receive.
- The provision of training of health care system officials in gender and development issues

Quality of health care services

By aiming to provide a high quality service, it is important for medical professionals to increase their capacity to offer services that suit the specific needs of women and girls. Health policymakers should be

¹²⁵ Co-Plan: PSIA - Decentralisation and Water Sector Privatization Reform in Albania, and SEDTA: Poverty and Social Impact Assessment of Irrigation and Rehabilitation Project, World Bank 2004.

¹²⁶ <http://www.sj-c.net/psia.html>

aware of the specific needs of women and girls, and they should be available to offer services to fulfill such needs. Their focus should be on creating opportunities for receiving such services in any area, on making them more accessible, and timely

as possible so that women and girls may use them.

Creation of multidisciplinary teams (comprised of physicians, psychologists, social workers, paramedics, etc.) in treating the problems of women's health would make it possible to address their health problems from various angles and to offer efficient solutions. In addition, the creation of these teams will ensure that the health problems to be considered and dealt are not only treated as physical problems, but also as psychological and social ones. These multidisciplinary teams should also analyze the causes of these problems and put forward possibilities of how to tackle them. Sexual and reproductive health and rights should be seen as crucial in building women's control to their rights and their bodies.

The Tough Reality of Gender Equality – by Manjola Zeka

Discrimination of women, in Albania, begins in the embryonic stage. For parents and their families, the natural choice is to have a son, rather than a daughter. "Sixty percent of abortions occur as a result of the gender of the baby," says Rubena Moisiu, the director of the Tirana Maternity House. "They are primarily rural women who abort in the second trimester of pregnancy because the baby is a girl." This demonstrates the core of the problem. In a deeply patriarchal society, women in Albania are sidelined in the labor market, in education, and in decision-making. Despite the generally higher number of female students between the ages of 6 and 14 years in the obligatory school system, women barely equal men in higher education, as many are forced into isolation in the family home. In 1997 only 27 percent of the women who completed elementary education in Albania pursued high school studies. Only 23 percent of the women in the labor market are employed full-time, as opposed to the 45 percent of men. As such, Albania ranks among the worst as between European countries with regards to gender equality. This is largely due to the conservative mentality that women's role is to take care of the family, while men should act as breadwinners. The proof is in the decision-making process. Only 7 percent of parliamentary seats in Albania were taken by women between 1997 and 2001, compared to 33 percent taken in the 1970s, and 20.3 percent taken in 2001. Although gender equality represents one of the Millennium Development Goals that Albania is committed to, the figures mentioned above reveal that much work in this area is needed.

Information on health care services

Public information and education programmes should be a constant priority in health policies, especially of women and girls. The pervasiveness of the "health of the mother and child" concept in the sphere of reproductive health may deal considerably with paternal health as an important factor, while encouraging men to be more active in their role as fathers and caregivers to children. The reorganization of health services, the evolution and improvement of their capacities will continue to be a priority both at regional and national level.

6.6 GENDER AND EDUCATION

Gender, education and school drop-outs

Albanian laws on education ensure equal access to the education of girls and boys, however incentives are necessary to prevent the drastic drop in the number of girls and boys attending school in certain regions – mainly the poorest. Poverty, problems of infrastructure, the remoteness of schools, legacies from the past, a lack of security (especially to girls) are some factors that lead to high drop-out rates at a very young age. Education must serve as the vehicle for transforming attitudes, beliefs, and entrenched social norms that perpetuate discrimination and inequality¹²⁷

Emphasis on gender and rural development

Given the agrarian nature of the Albanian economy, there is a great demand for qualified students in rural development. Special attention should be paid to:

- Eliminating gender differences in all the spheres of education so that boys/men and girls/women have equal opportunities for developing their careers and receive professional training;
- Including gender perspective into the school curricula which would increase the awareness of the status, role and contribution of women and men in family and society. It will lead to the promotion of gender equality, cooperation, mutual respect and joint responsibilities between boys and girls at school;
- Developing pre-school education in rural areas and improving the existing system of education;
- Creating opportunities for edifying activities, training courses, vocational

training etc., in order to increase not only the self-respect and self-esteem of rural women and girls, but also their knowledge and professional skills;

- Offering specific training to young couples and families so that families and future generations would be healthy.

The gender sensitive approach will be based on the idea that it is better to prevent problems than to cure them.

6.7 ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND SOCIAL DIMENSIONS OF PRO-WOMEN POLICIES

Women's economic empowerment

Ensuring female property and inheritance would play a crucial role in economic empowerment of women as well as will contribute in preventing poverty, violence, and other development-related problems. The cooperation between private business and employment offices should be strengthened. Entrepreneurial women should acquire knowledge and information about the existing legislation and the conditions of the market economy. The government should encourage small business by giving priority or special treatment to businesses created by women. In the field of women's businesses studies must be conducted with a view to sharing their experiences, fostering their positive experiences and presenting the challenges or obstacles they face in their work. Various kinds of business that can adapt to the geographical, economic, and cultural conditions of particular areas should be encouraged. Organizing constant training with women and girls who wish to start up a business, as well as specific training on managing and enhancing their own businesses could be one of many

¹²⁷ UN Millennium Project 2005, Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women, Task Force on Education and Gender Equality

options to start with. Business assistance to women could be in the form of advocacy, the creation of opportunities, cooperative enterprises, and micro finance for women. In order to have greater impact microfinance programs need to be combined with other types of services like: training, new technology, marketing assistance, etc. Development of national policies, programmes and projects to provide support and care for children, is considered as an important strategy in increasing women participation in paid employment.

Albanian women, political representation and decision making

In order to be empowered “women must not only have equal capabilities (such as education and health) and equal access to resources and opportunities (such as land and employment), they must also have the agency to use those rights, capabilities, resources, and opportunities to make strategic choices and decisions (such as provided through leadership opportunities and participation in political institutions)”.¹²⁸ In order to achieve a higher level of participation for women and girls in decision-making and political spheres, it is necessary to:

- Revise the electoral laws and develop advocacy within parties and Parliament over actions that should aim to increasing the number of women in Parliament: i.e. through establishing the quota system
- Consider quota system as an effective policy tool to increase women representation in political bodies;
- Carry out training sessions on women’s leadership at the national and regional level –;

- Develop a National Action Plan on achieving gender equality and take measures to implement it.¹²⁹
- Have political parties intervene determinedly to increase the measures to support women. These measures should not be simply nominal but be put in place in order to achieve:
 - o Changes in selective procedures,
 - o Creation of representative bodies,
 - o Use of alternative lists,
 - o Setting up of compulsory quotas not only of nominees, but also of the elected,
 - o Reservation of electoral areas for women, etc.
- Strengthen women’s organization which can mobilize the public opinion and pressure government to take specific measures to increase women participation in national decision-making bodies;
- Continue to make Albanian society aware of the fact that women’s active participation in politics will bring new values in political life, new approaches to addressing problems; it will strengthen solidarity and equality; and will contribute to a more peaceful and more democratic society;
- Treat the issue of gender discrimination not only as a problem that concerns only women, but also as a problem of political parties and even of the entire society.

Domestic violence and violence against women

Domestic violence in general, and violence against women are intolerable violations of human rights, and they both have serious health, social and psychological im-

¹²⁸ UN Millennium Project 2005, Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women, Task Force on Education and Gender Equality

¹²⁹ Pino, Saemira, “Once Again on Women and Politics”, published in the Panorama newspaper, October 11, 2003.

pact. Considering the interconnections between the factors responsible for domestic violence-gender dynamics of power, culture and economics-strategies and interventions should be designed within a comprehensive and integrated framework. A multi-layered strategy that addresses the root causes of domestic violence as well as providing immediate services to victims of violence it can be the most effective strategy to minimize it. In order to address these issues the following steps are required on an urgent basis:

- Enforcing legislation on preventing and combating domestic violence, and taking all needed measures to implement it;
- Developing a national action plan on preventing and combating domestic violence from government in collaboration with NPOs, that should also play a crucial role in its monitoring and evaluation;
- Combining all types of interventions like: education legal and judicial enforcement, and other services related to the issue in order to significantly reduce the incidence of domestic violence;
- Enhancing awareness of the problem of violence against women (in particular domestic violence) as a very important step in preventing and combating it. It is the responsibility of all structures of a democratic society, such as: the government, legal, social and economic institutions, civil society, media etc., to undertake specific policies and programs in the sphere of prevention of, and combating, the violence against women;
- Cooperation with centres offering social services to abused women and girls.
- Special programmes on the prevention of violence should be included in schools, workplaces and community groups.
- Advancing the principles of equal oppor-

tunities for each individual by carrying out equal inclusion of women and men, and avoiding the media images created as a result of gender stereotypes;

Women and Crime, and Trafficking of Albanian Women and Girls

The Albanian government, in cooperation with civil society organisations, should monitor and evaluate the implementation of the *National Strategy Against Trafficking of human beings*. The Albanian government and civil society should consider the prevention of trafficking in women and girls as a priority. Promoting public awareness on trafficking of women and girls should not only aim preventing it and not to become a victim, but also creating awareness in terms of accepting victims of trafficking at the moment of their return. In addition, an active prevention should include designing an implementing developing programmes and projects. The creation of jobs for women and girls and their economic empowerment will greatly reduce the number of victims of trafficking.

The criminal justice system should place special focus on improving legislation and what is more, on enforcing legislation to combat trafficking. Justice system officials – prosecutors, judges, lawyers and police officers should receive special training in terms of treating with respect the victims of trafficking. The reintegration of victims of trafficking needs more resources, and it should be looked at in a long-term perspective (apart from shelters, psychological counsels, health care, security and chances to have a house). Efforts aimed at ensuring economic growth to women and girls that have returned from having been trafficked should consist in their training and qualification, enhancement of their professional skills, creation of job opportunities, etc.

The central government, and local government in particular, should develop special employment policies for women and girls returning from being trafficked.

Educational campaigns, projects and programmes to prevent and combat trafficking should be organized continuously, and should suit to specific target groups. Efficient ways must be found of the application of these interventions in distant rural areas with a view to reaching as more individuals as possible, of all ages and professions. The Media should play an important role not only informative, but also educational over the problem of trafficking. Its role should be crucial both in promoting public's awareness of trafficking and analyzing the causes of this problem, the ways of preventing and those of combating it. Also, it is necessary for the victims of trafficking to be included as vulnerable target groups in the programs and projects aimed at combating HIV/AIDS.

- INTRODUCTION
- 7.1 TOWARDS EFFECTIVE REGIONAL BASED STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN DEVELOPMENT
 - 7.1.1 PRO-POOR PROGRAMMES AND INITIATIVES
 - 7.1.2 POLICES AND STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING GENDER ISSUES AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL
- 7.2 PROPOSED PARTICIPATORY MONITORING TOOLS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

INTRODUCTION

One of the most efficient means to achieve the MDGs and address the growing regional disparities in development is to focus on regional development. This chapter in the NHDR addresses how “regionalising the MDGs” will be the most effective means to achieve the MDGs as a whole – and not only those objectives relating to MDG 1 and 3.

“...the concern of high unemployment rates cannot be addressed in the context of general measures taken at the national level”

MDGRR Shkodra p.21,

The NSSED and regional development

The NSSED articulates Albania’s overarching development strategy and defines priorities, development goals and respective costs and monitoring indicators at the national and sector level. The regional dimension is a component of this strategy that aims at not simply to achieve economic growth but also to achieve more qualitative and balanced development in all regions of the country.

7.1 TOWARDS EFFECTIVE REGIONAL BASED STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN DEVELOPMENT

The specific term “pro-poor policies” calls for policies, actions, projects and measures that improve the relative position of poor people. Pro-poor policies could be designed at the national, regional and local levels, but must of course be fully endorsed at the national level. However, the final design and cost estimation should be carried out at the regional and local level. The MDGRRs provide an excellent basis for the development of pro-poor policies and strategies in each region and their accompanying programmes and projects.

“Only 4 out of 32 community based projects presented to the central government in 2003 by the Korça Regional Council for financing, were approved due to political interference”

NHDR discussions in Korça during the UN Poverty Week, 21 October 2004

The following initiatives are put forward to operationalise the pro-poor and pro-women agenda at the regional level. They have been built largely on the basis of the MDG regional reports (MDGRRs) that have been prepared by UNDP over the past 2 years and mark a positive step towards ensuring that regional plans move beyond the drawing board to incorporate “bankable” pro-poor and pro-women’s programmes.

The initiatives are divided into two main categories (clusters) all of which are readily fundable and rapidly implementable programmes which can be taken up by local governments and Community based organizations.

Proposed participatory monitoring tools at the local level

this is the third proposed cluster of initiatives which would support the rapid implementation and monitoring of local initiatives

7.1.1 PRO-POOR PROGRAMMES AND INITIATIVES

Community Driven Development programmes (CDD)

Community-driven development¹³⁰ is the process by which community groups assume control and authority over decisions and resources in development projects which affect their lives. This means reversing control and accountability from central authorities to community organisations in the initiation, planning, implementation, operation, maintenance and evaluation of development projects, with agencies playing a supportive role. Community-driven development is most appropriately used for the provision of local goods, basic services and

¹³⁰ For more information see: Albanian Community Driven Development School, SEDA February 2004, Tirane

the management of natural resources¹³¹.

Community driven development has proved to be an effective mechanism for poverty reduction worldwide, complementing market and state-run activities by achieving immediate and lasting results at the grassroots level. The Albanian experience has also shown that CDD can make poverty reduction efforts more demand responsive, and can enhance sustainability. By devolving responsibilities to the local level, CDD has the potential to be scaled up by occurring simultaneously in a very large number of communities thus having a far-reaching poverty impact. Well-designed CDD programs are inclusive of poor and vulnerable groups, build positive social capital, and give them greater voice both in their community and with government entities.

CDD programs make services responsive to demand expressed by poor men and women. As consumers, community members are the most legitimate, informed, and reliable source of information about their own priorities. Community-developed facilities such as health centres, schools, and water supply systems tend to have higher utilization rates and are better maintained, than when investment decisions are made by actors outside of the community. Experience also demonstrates that demands are better articulated when communities contribute to investment costs and control key investment choices and decisions.

Education for all programme

Achieving the goal of universal primary education completion will require policies

and actions that are dramatically different from those of the past in the form of transformational rather than evolutionary and incremental strategies. Furthermore they will need to be more fully articulated at the regional level¹³².

Other pro-poor measures related to education could be:

- Updating of the school rehabilitation programmes based in the current /recent children density in certain locations (to prevent the financing of schools in locations where there are too few or no children to attend because of migration)
- Prioritisation of investment items to be rehabilitated (i.e. improvement first of toilets and water networks in school premises, because this has multiple effects in their social life and in the life of their families);
- Promotion and better pay of teachers to remain or to teach in rural areas, an improvement in the curricula, since there is an observed deterioration of teaching quality in rural and hilly/mountain areas;
- Promotion and organisation of media (mainly TV) programmes dedicated to didactic/school/education issues as well as lessons and discussions,
- Promotion of targeted vocational schools or training course centres throughout Albania especially in rural areas or in the towns near rural areas.

Rural agriculture promotion

Smallholder farmers and their families constitute perhaps half of the Albanian population.

¹³¹ WB definition (www.worldbank.org)

¹³² The main public investments in education include the following: (1) universal access to primary education, with adequate standards for teachers, classroom facilities and curricula; (2) school meals programmes in all low-income regions, using locally produced foods; (3) special incentives for vulnerable children (in particular extremely impoverished households, orphans, girls) to promote school attendance at both the primary and secondary levels; and (4) national programme to increase the enrolments and capacities of universities and other tertiary education facilities.

The most important initial step in escaping from rural poverty is raising the productivity of smallholder farmers through a package of rural interventions that collectively lead to a “green revolution”. This requires simultaneous investments in soil health through a combination of: chemical and organic fertilizers; improved varieties of crops and livestock breeds; small scale water management; community extension services; with a special focus on reaching women farmers; increased agricultural research; post-harvest storage; improved rural infrastructure in the form of roads; irrigation; power; and, communications and investments in restoring natural resources through conservation, improved land management, secure rights to land and natural assets, carbon sequestration and biodiversity protection.

Urban development solutions for poor migrants to main cities¹³³

A package of investments for urban development which could be rapidly implemented in Albania to improve the conditions of slum dwellers (especially in Tirana region) should include: (1) the security of tenure for slum dwellers; (2) community voice and active participation in systematic urban planning; (3)

expansion and upgrading of urban infrastructure (water and sanitation, solid waste disposal, wastewater treatment, power, public transportation, footpaths and roads, ports); (4) the development of special investment sites (industrial and science parks, export process zones, special economic zones) with the adequate infrastructure and business services to attract internationally competitive domestic and foreign investments; (5) tax incentives for “pioneer” sectors; (6) environmental investments to reduce the pollution of water and air.

Increased access of the poor to science and technology

The long-term driving force of modern economic growth has been science-based technological advance. Poor countries and the poor by and large have been spectators, or at best users, of the technological advances produced in the high-income world. According to the Human Development Report 2004, Albania has 71 telephone mainlines per 1000 inhabitants and as low as 3.9 Internet users per 1000 inhabitants. This calls for a greater emphasis on the use of technology through massive expansion of facilities for information—and-communication technologies (computerisation, e-governance, e-schooling). There is already an opportunity, which needs to be explored. Despite low levels of landline phones and therefore low internet access, Albania has a significant 276 mobile subscribers per 1000 inhabitants (figures from 2002) The growth rate has continued and the figure of mobile users mounts up to about 1,2 million users in 2004. This means communication is today crucial to the everyday life activities of all Albanian families and especially to businesses that contribute significantly to economic growth.

Box 26: The case of Stebleva

Farmers from Stebleva, a mountainous village in the district of Peshkopia, grow potatoes by tradition. However they cannot sell them due to the fact that the road to the town is bad and because they have no vehicles to send sell the produce themselves in the town’s market. The government should encourage the collection of this potato production through a wholesale approach in order to continue production with the money. Thus enabling investments in infrastructure and services leading to a reduction of poverty in this remote area.

Source: Top Channel date 8 April 2004

¹³³ For more information please see: “Tirana, the challenges of Urban Development”, SEDA, ENHR Conference, Tirana May 2003

Nobody's martyrs – by JERINA ZALOSH NJA

The enlightened mind of an urban planner has put the monument of a young man in the center of a school courtyard. It should be the teenager killed in the Second World War battling the fascists, named, Met Hasa. A little boy scratches his nose below the monument under a slogan, which should have been placed by the school administration saying: "Albania, you give me honor!" The teacher sees him. "You dirty bag!" He abandons the pleasure seeking ritual. On one side, a girl and a boy fight over a broom. The girl wins, as usual. This is a school in an impoverished suburb of Durrës, Albania's second largest city and seaport, which is situated close to a chemical waste dump populated in the 1990s by newcomers from impoverished northeastern areas. The connection to the rest of the city is bad. The bus that runs between Porto Romano – the name of the area – and the city center, rolls sluggishly into potholes in the muddy road. Porto Romano became a chemical waste warehouse as part of Albania's industrialization process during communism, until 1990. The waste is primarily lindane, a pesticide that drives away the mice and scabies but not the people in this area. The children carry scars and instead of learning, they fight with one another. In a typical classroom, one-third of the pupils are missing and that surprises no one. Fati, a scar-faced child, wants to be a lawyer. His brother is, at last, a legal emigrant in Italy, while his other six siblings live at home. The rate of cancer among the population in this neighborhood is high, a municipality worker says. Residents have been treated even as far as Bergamo in Italy and in the United States. Jean Arno Deren, the Balkan correspondent for La Libre Belgique, was the first to discover this. "Those are the dramatic consequences of what the Albanians call democracy in transition," he said in his dispatch.

An Italian Euro-parliamentarian then drew the attention of Chris Patten, the European Commissioner; by saying that such an area close to Italy may even endanger Italy. No solution is forthcoming however. Cancer is ravaging the area and Italy may be endangered. Fati's father waits in front of the school, telling me all this. Fati himself, as soon as the bell rings, goes back to the child gang battles in the courtyard.

7.1.2 POLICES AND STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING GENDER ISSUES AND WOMENS DEVELOPMENT AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL

Gender and Poverty

The improvement of women's economic conditions and the empowerment of their role in the development of rural areas requires that along with measures to strengthen the institutions from above, local and regional networks of women's groups and farmers must to be encouraged and supported; they must enter various societies, organizations and groups of community organizations. The role that NPOs have as one of the basic elements of social capital is essential in this process. NPOs still play a weak role in the enhancement of the socio-economic role of women; the government as a regulator and a representative of certain aspects in the development of a free enterprise society must stimulate and expand the net of professional

schools, especially in rural areas.

Women's awareness and information

Women's awareness and information on economic and legal rights should be operational through organisational patterns which should be as close to the needs and realities of the rural areas as possible, away from the stereotypes and the closed work generally practiced by some NPOs.

Box 27: Raising Public Debate on Women's empowerment

The Free Albania Media Forum and the Gender Mainstreaming Project collaborated in the publication of a newspaper Supplement focused on the gender problematic. The Supplement included contributions from distinguished journalists and active actors of the Women's movement in Albanian. The supplement was distributed with three main daily newspapers: Panorama, Tema and Shekulli in 55.000 copies throughout Albania.

Missed Chances of Women in Albania – by EDI LESI

There is a strange cultural contradiction in male-dominated Albania. Women that enter into folk culture are strong, like Shote Galica, the Kosovo Albanian independence fighter of the last century. At home, however, the man generally wants a subservient woman. This phenomenon has historical roots. Several dozen Albanian women have contributed to the development of the country, but scarcely enough to facilitate the emancipation of women in Albania. They include Queen Teuta, who ruled Illyrians, or the Qirjazi sisters, who were instrumental in the development of Albanian schools in more recent years. As a result of the lack of female liberation, the communists, after the Second World War and for the sake of industrial development, sought forced emancipation of women. The results were sometimes ridiculous, sometimes startling. Women were sometimes placed in decision-making positions, not because of their qualities, but because of the quotas. Notwithstanding, before the collapse of communism in 1990, women in Albania had the highest employment levels in Europe, according to some data. Also, women voting rights were sanctioned, especially during that time.

The trend was reversed during transition, despite major events in the past decade that affected women's role in Albania. These included the United Nations 1995 Beijing Conference on gender equality and the 1999 pledge of Southeast European countries at the Sarajevo Summit for the Stability Pact to increase the role of the women in society. Only 5.7 percent of current members of parliament are women, representing the absolute worst figures in the region. The closest match is Bulgaria, with women representing one fifth of its members of parliament. Other countries, Serbia and Croatia, but also Bosnia and the UN-administered territory of Kosovo, are at 30 percent. There is more. Though women comprise 45 percent of the public administration, they account only for 20 percent of the decision-making positions in that administration. There are only four female mayors in the country after the last local elections, or twelve if the rural local administrations are accounted for. Nevertheless, there is a new gender opportunity law and a state committee on women that can design policies to improve the position of women in society.

Box 28: Enhancing the status of women in rural areas

Some of the modalities to enhance the status and condition of rural women include:

- National experts on gender issues must identify and include into NSSD (quantitative and qualitative) gender disaggregated data and also summaries of spaces and deficiencies dealing with gender which have been identified in various needs' assessments, including revisions of various sectors.
- Improvement in compiling data and statistics, divided by sex, and inclusion of gender indexes in the polls to be conducted in the future. Revision of the indexes used in national census, reviews of sectors, research into the living conditions, the poverty index, and so on.
- The analysis of the cost/benefit opportunity from failure to invest in women: (its increasing impact on the integration into EU; in stability); present or potential losses for the country, families and communities vis-à-vis the actual and the required investment into women's economic and social development; leadership; and empowerment.
- The spreading and strengthening of community-based and government-supported systems as an essential part of social policies while giving priority to improving women's status in Albania, particularly rural-area women. Constantly finding out and identifying data that can highlight both the work carried out by women in rural areas and their contribution to various sectors as well as examining the relation that women, as a social group, have to poverty.
- Strengthening the partnership between respective structures of government and women's organizations through regular meetings between their representatives as well as through joint projects and programmes.
- Mechanizing agriculture through various ways so that many processes (currently carried out manually and in primitive ways by women and men) to be supplanted by modern mechanization.
- Improving and developing rural infrastructure including roads, irrigation network, electric power supply, sanitary service, etc.
- Supporting various forms of women's businesses by promoting positive experiences in this field;
- Encouraging the use of instruments that promote low interest-rate credits for women so that they can be able to start up long-term business activities through adopting policies that support affirmative discrimination. It will increase women's incomes, will ensure equal access and control to resources, land, credits, capital and health.

Increasing women's access to credit facilities

This will encourage the skills of women entrepreneurs and channel their energies in productive activities to the advantage of their families and rural communities. This increase will help further advance women's activities and businesses in agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. The economic empowerment of women should be considered as one of the most important lines of development of rural areas and as a crucial factor in increasing women's authority and impact in the family and community. The initiative of a Revolving Fund for Income-Generating Activities implemented by the UNDP Local Government Programme is a good example of providing access to credit for women.

Specific actions and measures should be taken, in the short term, medium and long term, to respond to the needs of women all over Albania and especially in the rural and newly developed peri-urban areas. For poor women, in particular in rural areas, public employment guarantee scheme can be an important intervention for providing work and increasing income¹³⁴.

In order to improve the knowledge on health care of new migrants, it is necessary to provide suitable and adequate information for all ages; it is also necessary to run special programmes on the family planning, reproductive health and STDs.

7.2 PROPOSED PARTICIPATORY MONITORING TOOLS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Poverty-monitoring instruments can be used to enhance popular participation in

Box 29: Women and Migration

Policies and programs for integration of women and girls in urban areas

- Organising and coordinating joint programs between the state institutions and the non-profit bodies to promote development in the areas populated by the new arrivals;
- Creating jobs opportunities for the new arrivals by giving priority to the employment of women and girls, which would significantly improve their status.
- Organising training courses and applying mediation for the employment of women and girls that would significantly raise the well-being standard in their families.
- Developing special educational programmes by encouraging the education of the entire population that has newly arrived, by adapting them to their needs and their possibilities to attend them.

national poverty reduction strategies. Efforts in this context focus on enhancing the transparency and accountability of government agencies – in particular those involved with the delivery of public services. The various steps include the following:

The report card

The report card is a mechanism to generate user feedback on service delivery, convert widespread individual issues into collective issues, and to create a base to launch practical action. Report cards can also achieve public awareness, strengthen civil society initiatives and stimulate reforms by the respective agencies.

Benchmarking civic services

There is little hard data on the performance and qualitative aspects of public services. There is a need to benchmark service standards, identify key issues affecting service delivery, and highlight segments of the population who are most affected. It has to be focused on basic public services, which are

¹³⁴ UN Millennium Project 2005, Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women, Task Force on Education and Gender Equality

of special concern to the poor. These services include: drinking water; energy, health and sanitation; education & childcare and public transport. This monitoring system will generate regional level databases on aspects of quality and performance standards of the selected public services so that local authorities can take the appropriate action in amending the situation

Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPA)

The participatory nature of the PPAs strengthens poor people's influence over decisions that affect their lives, increasing accountability and policy effectiveness. These assessments involve bottom-up planning and implementation of poverty reduction initiatives, as well as providing the basis for ownership and sustainability of the intended initiatives by the target beneficiaries. This tool can be used to identify policy priorities, budget allocations, and the monitoring and evaluation of policy implementation and impact. It shows how people's priorities and experiences are affected by non-income variables such as gender, social exclusion, intra-household allocation of resources, the incidence of crime and violence, physical and social isolation, access to information, access to support networks, and relations with those in power.

Public Audit of Activity/Project and Participatory Public Expenditure Management

To improve the implementation of projects and programmes related to the NSSD, following experiences in other countries it is suggested that a system of public audit

should be institutionalised. At the end of each year, key stakeholders should be invited to a public audit of the activity/project in which the personnel responsible for the activity/project should highlight the inputs and outputs of the activity/project. This will enhance the accountability and transparency of the project/activity, thus enhancing the efficiency. This kind of practice will gradually lead to more conscious efforts concerning budget allocations in order to improve the living conditions and well being of the people of the district.

Participatory Outcome/Impact Monitoring at the regional level

The district level outcome/impact monitoring is to track changes in the well-being of people in the district as a whole, as well as of specific areas within the district, and specific groups living in the district. The main aim of all poverty reduction activities is to improve the well being of people. Outcome/impact monitoring is supposed to provide feedback on the success or failure of poverty reduction efforts and identify areas or groups left out by these developmental efforts. This will enable district leaders to plan further efforts to reach those areas or groups. The outcome/impact monitoring indicators should be developed and discussed through a process of consultation, and should be accompanied with the levels of analysis, frequency of monitoring particular indicators, source of information and data collection tools. It should be noted that these indicators may need to be customised to the specific needs of a particular district.

- INTRODUCTION
- 8.1 INCREASING CIVIL SOCIETY INVOLVEMENT
IN ISSUES OF PUBLIC CONCERN
- 8.2 PARTICIPATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN POVERTY
REDUCTION
- 8.3 CIVIL SOCIETY AND THE MILLENNIUM
DEVELOPMENT GOALS
- 8.4 VOLUNTEERISM AND PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN
POLICIES

INTRODUCTION

Albanian civil society has evolved considerably during the transition period, with the last three years marking a notable increase of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) across all sectors. The introduction of the NSSD, with its emphasis on the provision of services through civil society, has promoted a rapid increase in the number and diversity of NGOs providing services. In addition, donors continue to prioritise service provision in their funding cycles. Local government decentralisation is also slowly opening up opportunities for the NGO sector. Services include health care, child care, vocational training, care for the physical and mentally disabled, HIV/AIDS awareness, and legal assistance to the victims of corruption and human trafficking.

However, sometimes “Non profit Organisations” (NPOs) (which have replaced the term used for NGOs), have difficulty understanding their role in society and most NPO linked projects are a reflection of donor-defined priorities. While these priorities address the broad development needs of Albania, the dependence of NPOs on donors often prevents them from creating coherent strategies and programmes based on the real needs identified in their specific communities. Generally speaking NPOs have no long-term strategies and almost no systems to develop programmes that contribute to the achievement of this strategy. As a result, the over-reliance on donor-mandated programmes is one of the biggest barriers for NPOs/NGOs to overcome in the future.

8.1 INCREASING CIVIL SOCIETY INVOLVEMENT IN ISSUES OF PUBLIC CONCERN

The two last years witnessed the increase of civil society involvement in public affairs and their positive influence in increasing public awareness and encouraging civic engagement in governmental decision making. This represents an opportunity for citizens to voice their concerns and problems through in some instances in non-politically motivated public protests. Several prominent groups have taken the lead in this process. The Citizens’ Advocacy Office (CAO), the Mjaft movement and the Albanian Youth Council have been most active in setting the tone and the pace of these protests and in articulating critical public concerns on a wide range of issues. Many of these movements have a direct bearing on poverty issues and women’s’ development and empowerment.

The successful Mjaft Campaign articulated the main concerns of Albania’s population on a series of themes in a very attractive and striking approach, which relate to women’s issues. The Mjaft weekly themes included the suffering health and education services; blood feuds; trafficking and organised crime; poverty and unemployment; discrimination against women and disadvantaged groups and others.

These topics were accompanied by comprehensive media coverage and led to a considerable impact on the public unlike other sporadic feeble attempts of civil society in the past.

This mounting pressure for civil society action groups has had an immediate impact on the political process. These groups have now become prominent actors in Albanian civic and political affairs. Following these initiatives, politicians are becoming more aware for their role and its impact on society.

Box 30: Examples of public influence on political behaviour

The Minister of Public Order was forced to resign following a unified protest of journalists and civil society organisations after his alleged beating of a television journalist. In a more recent development public debate reached a promising peak following a governmental plan to back an Italian plan for a waste processing and management factory in the outskirts of Tirana, a plan which was denounced publicly by a unified stance of civil society organizations and Albanian businesses. The Prime Minister and the leader of the opposition have also called representatives of civil society in round table meetings, which are positive signs of an expected greater role of civil society in Albania's development.

8.2 PARTICIPATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN POVERTY REDUCTION

Participation in the NSSED

The CSOs participation in the NSSED process has been very pronounced since 2002 and particularly at the local level. The most visible result of such participation in the poverty reduction process is the acceptance of its role as a respectable actor by the government when designing national policies. This active role cemented the cooperation between the civil society and ministries in determining the range of poverty reduction initiatives in the NSSED. Thus, the sectoral strategic priorities list, presented by the respective sectoral civil society groups was incorporated in the data inputs, which were prepared by line ministry technical working groups and served as a basis for the government consultants when preparing the NSSED. (See Box 31).

However, the lack of an effective monitoring and evaluation system undermines the monitoring of the NSSED by CSOs and local communities. There is also limited awareness of the NSSED strategy at the regional and local levels¹³⁵. This shortcoming will have to be addressed if the NSSED is to achieve its objectives and the outcomes are to be verified.

Participation at the local level

While existing legislation provides for the participation of citizens in decision-making at the local level, this has not effectively been achieved because of (a) the absence of detailed rules at the local level facilitating participation; (b) citizens' lack of awareness of their rights and the responsibilities of local governments; and (c) widespread apathy for civic engagement in governance¹³⁶.

¹³⁵ World Bank Report on "The Legal And Regulatory Environment For Civil Society And Civic Engagement In Albania" May, 2004

¹³⁶ Ibid

Box 31: Action priorities suggested by the civil society in the NSSD¹³⁷

Education

- Financial decentralisation and transparency in resource distribution;
- The need for a draft of national education standards;
- Programmes and projects that would increase the number of students in respective educational levels, as well as the need to encourage private schools and establish regulations for them.

Health

- Restructuring private sector health services, improving health infrastructure;
- Empowering health insurance schemes, introducing of managerial programmes for hospitals, and training of health personnel etc.

Employment Policies;

- Providing stronger support for workers rights through developments in the legislative framework;
- Increasing the capacities of local governments in the area of employment and social services;
- Creating institutional agreements to eliminate the informal labour market;
- Establishing close relationships between professional treatment and the demand of the labour market;
- Development of labour programmes for women and youth;

Social Protection

- Permitting financial norms on economic assistance benefits;
- Expanding and further distribution of social services;
- Drafting continuous programmes about the integration of the vulnerable groups of needs;
- Supporting the social services offered by NGOs etc.

Social Safety

- Promoting the stability of private institutions by offering them equal opportunities;
- Improving the market for social insurance;

Agriculture

- Strengthening of land owners;
- Promoting the food industries;
- Activating funds that guarantee loans to farmers;
- Diversifying crops;
- Marketing growth through infrastructure development; Creating better institutional perspectives, which should respond to farmers' needs.

8.3 CIVIL SOCIETY AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

A gradual shift of the CSOs from project-focused activities to specialisation in various fields for innovative initiatives in policy processes and advocacy is evident. There is also an emergence of civil society coalitions and networks that gradually recognise the

value of joint action to more effectively address their concerns, efficiently utilise limited resources and influence national policies. The MDGs in this context present a good entry point for providing broader opportunities for these networks to identify, and advocate for the interests of communities and excluded groups. Hence, the capacities of the CSOs ought to be strengthened so they can be engaged effectively in the policy making

¹³⁷ Partners Albania - A study from Anesti Kashta: Public Participation Process during the formulation of the National Strategy for Economic and Social Development 2002-2004) . p.7

processes to ensure the country's move towards achieving the MDGs – as partners, advocates for citizens and excluded groups and as monitors, to hold the government accountable in the development process.

Achieving the MDGs is the collective responsibility of all stakeholders. It is understandable that real participation makes the entire process longer but it is essential to generate a stronger sense of national ownership for implementation and monitoring of MDGs. According to the NSSD Annual progress report (June 2003), the Government remains open to public participation, but there has been limited progress in institutionalising participation in policy making. Participation during the preparation of the NSSD set a precedent for civil society involvement in public policy formulation, but was not sustained. The following steps are considered useful to encourage CSO cooperation:

- The culture of networking among the CSOs can best be fostered through practical initiatives showing the value and benefits of working together as a consolidated civil society force;
- Capacities for conducting credible policy research exist, especially among academic institutions and think tanks, but it should be further enhanced among a wider group of local NGOs;
- Communities need to be empowered to be able to participate equitably and represent themselves in the policy making process.

8.4 VOLUNTEERISM AND PRO-POOR AND PRO-WOMEN POLICIES

When analysing the human development situation of a country, the NHDR highlights achievements, opportunities as well as challenges. Volunteerism is such an enor-

mous asset for social and economic development, that it would seem necessary for the NHDR to shed light on it. Volunteering is a worldwide form of social behaviour deeply embedded in traditional social structures. As a result, its many manifestations are strongly influenced by the histories and cultures from which they emerge. If on an individual level, volunteerism contributes to the capacity building processes by helping the individual volunteer to develop marketable skills, providing access to workplace networks and boosting confidence and self-esteem, on a social level, volunteering makes significant economic and social contributions to development.

First of all, volunteering makes an important economic contribution to society, delivering impressive economic benefits. In countries where volunteer work has been empirically studied, its contributions are estimated to be up to 14 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product. Secondly, participation has long been seen as an essential element of good governance and development that contributes to a more cohesive and stable society. This is a key means by which individuals articulate their engagement as citizens, and build trust and reciprocity among one another. Third, volunteering helps to integrate people into society who are excluded or marginalised, for example women participating in volunteering can offer opportunities for self development and provide a valuable grounding in the practice of citizenship. Finally, volunteering has a role to play in promoting full employment by enhancing the employability of unemployed people, as it can lead to the creation of new jobs by developing services, which are later taken over by the state and market and turned into paid jobs.

The solidarity and creativity of millions of ordinary people, channelled through

volunteerism, are key to achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Efforts on the part of national governments, supported by the international community, can only complement what ultimately will depend on the full involvement of people and communities. The existing research on and the numerous examples of volunteerism at local, national and international level indicate the importance of volunteerism for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), through building social capital, promoting more participation and self-initiative and thereby establishing or stabilising democratic processes, as well as contributing to economic growth and protecting environmental assets. Volunteerism, as a cross-cutting social behaviour, takes place in all fields of society. Data on formal volunteerism in several countries suggest that a large number of volunteers – individuals and groups – are involved in initiatives related to all the MDGs and their related targets.

In light of these considerations, this National Human Development Report as an advocacy and policy tool, will briefly highlight the opportunities that could be harnessed to further stimulate volunteer contributions to pro-poor and pro-women policies. This will be done, in order to enable national policy and decision-makers to tap the potential of volunteerism for development, as well as to identify the major challenges that should be addressed and overcome to fully release the potential of volunteerism for development.

MDG no. 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Volunteerism for pro-poor policies

Creating opportunities for all members of a community to influence and contribute

to their own development process, is central to activities relating to the reduction of poverty and the improvement of human conditions.

Social cohesion brought about by volunteer action and self-help volunteer groups is an important ingredient in the fight against poverty and hunger; there is ample evidence about the importance of social cohesion (achieved via volunteer practices) and of self-help volunteer groups in the fight against poverty and hunger (the 1st MDG). One illustration is the many micro-credit groups that are very much present and frequent in Albania which revolve around a social dynamic that has characteristics of volunteerism, and strengthens the capacity of the local population for self-administration in their efforts to improve nutrition and other basic needs.

Working primarily at community level with a range of development partners, volunteering focuses on activities aimed at strengthening local capacity, fostering ownership and participation, and building on existing forms of voluntary action as a catalyst for social and economic development – all key components for people-centred and people-driven development.

Within a broad conceptual framework, it is possible to identify at least three main ways through which volunteerism can work for pro-poor policies. First of all through individual volunteers, who thanks to their voluntary actions can help support people living in poor conditions. The work of lot of ordinary volunteers can go from extending technical support to public institutions in poverty mapping and analysis; to assisting in the organisation and coordination of hunger prevention and mitigation plans; providing technical assistance aimed

at enhancing local productive systems and income-generating activities, such as household agriculture, informal sector and rural off-farm activities; or promoting income-generating activities, such as training farmers to use the Internet and other information and telecommunications technology (ICT) or marketing handicraft produced by unemployed artisans more effectively over the Internet.

Secondly, volunteerism can work for pro-poor policies through volunteer-involving organizations (VIOs), enabling community groups to prioritise needs and engage in development initiatives or encouraging and supporting community-based organizations (CBOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to become providers of development resources such as micro finance and extension services, especially in remote areas.

Finally, through volunteer networks, volunteer activism can empower local groups, such as associations or cooperatives, to share good practices on production methods, natural resource management and disease control. As previously mentioned the essential role played by civil society as a partner to achieve the targets of this MDG has already been widely recognised. This is evidence of the importance of volunteerism, which is embedded in civil society action. In addition, in order to be effective and sustainable, development initiatives need to be solidly anchored at the grass root level. The action of networks of volunteer groups range from the grassroots to the global level, the above-mentioned civil society organizations being one example among many. Therefore, by becoming partners in global alliances, volunteer groups can help to anchor such alliances at the grassroots.

MDG no. 3: Promote gender equality and empower women. Volunteerism for pro-women policies

Although it is not the only determining factor, poverty has a noticeable effect on the social exclusion of individuals, families and various groups of the population such as women. Women play a pivotal role in family and in social cohesion and are engaged in a wide range of economic activities. Their voluntary and collective engagement in development constitutes a formidable force for social and economic transformation.

Volunteerism has also been instrumental for the 3rd MDG, related to gender equality and the empowerment of women. While there is still need for improvement, many gains have been achieved during the past few decades, and volunteerism, through activism, significantly contributed to a change in societies' attitudes towards women. There have been a multitude of initiatives to empower women, the small self-help cooperatives worldwide being one example which secure additional income for women through sale and marketing of their hand-woven fabrics. Volunteering uses its outreach capacity and its proximity to volunteer-involving organisations and its networks, to help tap the huge potential of women for development and social change. It further provides practical support to women's groups in such areas as literacy, effective management, financial systems, micro-credit, and income generation.

Volunteer activists form the back-bone of the international's women's movement, raising their voices on policies that have impact on women, speaking from their everyday practical experience on the ground. Working to mainstream gender through society, they assist development institutions to map

and collect data on gender disparities; develop the capacity of institutions to properly use gender specific data at local and national levels; provide technical support to programmes targeting single mothers; promote the potential of the Internet and other information and communications technology (ICT) as a library of information and research tools, and to raise awareness and assist national initiatives promoting female education.

Through volunteer-involving organizations (VIOs), the concept of volunteerism can work for pro-women policies helping local groups advocate for compulsory education for girls as well as boys; supporting initiatives related to protecting female teenagers, including family planning; promoting advocacy activities for a greater gender bal-

ance in key institutions such as parliaments and training gender-focused organizations in intensive use of information and communication technology for advocacy work. Finally volunteer networks help expand national and international networks of gender-promoting VIOs and facilitate the exposure of gender-oriented VIOs to innovative approaches on gender equality by like-minded organizations.

While these points highlight only a few examples of the involvement of volunteers in helping meet the goals set by the international community in the Millennium Declaration, they exemplify how volunteerism plays a crucial role in all targets of MDGs regarding the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Box 32: “Volunteerism brings change” – at least for Radat women

Finally, water is coming into Radat. It is not a dream anymore but just the simple truth. Years and years of suffering finally came to an end, and all of this due to volunteerism and Community Based Organizations. Radat village is stretched out over Dropulli Poshtëm Commune, bordering with Greece. It is the last village of the commune not only from the geographical position, but also economically. None had ever reached out to this village before, to do something for the villagers. But, this fact did not stop Local Governance Programme to help villagers create their CBO. Radat CBO was formed on February 2004 and they immediately registered their CBO in Dropulli i Poshtëm commune. After lots of meeting between them to discuss the main priorities of the village, Radat CBO managed, with the help of Dropulli commune and LGP staff in Dropulli i Poshtëm commune, to implement a solution to one of the basic problems the “Construction of Water Supply System”.

All the villagers are old people nearly 60-70 years old, there is just one young man who is forced to live there because of his family problems. Water has been a real problem in this village. Women were obliged to go and carry water from two km away with the help of animals or by carrying barrels. It is not the distance that kills me,- said one of the women, but now I am not a young woman anymore. I need water twice a day to supply the needs of my family and the domestic animals we keep, -she said, which takes me four hours a day. Thanks to UNDP and the commune, now we have water and we have no more problems.

It was great to see all the women and men with their spades and shovels opening up the channels. Age did not matter for them to be able to construct the deposes at the top of the village. They carried all the materials by animals and they finished constructing the depo in a record time for their age. It does not matter if you live at the top of the hill or down in the field, if you have the will and if you are united you can make changes for the better, said the Head of Radat CBO Mr. Jorgo Mari. First, we didn't believe it, but now that water is coming to our homes I am convinced that volunteerism and unity can reach everywhere even the highest place, more than the government itself.



Special contribution of Mr. Arben Malaj – Minister of Finance

Albania has been identified as one of the countries that have made considerable progress in contextualizing and implementing the Millennium Development Goals, by making them a fundamental part of the country's National Strategy for Socio-Economic Development (NSSSED). Some of the most important steps that have established positive base for success relate to the formulation of a strategic document that identifies and articulates Albania's development priority policies and objectives to be reached by 2015. These include the establishment of basic indicators that will measure concrete progress; identification of a "framework" of standards for the continuous preparation and implementation of national programmes for social and economic development; better coordination and integration of the country's main agendas, such as poverty reduction, the EU stabilisation and Association process, and increasing regional cooperation.

In the framework of the NSSSED, recommendations and priority actions have been consolidated at the national, regional and local levels with an emphasis on development policies, financing, available human resources, increasing levels of participation of civil society and academia, as well as the coordination of international support.

With regards to the above, this Human Development Report for Albania 2005 comes at the right time to reassess efforts and current challenges facing the alleviation of poverty and women's development. As such, it displays a new, more qualitative and innovative approach for the future. Despite the fact that the report has been prepared independently, the involvement of the department for the National Strategy of Socio-Economic Development at the Ministry of Finance, as part of the main working group, testifies once more of the increasingly significant role that government institutions contribute in the production of these reports for more effective policy-making in Albania.

I would like to express my belief that this report, as has been the case with the previous ones, will further stimulate the intensive focus of politics, academics, civil society, mass media, businesses and other major stakeholders in the main challenges of social and economic development of the country. From this perspective, I would also like to express my gratitude to the UNDP mission in Albania, as these analytical policy documents have prompted a renewed vitality in the fight against poverty and towards sustainable and inclusive economic development in Albania.

A young child with light-colored hair is sitting on a large, light-colored rock. The child is wearing a dark jacket with light-colored stripes on the sleeves and light-colored pants. They are holding a long, thin wooden stick vertically in front of them. The child's expression is neutral, and they are looking slightly to the right of the camera. The entire image is overlaid with a semi-transparent blue filter.

CONCLUSIONS AN
RECOMMENDATIONS

PART C

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this concluding PART of the NHDR 2005 some conclusions and recommendations on a future agenda are set out for the government, CSOs, the international community and the UN system in order to pursue a pro-poor and women focus in the development agenda.

While the **time frame for the implementation of the recommendations** are open, the imperative to deliver on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) over the coming decade 2005-2015 notably on Goals 1 and 3 (poverty and women's development respectively) imparts a sense of urgency to the priorities and follow-up action required and described in outline below. Thus the pro-poor model must combine a marked bias towards addressing the special needs of women who have been disproportionately disadvantaged by the development patterns observed in Albania over the past decade.

The NHDR 2005 adopts the position that the extent to which development policies and strategies have been pro-poor and pro-women can be defined in terms of the degree to which it has

- (a) Reduced poverty over time and especially for women;
- (b) Been directed at the sectors where the poorest groups and where women are concentrated;
- (c) Is supportive of lagging regions; and
- (d) Does not seriously compromise economic growth at the expense of meeting the needs of the poorest.

SNAPSHOT OF ACHIEVEMENTS

- Albania's PRSP fully aligned with the MDGs;
- Declaration passed in Parliament supporting the monitoring and achievement of the MDGs, thereby ensuring strong political support within Albania;
- Widespread knowledge of the MDGs amongst the citizens of Albania as a result of a concerted and constant media campaign;
- National MDG Report formulated in a participatory manner and launched jointly with the PRSP Progress Report;
- Demand for democracy increased through sub-national localisation of the MDGs and formulation of MDG Regional Development Strategies and Reports.

CHALLENGES AHEAD

- Further harmonization of Government fiscal, crosscutting and sectoral development policies with the MDGs – until now no discussion has taken place whether the budgetary allocations are consistent with the achievement of MDGs!
- Further integrating the PRSP and the Regional Development Strategies based on the common MDG priorities;
- Gender equality is a crosscutting concern for all the MDGs, but its proper place still needs to be clearly articulated in targets, indicators and strategies to achieve the goals at the National level¹³⁸.
- Using the CEDAW and Beijing monitoring and review processes to draw attention to progress, obstacles and failures to implement the necessary gender equality

¹³⁸ UNIFEM, 2004 Pathway to Gender equality: CEDAW, Beijing and the MDGs

measures under the MDGs can help to ensure that national commitment to the gender dimensions of the MDGs does not wane¹³⁹.

- Updating of existing MDG costing exercise based on closer links with government budgeting processes;
- Support to fiscal decentralization to support achievement of the MDGs at the local level as prioritized in the MDG Regional Development Strategies;
- Activating a localized “MDG 8” through private-public partnerships to support the achievement of the MDGs;
- Continued capacity building support offered to civil society organizations to ensure their participation in, and monitoring of, MDG inclusive policy processes.

A FORWARD AGENDA FOR STAKEHOLDERS

Building partnerships

As stated at the outset, it is envisaged that the recommendations in this Human Development Report represent a start on a process of accelerating the pro-poor and women’s agenda in Albania. The principal partners in this endeavour will be the Government – operating through the Central Ministries and Local Government, UNDP, the donor community and Civil Society – especially the CBOs at the local level.

Equally important will be the need to bring on board the private sector as a socially aware and responsible partner in development through the many modalities that are now emerging in the form of *Public-Private Partnerships* – this includes the United Nations through the *UN Global Compact*. Indeed the Millennium Declaration itself

states that the partnership approach is essential if the goals are to be met worldwide. This applies equally to Albania.

Critical role of the EU Accession process

Underpinning all of the efforts outlined under the pro-poor and pro-women agenda will be the steps taken to push forward the EU accession process (SAP) and its closer linkages to the NSSD and the MDGs.

The Linkages between the NSSD, SAP and the MDGs

Albania has in place an impressive framework of policies, which address the economic, social, security and institutional priorities for the country’s development. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Stabilisation-Association Process (SAP), NATO membership agenda, and the advancement towards market liberalisation and regional integration in general, provide an important framework for the NSSD. The incorporation of the EU integration objectives and phases into the NSSD will bring about a change in emphasis of the Strategy, and will enable it to be considered increasingly as a truly comprehensive national strategy. The NSSD and the MDGs capture the Government agenda for social and economic development, while the SAP provides a strategic guide towards European integration. The Albanian government has recently elaborated a comprehensive analysis with the overall goal to develop strategic, integrated, and accountable planning architecture for Albania. This would enable the Council of Ministers to provide better strategic policy direction within a sound fiscal framework and harmonize and streamline existing systems within a new, integrated planning system. It is important however,

¹³⁹ Ibid.

that this institutional reform should be consulted with civil society and participation at large should be encouraged and strengthened as an essential component of policy development.

UNDP – Country Programme – forward looking

The upcoming UNDP Country Programme (2006-2010) presents a vision and a programmatic framework for the UNDP over the coming four years. UNDP is invited to examine how the conclusions and recommendations in this NHDR can be taken forward in a pro-active manner. Of particular importance will be the realization of the Regional Development Strategies and the Regional MDGs through the elaboration of specific projects in support to the poor and women at the local level.

United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF).

The recent Common Country Assessment (CCA) of the UN system activities in Albania has been centred on how the UN can support the achievement of the MDGs. Given the focus of this NHDR on MDGs 1 and 3, it is clear that many of the initiatives suggest in this report will be taken up over the next programming period to 2010. This is likely to be reflected in the UNDAF – United Nations Development Assistance Framework.

- The Millennium Compact is the prime vehicle for driving the MDG agenda over the period to 2015 – 2015 marks the end of the first real programme period for all the MDGs. To support the country MDG programmes, the UN system has recently revamped the guidelines for the The Millennium Project – and established the needed action for the achievement of the MDGs.

Follow-up action

In the follow-up to this NHDR, the UNDP will be at the forefront in raising the level of debate on the issues raised and the programmatic and development action required – particularly at the regional and community level. This will be done –through, among others, the Regional Development Strategies. The support and engagement of all stakeholders in this exercise and addressing the challenges ahead is envisaged particularly in the following terms:

- Well publicized launching of the report accompanied with briefs, press kits, preliminary meeting with journalists.
- Advocacy tour on the report in the university towns where the report will be presented and discussed with the objective of bringing the issues of poverty and gender to the forefront of public debates;
- Round table discussions with journalists where the issues of poverty and gender will be scrutinized and fed to the media reporting throughout the year.
- A prime time debate on television where the report will be presented and discussed among a panel of distinguished experts from the government and civil society.

ANNEXES

○ ANNEX 1 A BANK OF PROJECT PROPOSAL BRIEFS – QUICK WIN INITIATIVES

○ ANNEX 2: EXPLANATORY NOTE ON THE CALCULATION OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES – ALBANIA 2004

ANNEX 1:

A BANK OF PROJECT PROPOSAL BRIEFS – QUICK WIN INITIATIVES

MDG Show case /Pilot Demonstration: Make 2015 Happen Now!

It is a logical expectation that after a long advocacy around the country and a whole process of participatory preparation of MDGRR and Regional Development Strategies local authorities and other stakeholders (and especially the poor)

raise the question of funding to these proposed interventions in order to achieve MDGs in the country. However, in order to make the MDGs a tangible reality, the report suggests the need to consider two pilot local government units – a municipality and a commune, and apply numerous measures and interventions provided in the MDGRR. This will be done in order to convert these priorities into pro-poor and pro-women demonstration pilots to show what are in practical terms the MDG Goals to be achieved in the year 2015

MGD 2015 Pilot 1

Pro –poor Policy framework	Achieve all MDG Goals
Proposed Project at the local level	Two LG units
Specific Project activities	Continuous technical assistance of selected NPOs or senior local and foreign experts from design to implementation and start up Capacity building Design of measures to be taken from GIS land management to interventions in schools, health centres, curricula Implementing of specific projects, construction, installation, production
Methodology	Combination of CDD approach with modern technology application such as satellite communication, distant training and communication, videoconferences, on job training, etc (to be defined)
Expected MDG related outputs	Achieve all MDG Goals in three years
Execution Agencies	LGU, NGOs, CBOs, Donors, GoA

Proposed Regional Pilot project 2

Pro –poor Policy framework	(i)Improve education enrolment (ii) combat child nutrition (iii) combat extreme poverty (iv) integration Roma and Evgjit in the education system
Proposed Project at national level	Elementary School Enrolment Promotion (ESEP) through health toolbox of measures
Specific Project activities	Distribution of basic nutrition (one egg, milk and cheese etc) and Vitamins(inc. other medicines) to the poor kids who go to school
Methodology	Being interested to get food, medicines and vitamins the parents are obliged to send kids to school where they stay to learn and have a social life (school life)
Expected MDG related outputs	Eliminate hungry and malnutrition for kids Improve kid's health protection through medicines and vitamins, Increased enrolment and reduction of drop out rates Avoid social exclusion of Roma and Evgjit kids
Execution Agencies	CBOs, Education Departments of LG

Proposed Pro women Regional Pilot project 3

Pro –poor Policy framework	Maternal health care
Proposed Project at the local level	Establish or re-establishment of maternal health care centers in rural areas
Specific Project activities	Refurbishment of existing mother health care centre or constructing a new one where does not exist. Installation of new modern basics equipment of diagnosis. Public awareness and information on the location of specific diagnosis (like control for breast cancer or other diseases)
Methodology	Cooperation with NPOs and LGUs based on CDD practices starting with design phase. Basic services and several important diagnosis and medicines should be offered free of charge. Home visits by doctors
Expected MDG results achieved	Improved mother and child health care
Execution Agencies	LGU, NGOs, CBOs, Donors

Proposed Pro women project 4

Pro –women Policy framework	Education raising awareness of women
Proposed Project at national level	Use of media as an education tool to increase women's awareness about rights and opportunities
Specific Project activities	Specific education programs in local and national TV particularly in the Public TV
Methodology	Survey of certain rural areas based on cooperation between NPOs, LGU and implementing through CDD practices
Expected MDG results achieved	Promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women
Execution Agencies	NGOs, CBOs, Public TV

ANNEX 2:**EXPLANATORY NOTE ON THE CALCULATION OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES – ALBANIA 2004****Methodology, meaning and the calculations of the HDI indexes.****The human development index (HDI)**

The HDI is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development:

- A long and healthy life, as measured by

life expectancy at birth.

- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weight) and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (with one-third weight).
- A decent standard of living, as measured by GDP per capita (PPP US\$).

Before the HDI itself is calculated, an index needs to be created for each of these dimensions. To calculate these dimension indices: the life expectancy, education and GDP indices minimum and maximum values (goalposts) are chosen for each underlying indicator.

Performance in each dimension is expressed as a value between 0 and 1 by applying the following general formula:

$$\text{Dimension index} = \frac{\text{actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

The HDI is then calculated as a simple average of the dimension indices.

Calculating the HDI

The calculation of the HDI is based on data from LSMS-2002. According to LSMS-

2002 the geographical data are at areas level as following:

Tirana: Municipality of Tirana

Coastal area: Delvine, Durres, Fier, Kavaje, Lac, Lezhe, Lushnje, Mallakaster, Sarande and Vlora.

Central area: Berat, Devoll, Elbasan, Gjirokaster, Kolonje, Korce, Kruje, Kucove, Malesi e Madhe, Mat, Miredite, Peqin, Permet, Pogradec, Puke, Skrapar, Shkoder and Tepelene.

Mountain area: Bulqize, Diber, Gramsh, Has, Kukes, Librazhd and Tropoje.

Goalposts for calculating the GDI

Indicator value	Maximum value	Minimum value
Life expectancy at birth (years)	85	25
Adult literacy rate (%)	100	0
Combined gross enrolment ratio (%)	100	0
GDP per capita (PPP US\$)	40,000	100

	Total national income (in 1000 lek)	Distribution factor	Total GDP in PPP	Total GDP in PPP per capita	GDP Index	Life expectancy index	Education Index	HDI Index
Tirana	50487381	43.58%	6550701752	10194	0.772	0.823	0.894	0.830
Coastal	40569276	35.02%	5263834734	7835	0.728	0.823	0.842	0.798
Central	23512352	20.30%	3050710881	2131	0.511	0.823	0.840	0.725
Mountain	1279708	1.10%	166041160.9	454	0.252	0.823	0.819	0.632
Total	115848716	100.00%	15031288528	4830	0.647	0.823	0.843	0.771

1. Calculating the life expectancy index

The life expectancy index measures the relative achievement of a country in life expectancy at birth. For Albania, with a life expectancy of 74.4 years in 2002, the life expectancy index is 0.823.

$$\text{Life expectancy index} = \frac{74.4 - 25}{85 - 25} = 0.823$$

Source of data is INSTAT (Population projection 2001-2021, page 11)

2. Calculating the education index

The education index measures a country's relative achievement in both adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment. First, an index for adult literacy and one for combined gross enrolment are calculated. Then these two indices are combined to create the education index, with two-thirds weight given to adult literacy and one-third weight to combined gross enrolment. For Albania, with

an adult literacy rate of 94.4 % in 2002 and a combined gross enrolment ratio of 64.2% in the school year 2002, the education index is 0.843.

$$\text{Adult literacy index} = \frac{94.4 - 0}{100 - 0} = 0.944$$

$$\text{Gross enrolment index} = \frac{64.2 - 0}{100 - 0} = 0.642$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Education index} &= 2/3 (\text{adult literacy index}) \\ &+ 1/3 (\text{gross enrolment index}) = 2/3 (0.944) \\ &+ 1/3 (0.642) = \mathbf{0.843} \end{aligned}$$

Source of data is LSMS-2002 (Students in primary, secondary and tertiary education level, Population 6-23 years old, Enrolment rate, Illiteracy rate, literacy rate)

3. Calculating the GDP index

The GDP index is calculated using adjusted GDP per capita (PPP US\$). In the HDI, income serves as a surrogate for all the dimensions of human development not reflected in a long and healthy life and in knowledge. Income is adjusted because achieving a respectable level of human development does

not require unlimited income. Accordingly, the logarithm of income is used. For Albania, with a GDP per capita of 4,830 (PPP US\$) in 2002, the GDP index is 0.647.

$$\text{GDP index} = \frac{\log(4,830) - \log(100)}{\log(40,000) - \log(100)} = \mathbf{0.647}$$

The Distribution factor, used to calculate the GDP (PPP US\$) at zone level, has been calculated as ratio of the share income of the zone overall total income at the national level. After that, the GDP (PPP US\$) of the zone is calculated by multiplying the total GDP (PPP US\$) at national level with the distribution factor. The Source of these data is Ministry of Finance.

Source of data is Ministry of Finance (Total national income (in 1,000 Leke), GDP in PPP per capita)

4. Calculating the HDI

Once the dimension indices have been calculated, determining the HDI is straightforward. It is a simple average of the three dimension indices.

Auxiliary table

	Students in primary, secondary and tertiary education level	Population 6-23 years old	Enrolment rate	Illiteracy rate	Literacy rate
Tirana	70396	94120	74.8%	3.3%	96.7%
Coastal	204966	319613	64.1%	5.8%	94.2%
Central	286823	452854	63.3%	5.7%	94.3%
Mountain	83503	139060	60.0%	7.2%	92.8%
Total	645688	1005647	64.2%	5.6%	94.4%

	Total national income (in 1,000 Leke)	Distribution factor	Total GDP (PPP US\$)	GDP in PPP per capita	Index
Tirana	50487381	43.58%	6550701752	10194	0.772
Coastal	40569276	35.02%	5263834734	7835	0.728
Central	23512352	20.30%	3050710881	2131	0.511
Mountain	1279708	1.10%	166041160.9	454	0.252
Total	115848716	100.00%	15031288528	4830	0.647

$$\text{HDI} = 1/3 (\text{life expectancy index}) + 1/3 (\text{education index}) + 1/3 (\text{GDP index}) = \text{HDI} = 1/3 (0.823) + 1/3 (0.843) + 1/3 (0.647) = 0.771$$

The human poverty index (HPI-1)

While the HDI measures average achievement, the HPI-1 measures deprivations in the three basic dimensions of human development captured in the HDI:

- A long and healthy life—vulnerability to dying at a relatively early age, as measured by the probability at birth of not surviving to the age of 40.
- Knowledge—exclusion from the world of reading and communications, as measured by the adult illiteracy rate.
- A decent standard of living—lack of access to overall economic provisioning, as measured by the un-weighted average of two indicators, the percentage of the population without sustainable access to an improved water source and the percentage of children under weight for age.

Calculating the HPI-1 is more straightforward than calculating the HDI. The indicators used to measure the deprivations are already normalized between 0 and 100 (because they are expressed as percentages), so there is no need to create dimension indices as for the HDI. Originally, the measure of deprivation in a decent standard of living, also included an indicator of access to health services. But because reliable data on access to health services are lacking for recent years,

in this year's Report deprivation in a decent standard of living is measured by two rather than three indicators—the percentage of the population without sustainable access to an improved water source and the percentage of children under weight for age.

Calculating the HPI-1

1. Measuring deprivation in a decent standard of living

An un-weighted average of two indicators is used to measure deprivation in a decent standard of living.

Un-weighted average = 1/2 (population without sustainable access to an improved water source) + 1/2 (children under weight for age)

A sample calculation with data of Albania overall

Population without sustainable access to an improved water source = 28.03 per cent
Children under weight for age = 14.55 per cent

Un-weighted average = 1/2 (28.03) + 1/2 (14.55) = 21.29 per cent

Calculating the HPI-1

The formula for calculating the HPI-1 is as follows:

$$\text{HPI-1} = [1/3 (P_1^\alpha + P_2^\alpha + P_3^\alpha)]^{1/\alpha}$$

Where:

P_1 = Probability at birth of not surviving to

	Children under weight for age (under 5 years)	Population without sustainable access to an improved water source	Underweight population	Adult illiteracy rate	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40 (times 100)	HPI-1
Coastal	6.40	37.23	21.82	5.8%	5.88	15.22
Central	20.20	32.36	26.28	5.7%	5.88	18.29
Mountain	17.30	39.27	28.29	7.2%	5.88	19.67
Tirana	14.30	3.26	8.78	3.3%	5.88	6.65
Total	14.55	28.03	21.29	5.6%	5.88	14.86

age 40 (times 100)

P_2 = Adult illiteracy rate

P_3 = Un-weighted average of population without sustainable access to an improved water source and children under weight for age

$\alpha = 3$

In our case the data are:

P_1 = 5.88 per cent

P_2 = 5.64 per cent

P_3 = 21.29 per cent

$HPI-1 = [1/3 (5.88^3 + 5.64^3 + 21.29^3)]^{1/3} = 14.86$

Source of data are LSMS-2002 (Children under weight for age, Population without sustainable access to an improved water source, Underweight population, Adult illiteracy rate), INSTAT (Population projection 2001-2021, page 19, Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40 (times 100))

The human poverty index (HPI-2)

The HPI-2 measures deprivations in the same dimensions as the HPI-1 and also captures social exclusion. Thus it reflects deprivations in four dimensions:

- A long and healthy life—vulnerability to dying at a relatively early age, as measured by the probability at birth of not surviving to age 60.

of reading and communications, as measured by the percentage of adults lacking functional literacy skills.

- A decent standard of living—as measured by the percentage of people living below the income poverty line.
- Social exclusion—as measured by the rate of long-term unemployment (12 months or more).

Calculating the HPI-2

The formula for calculating the HPI-2 is as follows:

$$HPI-2 = [1/3 (P_1^\alpha + P_2^\alpha + P_3^\alpha + P_4^\alpha)]^{1/\alpha}$$

Where:

P_1 = Probability at birth of not surviving to age 60 (times 100)

P_2 = Adults lacking functional literacy skills

P_3 = Population below income poverty line

P_4 = Rate of long-term unemployment (lasting 12 months or more)

$\alpha = 3$

In our case the data are:

P_1 = 13.41 per cent

P_2 = 5.64 per cent

P_3 = 25.39 per cent

P_4 = 9.98 per cent

$HPI-2 = [1/3 (13.41^3 + 5.64^3 + 25.39^3 + 9.98^3)]^{1/3} = 9.48$

- Knowledge—exclusion from the world

Source of data is LSMS-2002 (Adult illit-

	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 60 (times 100)	Adult illiteracy rate	Population under poverty line	Unemployment rate according to ILO definition	HPI-2
Coastal	13.41	5.83%	20.60%	8.76	9.17
Central	13.41	5.71%	25.58%	9.02	9.23
Mountain	13.41	7.17%	44.53%	8.50	9.11
Tirana	13.41	3.34%	17.83%	20.60	14.07
Total	13.41	5.64%	25.39%	9.98	9.48

eracy rate, Population under poverty line, Unemployment rate according to ILO definition)

Source of data INSTAT (Population projection 2001-2021, page 19, probability at birth of not surviving to age 60 (times 100))

The gender-related development index (GDI)

While the HDI measures average achievement, the GDI adjusts the average achievement to reflect the inequalities between men and women in the following dimensions:

- A long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth.
- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio.
- A decent standard of living, as measured by estimated earned income (PPP US\$).

The calculation of the GDI involves three steps. First, female and male indices in each dimension are calculated according to this general formula:

$$\text{Dimension index} = \frac{\text{actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

Second, the female and male indices in each dimension are combined in a way that penalises differences in achievement between men and women. The resulting index, referred to as the equally distributed index, is calculated

according to this general formula:

$$\text{Equally distributed index} = \{[\text{female population share (female index}^{1-\varepsilon})] + [\text{male population share (male index}^{1-\varepsilon})]\}^{1/1-\varepsilon}$$

ε - measures the aversion to inequality. In the GDI $\varepsilon = 2$. Thus the general equation becomes:

$$\text{Equally distributed index} = \{[\text{female population share (female index}^{-1})] + [\text{male population share (male index}^{-1})]\}^{-1}$$

which gives the harmonic mean of the female and male indices.

Third, the GDI is calculated by combining the three equally distributed indices in an un-weighted average.

Calculating the GDI

This illustration of the calculation of the GDI uses data for overall Albania.

1. Calculating the equally distributed life expectancy index

The first step is to calculate separate indices for female and male achievements in life expectancy, using the general formula for dimension indices.)

Next, the female and male indices are combined to create the equally distributed life expectancy index, using the general formula for equally distributed indices.

Goalposts for calculating the GDI

Indicator value	Maximum value	Maximum value
Female life expectancy at birth (years)	87.5	27.5
Male life expectancy at birth (years)	82.5	22.5
Adult literacy rate (%)	100	0
Combined gross enrolment ratio (%)	100	0
Estimated earned income (PPP US\$)	40,000	100

FEMALE	MALE
Life expectancy = 78.6 years	Life expectancy = 72.1 years
Life expectancy index = $\frac{78.6 - 27.5}{87.5 - 27.5} = 0.852$	Life expectancy index = $\frac{72.1 - 22.5}{82.5 - 22.5} = 0.827$

FEMALE	MALE
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Life expectancy index = 0.852	Life expectancy index = 0.827
Equally distributed life expectancy index = $\{[0.5114 (0.852^{-1})] + [0.4886 (0.827^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 0.839$	

The same calculation is applied in other Albanian zones:

	Population			M %	F %	Life expectancy index		Equality distributed life expectancy index
	Male	Female	Total			Male	Female	
Coastal	465100	496008	961108	48.39%	51.61%	0.827	0.852	0.840
Central	700894	730920	1431814	48.95%	51.05%	0.827	0.852	0.839
Mountain	180485	185308	365793	49.34%	50.66%	0.827	0.852	0.839
Tirana	174036	179318	353354	49.25%	50.75%	0.827	0.852	0.839
Total	1520515	1591554	3112069	48.86%	51.14%	0.827	0.852	0.839

Source of data are LSMS-2002 (Population), INSTAT (Population projection 2001-2021, page 11, life expectancy).

2. Calculating the equally distributed education index

First, indices for the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio are calculated separately for females and males. Calculating these indices is straightforward, since the indicators used are already normalized between 0 and 100.

FEMALE	MALE
Adult literacy rate = 0.928	Adult literacy rate = 0.960
Adult literacy index = 0.823	Adult literacy index = 0.863
Gross enrolment ratio = 61.5%	Gross enrolment ratio = 67.1%
Gross enrolment index = 0.615	Gross enrolment index = 0.671
Education index = $\frac{2}{3}$ (adult literacy index) + $\frac{1}{3}$ (gross enrolment index)	
Female education index = 0.823	Male education index = 0.863
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Equally distributed education expectancy index = $\{[0.5114 (0.823^{-1})] + [0.4886 (0.863^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 0.842$	

	Students in primary, secondary and tertiary education level		Population 6-23 years old		Gross enrolment index	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Coastal	104262	100704	155903	163710	0.669	0.615
Central	145787	141036	215268	237586	0.677	0.594
Mountain	43456	40047	69209	69851	0.628	0.573
Tirana	32810	37586	46106	48014	0.712	0.783
Total	326315	319373	486486	519161	0.671	0.615

	Illiteracy rate		Literacy rate		Gross enrolment index		Education Index		Equality distributed education index
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Coastal	0.044	0.073	0.956	0.927	0.669	0.615	0.861	0.823	0.841
Central	0.040	0.074	0.960	0.926	0.677	0.594	0.866	0.815	0.839
Mountain	0.052	0.091	0.948	0.909	0.628	0.573	0.841	0.797	0.818
Tirana	0.022	0.045	0.978	0.955	0.712	0.783	0.889	0.898	0.894
Total	0.040	0.072	0.960	0.928	0.671	0.615	0.863	0.823	0.842

Source of data is LSMS-2002 (Population, Students in primary, secondary and tertiary education level, Population 6-23 years old, Illiteracy rate, Literacy rate)

3. Calculating the equally distributed income index

First, female and male earned income (PPP US\$) are estimated (for details on this calculation, see the addendum to this technical note). Then the income index is calculated for each gender. As for the HDI, income is adjusted by taking the logarithm of estimated earned income (PPP US\$):

$$\text{Income index} = \frac{\log(\text{actual value}) - \log(\text{minimum value})}{\log(\text{maximum value}) - \log(\text{minimum value})}$$

Source of data is LSMS-2002 (Population). Income index is calculated below.

4. Calculating the GDI

Calculating the GDI is straightforward. It is simply the un-weighted average of the three component indices—the equally distributed life expectancy index, the equally distributed education index and the equally distributed income index.

FEMALE	MALE
Income index = $\frac{\log(3,209) - \log(100)}{\log(40,000) - \log(100)}$	Income index = $\frac{\log(6,526) - \log(100)}{\log(40,000) - \log(100)}$
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Income index = 0.579	Income expectancy index = 0.697
Equally distributed income index = $\{[0.5114 (0.579^{-1})] + [0.4886 (0.697^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 0.631$	

	Male %	Female %	Income index		Equality distributed income index
			Male	Female	
Coastal	48.4%	51.6%	0.720	0.598	0.652
Central	49.0%	51.0%	0.560	0.443	0.493
Mountain	49.3%	50.7%	0.301	0.186	0.229
Tirana	49.3%	50.7%	0.921	0.805	0.858
Total	48.9%	51.1%	0.697	0.579	0.631

	Equality distributed life expectancy index	Equality distributed education index	Equality distributed income index	GDI
Coastal	0.840	0.841	0.652	0.777
Central	0.839	0.839	0.493	0.724
Mountain	0.839	0.818	0.229	0.629
Tirana	0.839	0.894	0.858	0.864
Total	0.839	0.842	0.631	0.771

$$\begin{aligned} \text{GDI} &= 1/3 (\text{life expectancy index}) + 1/3 \\ &(\text{education index}) + 1/3 (\text{income index}) \\ &= 1/3 (0.839) + 1/3 (0.842) + 1/3 (0.631) \\ &= 0.771 \end{aligned}$$

The results of the above calculation are reflected in the following table:

Estimating female and male earned income

This illustration of the estimation of female and male earned income uses data at the national level for Albania.

1. Calculating total GDP (PPP US\$)

Total GDP (PPP US\$) is calculated by multiplying the total population by GDP per capita (PPP US\$).

$$\text{Total population} = 3,112,069$$

$$\text{GDP per capita (PPP US\$)} = 4,830$$

$$\text{Total GDP (PPP US\$)} = 4,163 \times 3,112,069 = 15,031,288,528$$

2. Calculating the female share of the wage bill

Because data on wages in rural areas and in the informal sector are rare, the Report has used non-agricultural wages and assumed that the ratio of female wages to male wages in the non-agricultural sector applies to the rest of the economy. The female share of the wage bill is calculated using the ratio of the female non-agricultural wage to the male non-agricultural wage and the female and male percentage shares of the economically active population. Where data on the

wage ratio is a value of 73 per cent is used (INSTAT publication 2002 "Women and men in Albania" ; p13.)

Ratio of female to male non-agricultural wage (W_f/W_m) = 0.73

Female percentage share of economically active population (E_{Af}) = 44.7%

Male percentage share of economically active population (E_{Am}) = 63.3%

Female share of wage bill (S_f) =

$$\frac{W_f/W_m (E_{Af})}{[W_f/W_m (E_{Af})] + E_{Am}} = \frac{0.73 (44.7)}{[0.73 (44.7)] + 63.3} = 0.340$$

3. Calculating female and male earned income (PPP US\$)

An assumption has to be made that the female share of the wage bill is equal to the female share of GDP.

Female share of wage bill (S_f) = 0.340

Total GDP (PPP US\$) (Y) =

$$= 15,031,288,528$$

Female population (N_f) = 1,591,554

Estimated female earned income (PPP US\$)

$$(Y_f) = \frac{S_f (Y)}{N_f} = \frac{0.340 (15,031,288,528)}{1,591,554} = 3,209$$

Male population (N_m) = 1,520,515

Estimated male earned income (PPP US\$)

$$(Y_m) = Y - S_f (Y) = \frac{15,031,288,528}{N_m} - \frac{[0.340 (15,031,288,528)]}{1,520,515} = 6,526$$

	Total GDP (PPP US\$)	Male	Female	Population	Estimated male earning income	Estimated female earning income
Coastal	4,536,924,223	465100	496008	961108	7,472	3,606
Central	2,629,422,236	700894	730920	1431814	2,873	1,418
Mountain	143,111,667	180485	185308	365793	607	304
Tirana	5,646,081,034	174036	179318	353354	24,849	12,414
Total	12,955,539,160	1520515	1591554	3112069	6,526	3,209

The gender empowerment measure (GEM)

Focusing on women's opportunities rather than their capabilities, the GEM captures gender inequality in three key areas:

- Political participation and decision-making power, as measured by women's and men's percentage shares of parliamentary seats.
- Economic participation and decision-making power, as measured by two indicators—women's and men's percentage shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers and women's and men's percentage shares of professional and technical positions.
- Power over economic resources, as measured by women's and men's estimated earned income (PPP US\$).

For each of these three dimensions, an equally distributed equivalent percentage (EDEP) is calculated, as a population-weighted average, according to the following general formula:

$$\text{EDEP} = \left\{ \left[\text{female population share (female index}^{1-\varepsilon}) \right] + \left[\text{male population share (male index}^{1-\varepsilon}) \right] \right\}^{1/1-\varepsilon}$$

ε - measures the aversion to inequality. In the GDI $\varepsilon = 2$. Thus the general equation becomes:

$$\text{EDEP} = \left\{ \left[\text{female population share (female index}^{-1}) \right] + \left[\text{male population share (male}$$

$$\text{index}^{-1}) \right\}^{-1}$$

For political and economic participation and decision-making, the EDEP is then indexed by dividing it by 50. The rationale for this indexation: in an ideal society, with equal empowerment of the sexes, the GEM variables would equal 50 per cent—that is, women's share would equal men's share for each variable.

Finally, the GEM is calculated as a simple average of the three indexed EDEPs

Calculating the GEM

This illustration of the calculation of the GEM uses data at national level for Albania.

1. Calculating the EDEP for parliamentary representation

The EDEP for parliamentary representation measures the relative empowerment of women in terms of their political participation. The EDEP is calculated using the female and male shares of the population and female and male percentage shares of parliamentary seats according to the general formula.

Then this initial EDEP is indexed to an ideal value of 50 per cent.

$$\text{Indexed EDEP for parliamentary representation} = \frac{10.55}{50} = 0.211$$

FEMALE	MALE
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Parliamentary share = 5.7%	Parliamentary share = 94.3%
EDEP for parliamentary representation = $\left\{ \left[0.5114 (5.7-1) \right] + \left[0.4886 (94.3-1) \right] \right\}^{-1} = 10.55$	

Auxiliary table

Subject	Number of Members of Parliament		
	Male	Female	% Female
Socialist Party	67	6	8.2
Democratic Party	44	2	4.3
Reformed Democratic Party	6		0
Social Democrat Party	4		0
Union for Human Rights Party	3		0
Agrarian Party	3		0
Democratic alliance Party	3		0
Independent	2		0
Total	132	8	5.7

FEMALE	MALE
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Government share = 12.9%	Government share = 87.1%
Diplomatic service share = 16.1%	Diplomatic service share = 83.9%
University staff share = 30.3%	University staff share = 69.7%
EDEP for government representation = $\{[0.5114 (12.9^{-1})] + [0.4886 (87.1^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 22.10$	
Indexed EDEP for government representation = $\frac{22.10}{50} = 0.442$	
EDEP for diplomatic service representation = $\{[0.5114 (16.1^{-1})] + [0.4886 (83.9^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 26.60$	
Indexed EDEP for diplomatic service representation = $\frac{26.60}{50} = 0.532$	
EDEP for university staff representation = $\{[0.5114 (30.3^{-1})] + [0.4886 (69.7^{-1})]\}^{-1} = 41.86$	
Indexed EDEP for university staff representation = $\frac{41.86}{50} = 0.837$	

Source of data are 'Committee for Equal Opportunities in Albania'.

$$\text{EDEP for economic participation} = \frac{0.442 + 0.532 + 0.837}{3} = 0.604$$

2. Calculating the EDEP for economic participation

Using the general formula, an EDEP is calculated for women's and men's percentage shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers, and another for women's and men's percentage shares of professional and technical positions. The simple average of the two measures gives the EDEP for economic participation.

The three indexed EDEPs are averaged to create the EDEP for economic participation:

Auxiliary tables

Participation of women in government, August 2002

Position	Male	Female	Male%	Female%
Prime Minister	1	0	0	0
Deputy Prime Minister	1	0	0	0
Ministers	18	2	90	10
Vice Ministers	21	3	87.5	12.5
General Secretary	13	3	81.25	18.75
Total	54	8	87.1	12.9

Auxiliary tables**Percentage of women in Diplomatic Missions- January 2002**

Position	Total	Female	% Female
Ambassador	43	2	4.6
Minister Counsellor	4	1	25
Counsellors	15	2	13
Secretary, First	36	6	16.7
Secretary, Second	30	9	30
Secretary, Third	7	1	14.3
Attaché	2	1	50
Total	137	22	16.1

Universities Staff by gender , 2003

Post	Male	Female	Male%	Female%
Rector	10	0	100	0
Deputy Rector	6	2	71	29
Member of Senate	129	37	77	23
Dean	25	4	86	14
Deputy Dean	12	4	75	25
Member Faculty's Council	253	135	65	35
Chef of department.	87	26	76	24
Member of Department's Council	34	34	48	52
Total	556	242	69.7	30.3

FEMALE	MALE
Population share = 0.5114	Population share = 0.4886
Estimation of earned income (PPP US\$) = 3,209	Estimation of earned income (PPP US\$) = 6,526
Income index = $\frac{3,209 - 100}{40,000 - 100}$	Income index = $\frac{6,526 - 100}{40,000 - 100}$
Income index = 0.078	Income index = 0.161

Source of data is 'Committee for Equal Opportunity in Albania'.

3. Calculating the EDEP for income

The earned income (PPP US\$) is estimated for women and men separately and then indexed to goalposts as for the HDI and the GDI. For the GEM, however, the income index is based on unadjusted values, not the logarithm of estimated earned income. (For details on the estimation of earned income for men and women, see the addendum to this technical note.)

The female and male indices are then combined to create the equally distributed index:

$$\text{EDEP for income} = \{[0.5114 (0.078-1)] + [0.4886 (0.161-1)]\} - 1 = 0.104$$

4. Calculating the GEM

Once the EDEP has been calculated for the three dimensions of the GEM, determining the GEM is straightforward. It is a simple average of the three EDEP indices.

$$\text{GEM} = \frac{0.211 + 0.604 + 0.104}{3} = 0.306$$

Limitation of the data and methodology

The first limitation is linked with the source of data that is mainly from the LSMS-2002. So, according to the LSMS for 2002 the geographical data are at disaggregated at the following level:

Tirana: Municipality of Tirana

Coastal area: Delvine, Durres, Fier, Kavaje, Lac, Lezhe, Lushnje, Mallakaster, Sarande and Vlora.

Central area: Berat, Devoll, Elbasan, Gjirokaster, Kolonje, Korce, Kruje, Kucove, Malesi e Madhe, Mat, Miredite, Peqin, Permet, Pogradec, Puke, Skrapar, Shkoder and Tepelene.

Mountain area: Bulqize, Diber, Gramsh, Has, Kukes, Librazhd and Tropoje.

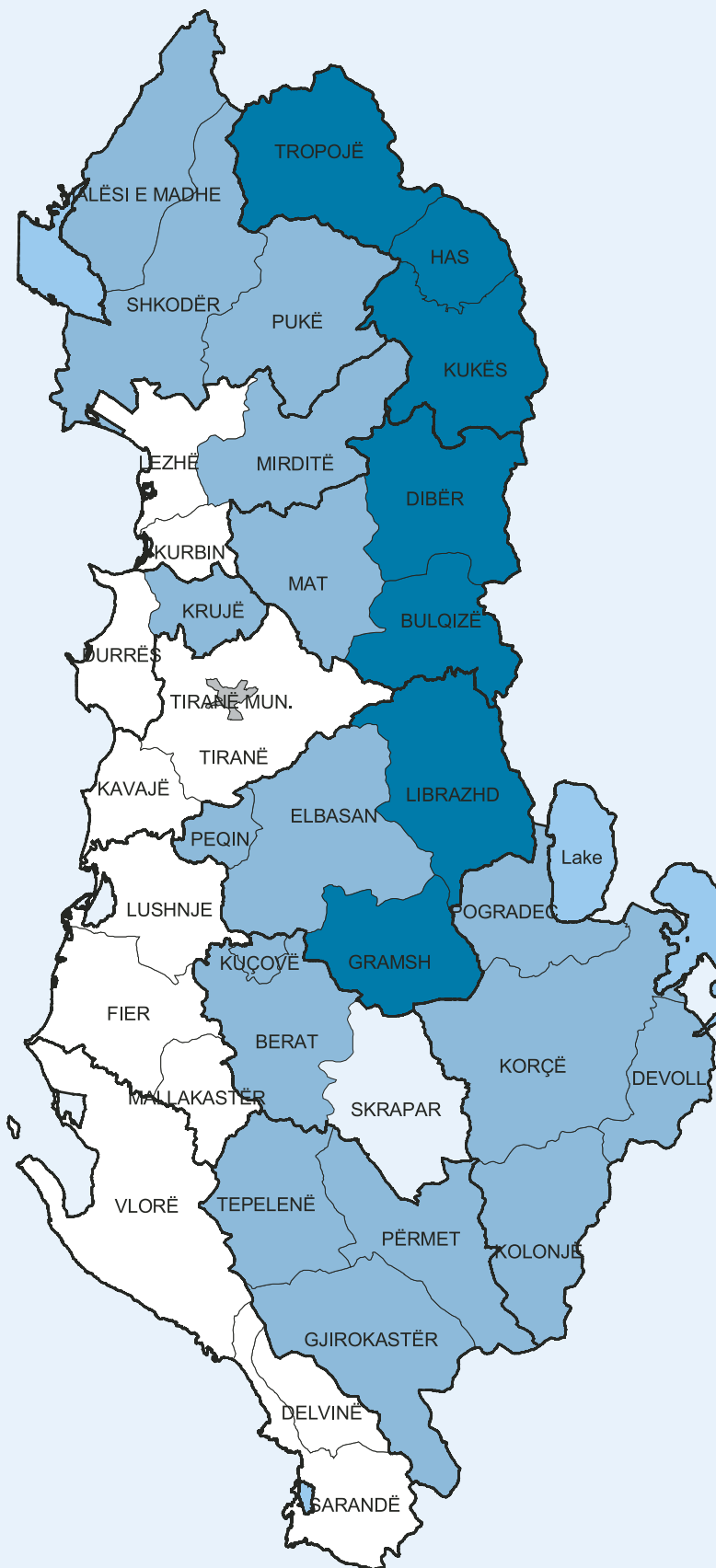
This geographical division lead to a pre-defined geographically orientation and the areas such as Tirane-Durres with highest indexes share their values with other areas with lower indexes.

The second limitation is linked with the values of life expectancy, for which only the data at national level is available so that this value is applied to same in calculation in all the LSMS areas.

The third limitation is linked to the distribution of the GDP in LSMS areas. Because the calculation of GDP from the national level does not exist a distribution factor is used that is the income weigh areas over of all national income. This means that these indexes are just proxy in spite of the fact that the calculation at the national level of the GDP is based on income.

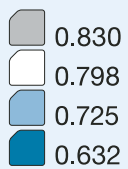
The fourth limitation is linked to the calculation of the HPI-1 and HPI-2, where data for the probability at birth of not surviving to age 40 and the probability at birth of not surviving to age 60 are available only the at national level, so that this value is applied the same in calculation in all LSMS areas.

HDI index distribution

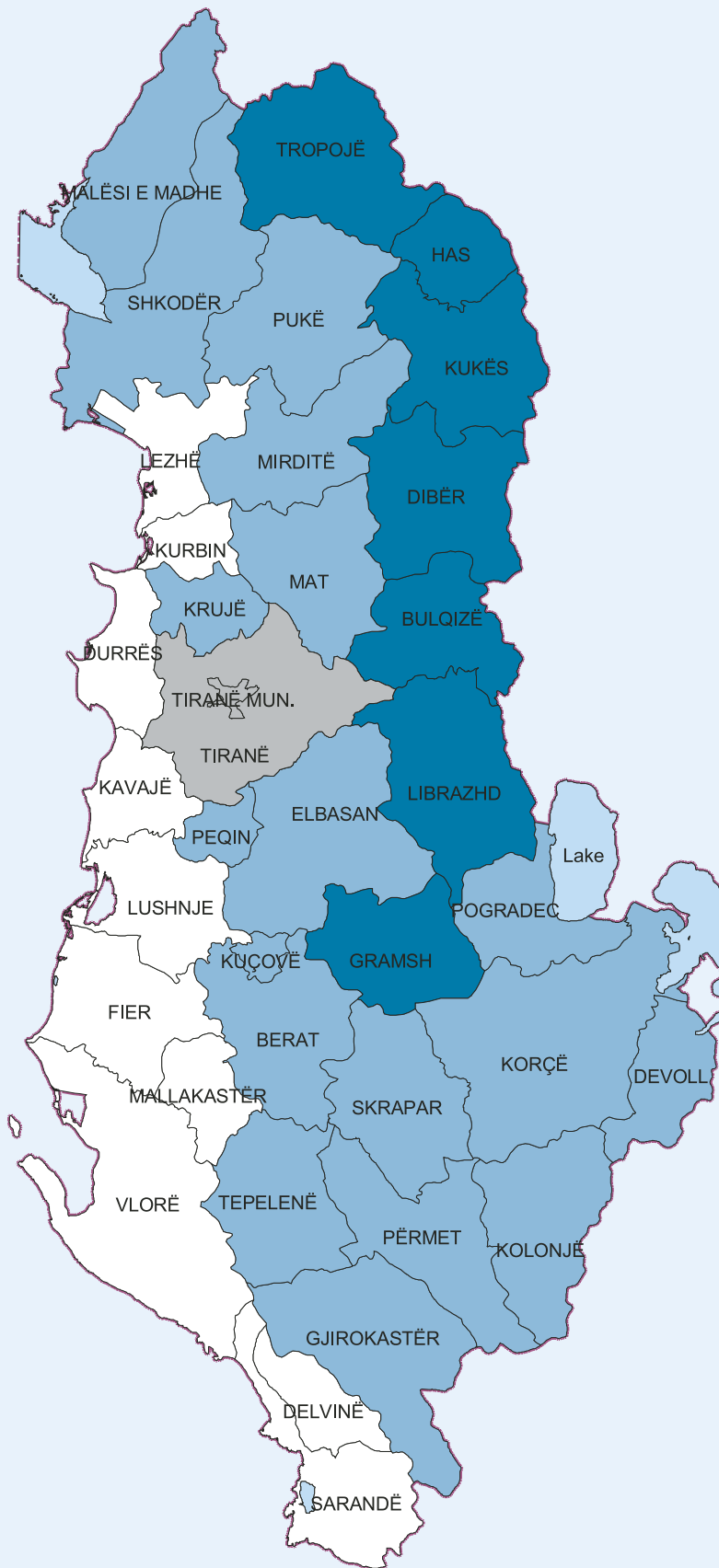


— Region Borders

HDI Index

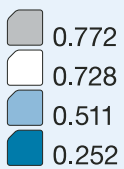


GDP Index Distribution

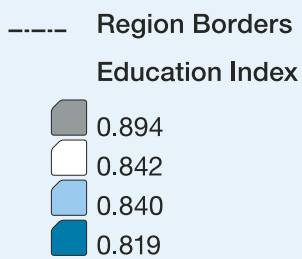
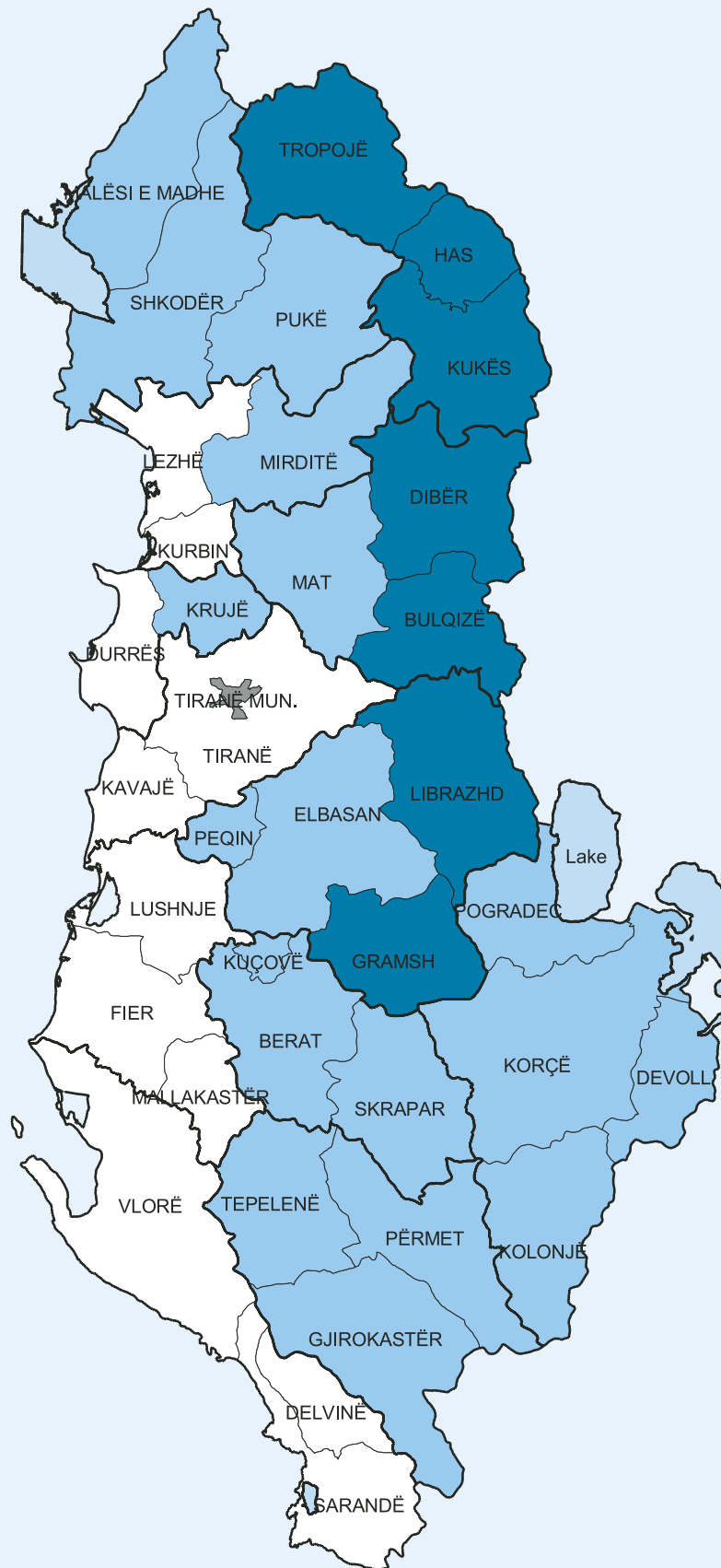


--- Region Borders

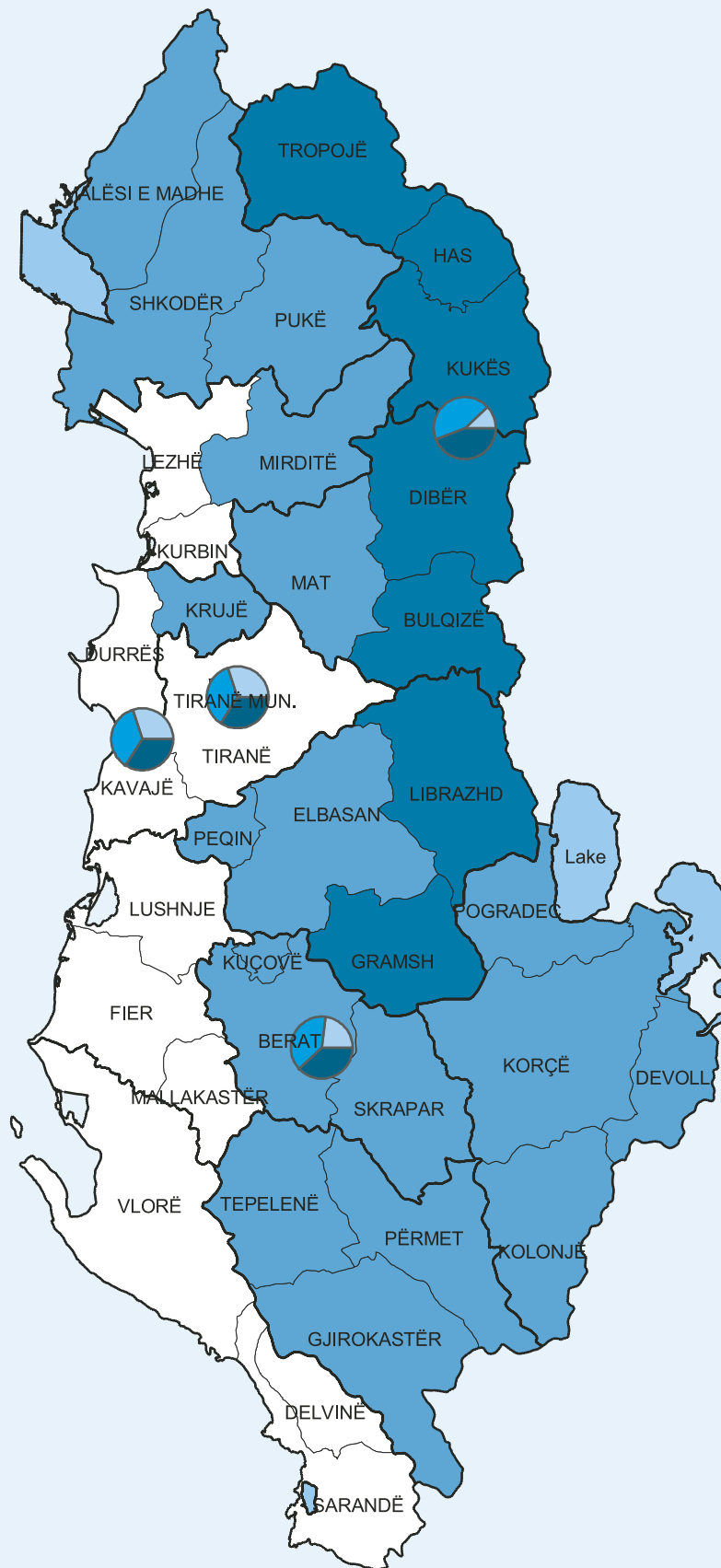
GDP Index



Education Index Distribution



Index Weight Distribution

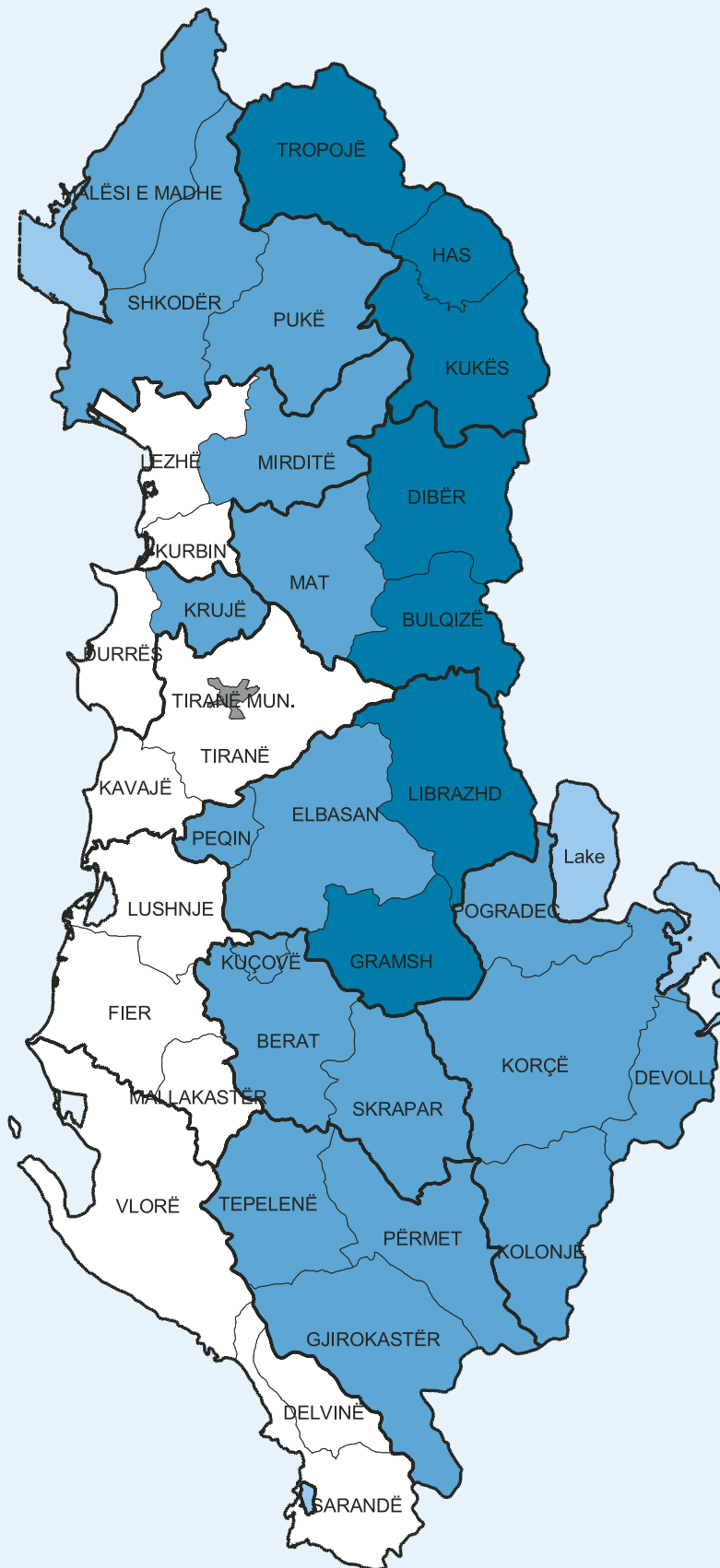
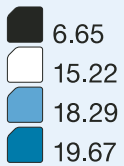


- Region Borders
- Index Weight
- GDP Index
- Education Index
- Life Expectancy Index

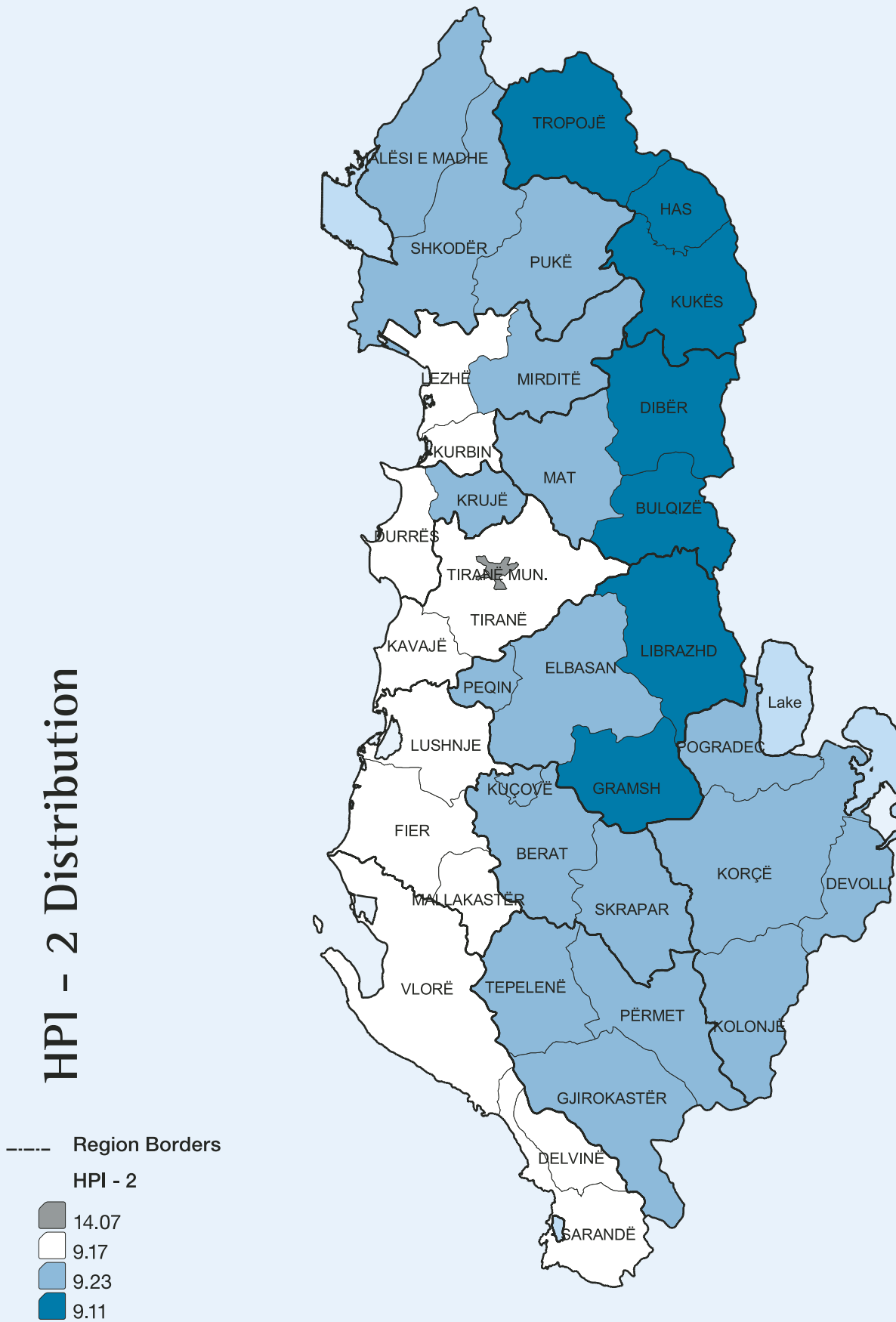
HPI-1 Distribution

----- Region Borders

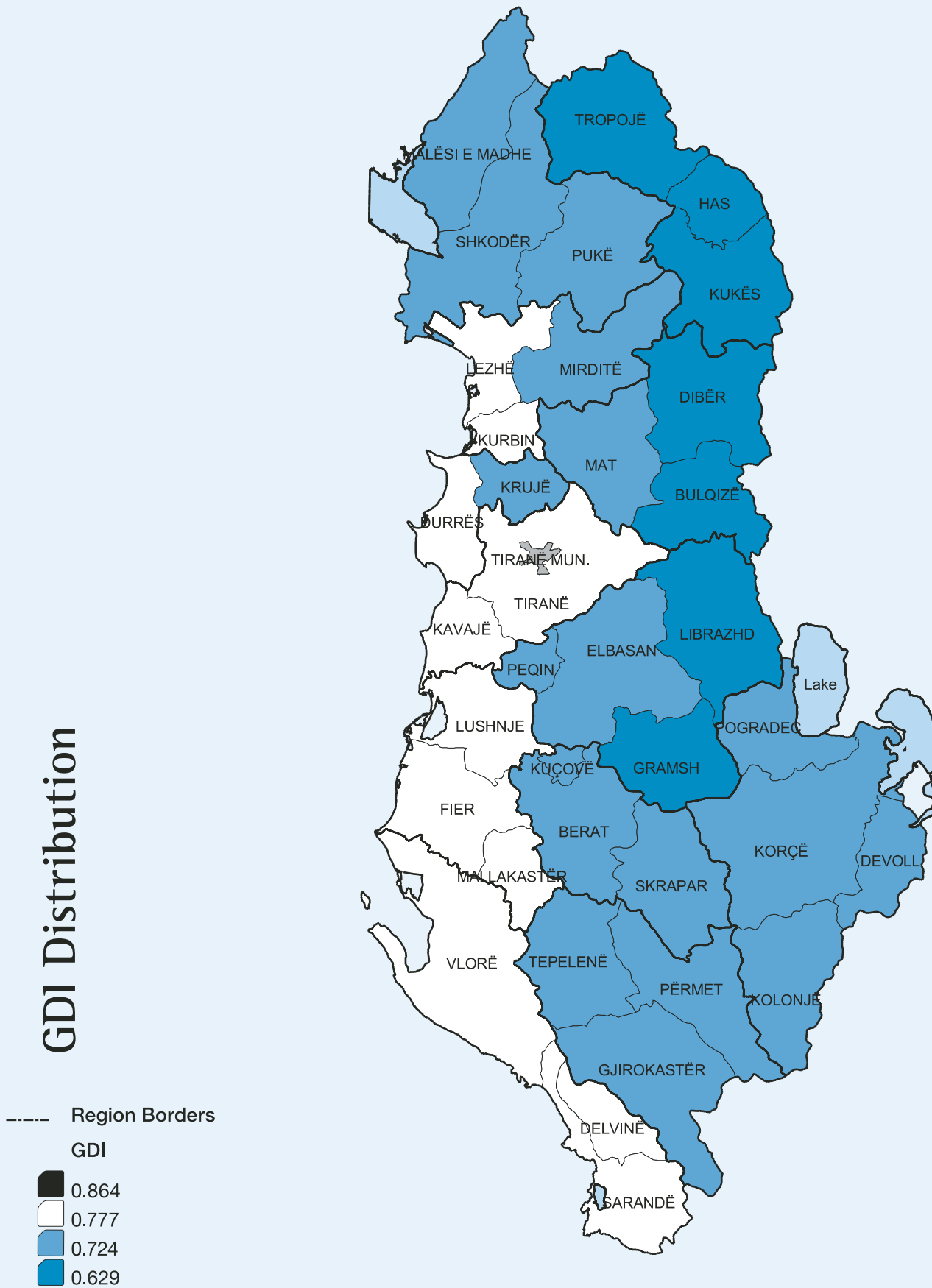
HPI - 1



HPI - 2 Distribution



GDI Distribution



BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Albert Berry, Principal Investigator, Research Team Selection Criteria for Pro-Poor Economic Growth Policies - The Pro-Poor Economic Growth Research Studies and Guidance Manual Activity, Development Alternatives, Inc. and Boston Institute for Developing Economies, November 2002
2. UNDP Policy Note: The Role of Economic Policies in Poverty Reduction – April 2002
3. Birgit Schaefer - Guidelines for Impact Monitoring and Assessment in Microfinance Programmes, GTZ, September 2001
4. UNDP Global HDR 1995
5. Stephan Klasen: In Search of the Holy Grail: How to Achieve Pro-Poor Growth? Ibero-America Institute for Economic Research, October 2003
6. Martin Ravallion and Shaohua Chen: Measuring Pro-Poor Growth, Development Research Group, World Bank, August 2001
7. Terry McKinley: UNDP Policy Guidance Note: The Role of Economic Policies in Poverty Reduction, BDP/UNDP, June 2001
8. Hafiz A. Pasha: PRO – POOR POLICIES
9. Jan Vandemoortele: Leader, UNDP Poverty Group: The MDGs and pro-poor policies: can external partners make a difference?
10. Rafael Gomes and Max Lawson: Pro-poor Macroeconomic Policies Require Poverty and Social Impact Analysis, Economic Policy Empowerment Programme, May 2003
11. Caroline M. Rob: Poverty and Social Impact Analysis – Linking Macroeconomic Programmes to Poverty Outcomes: Summary of Early Experiences, IMF Working Paper 03/43 2003.
12. James Putzel: 'Thinking about civil society and political parties: Challenges for development assistance', Development Studies Institute, LSE, October 2002
13. International Association for Impact Assessment - Social Impact Assessment: International Principles: Special Publication Series No. 2, May 2003
14. Caren Grown, Geeta Rao Gupta, Zahia Khan*: of the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality, Promises to Keep: Achieving Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, April 18, 2003
15. Mari Pangestu, Jeffrey Sachs: Millennium Project: Interim Report of Task Force 1 On Poverty and Economic Development, February 10, 2004
16. Neil McCulloch and Bob Baulch: Tracking pro-poor growth: New ways to spot the biases and benefits, Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex, Insights Issue #31, September 1999
17. Humberto Lopez: Pro growth, pro poor: Is there a trade off? The World Bank (PRMPR)
18. Joint NGO Briefing Paper: Where is the impact? April 2003
19. Laurence Whitehead and George Gray-Molina (Nuffield College, Oxford): The Long Term Politics of Pro-Poor Policies, Prepared for the "World Development Report 2000/1: The Responsiveness of Political Systems to Poverty Reduction", Donnington Castle, 16-17 August, 1999.
20. Rene Loewenson: Civil society contributions to pro-poor, health equity policies. Civil Society Initiative WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION and Training and Research Support Centre Zimbabwe, April 2003
21. Nick Moore and James Putzel: Thinking Strategically about Politics and Poverty, Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex, Working Paper 101.
22. Craig Johnson and Daniel Start: Rights, claims and capture: Understanding the politics of pro-poor policy. Overseas Development Institute, London, May 2001
23. S. Mahendra Dev: Pro-Poor Growth in India: What do we know about the Employment Effects of Growth 1980–2000? Overseas Development Institute Working Paper 161

24. Sabina Alkire: The Capability Approach The Capability Approach and Human Development and Human Development, Wadham College and Queen Elizabeth House College, 9 September 2002
25. World Bank: Albania Poverty Assessment: Report No. 26213-AL, November 2003
26. DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE: International Monetary Fund and World Bank Background Paper ACHIEVING THE MDGs AND RELATED OUTCOMES: A FRAMEWORK FOR MONITORING POLICIES AND ACTIONS, March 28, 2003
27. Agnes R. Quisumbing, Lawrence Haddad, and Christine Peña: GENDER AND POVERTY: NEW EVIDENCE FROM 10 DEVELOPING COUNTRIES. International Food Policy Research Institute, December 1995
28. Astrida Neimanis and Arkadi Tortisyn: Gender Thematic Guidance Note,, UNDP HDRO, July 2003
29. Sally Baden et al: Gender Inequality and Poverty: Trends Linkages Analysis and Policy Implications, Briefing prepared for Gender Equality Unit, SIDA, 4/98
30. Amartya Sen: Keynote Speech: A decade of Human Development, First Global Forum on Human Development, 29-31 July 1999, New York
31. Lourdes Beneria and Savitri Bisnath: GENDER AND POVERTY: AN ANALYSIS FOR ACTION, February 1996
32. Human Development Promotion Centre (HDPC): The Albanian Response to the Millennium Development Goals Prepared for the United Nation System in Albania by the Tirana, May 2002
33. ACER: Partnership Framework: UNDP Albania and Civil Society: August 2002
34. Albanian Institute for Public Policies: Costing the attainment of MDGs in Albania, Prepared for UNDP-Albania, October 2003
35. Jan Olsson and Lennart Wohlgenuth: Dialogue in Pursuit of Development, 2003
36. UNDP Evaluation Office: Essentials in Monitoring Poverty, January 2003
37. Commission on Human Security: Human Security Now, New York 2003
38. UN Development Group: Indicators for Monitoring the Millennium Development Goals - Definitions Rationale Concepts and Sources, New York 2003
39. Albania: Poverty during Growth: A document prepared by the World Bank and the Albanian Institute of Statistics (INSTAT) as input to the 2003 Albania Poverty Assessment and the National Strategy for Socio-Economic Development (NSSED)
40. MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT COMPACT – The Millennium Project: Commissioned by the UN Secretary General and supported by the UN Development Group
41. NSSED progress report 2003 and Objectives; Long term Vision and Priority Action Plan for 2004-2007
42. NSSED Progress Report 2004
43. MDG National Report for Albania 2004
44. Early Warning - Human Security Monitoring Project in Albania, Albanian Institute of International Affairs, June 2004
45. INSTAT, Migration in Albania 2004
46. INSTAT-LSMS (ad hoc) 2003
47. INSTAT Gender Perspectives in Albania 2004
48. INSTAT. Preliminary Results of the Population and Housing Census 2001, Tirana 2001.
49. INSTAT, Women and Men in Albania, Tiranë 2003
50. Bank of Albania, Annual Report 2003.
51. Centre for Economic and Social Studies

- (CESS), The encouragement of social-economic development in relation to the growth of the role of the remittances, August 2003. Research Report commissioned by UNDP and Soros Foundation
52. UN Country Team in Albania - Albania Common Country Assessment 2004.
 - Hermine De Soto, Ilir Gedeshi, Sabine Beddies, and Daniel Perez: Roma and Egyptians in Albania: From Social Exclusion to Social Inclusion, June 2003
 53. Initial, and first, periodical national report on the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Woman. The Committee for Equal Opportunities, financed by OSCE – Presence in Albania, Tiranë: May 2002
 54. Government Platform on the Equality between Man and Woman, the Committee for Equal Opportunities, 2002-2005.
 55. Human Development Promotion Centre (HDPC) The Albanian Response to the Millennium Development Goals Prepared for the United Nations' System in Albania from the Human Development Promotion Centre by Dr. Ylli Cabiri and Dr. Lindita Xhillari (Tiranë, May 2002),
 56. Fier, Regional Development Strategy – Aligned with National Development and Millennium Development Goals, Connecting people to a common and better future, September 2003.
 57. Kukes MDG RDS.
 58. The Centre for the Law and Policies on Reproduction, Women of the World, NY-USA, 2000
 59. UNICEFF, MICS Report, Dec. 2000.
 60. Milano Municipality, Foreign Relations Sector, “Woman’s Business in Albania”, a study conducted in the framework of the project: “Fostering Woman’s Business in Albania”, (Woman’s Centre, International Training Centre and Training Activities for Women, Italy
 61. Katro, Jeta & Ass.Prof. Selimi, Yllka, “Gender and the economic and social status of women in Albania “, Tiranë, June 2001, p. 29.
 62. A National Study on Albanian Women in Business, The Association of Professional and Entrepreneurial Women . Tiranë, 1997.
 63. Woman’s Centre, Report on Gender Problems in Rural Areas, July 2003.
 64. Woman’s Centre, Report: “Gender Identity and Agriculture”. Consultants: MSW Eglantina Gjermeni & MBA Agron Hetoja. Contributed: Elona Dhëmbo & Admir Meko. Tiranë, 2003.
 65. ACER & ASET, Micro-Credit Beneficiary Assessment, 2003 & ACER-ASP (The Agrarian Studies & Project’s Association) – ASET, Baseline Study for MADA Program Area, 2003.
 66. The Association “Development of Education” – School Dropout, causes, recommendations, supported by UNICEF, Tiranë – Dec. 2001, p. 27.
 67. Official Gazette of the Republic of Albania, No.8, February 27, 2004.
 68. SIDA, UNDP, A Survey on the Status of Woman in Politics in Albania, Tiranë, December 2003,
 69. Council of Europe, Parliamentary Assembly, “Migration connected with trafficking in women and prostitution”, - Doc. No: 9795, 25 April 2003.
 70. Sala, Valdet & Fullani, Silvana – Woman’s Centre. A study on the contribution in writing of the woman’s movement in Albania: 1990-1998, Tiranë 2000.
 71. The Association of Women Lawyers, Studies: Divorce, its causes and effects; On the violence exerted to women; Alimony and judicial practices, financed by USIS, US Embassy in Albania, Tiranë 2000, p. 82.
 72. Baban, Adriana, “Violence against women in family in Albania”, an in-depths study. UNICEFF; Canadian International Development Agency, Royal Netherlands in Tirana; ISOP. Pegi, Tiranë, p. 37.

73. The Association of Women Lawyers, Studies: Divorce, its causes and effects; On the violence exerted on women;
74. Gjermani, Eglantina and Bregu, Majlinda, "Monitoring the press over the in-family violence 2001 & 2002". Published by the Woman's Centre, Tiranë, August 2003.
75. Përthyerja", a study on the creation of opportunities for convicted women – Tirana, Jan. 2004.
76. Aronowitz, A. Alexis – Anti Trafficking Programs in Albania – Final Report. Management Systems International: February 18, 2003. (The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000. Report on the Trafficking in Persons, U.S. Department of State, June 2002).
77. The National Strategy of the Struggle against Human Beings' Trafficking – Republic of Albania, the Council of Ministers, Tirana 2001.
78. The Foundation "Open Society" for Albania – SOROS, 90+10 Woman in the Post-communist Transition, national conference, Tiranë, March 12, 2001
79. Qirjaku, Sonila and Dhimitri, Rolanda, A study on the contribution in writing of the Woman's Movement in Albania: 1990-1998; Woman's Centre, Tirana 2000.
80. Co-Plan: PSIA - Decentralisation and Water Sector Privatization Reform in Albania 2003 (funded by World Bank and UNDP)
81. Pino, Saemira, "Once Again on Women and Politics", published in the Panorama newspaper, October 11, 2003.
82. World Bank Report on "The Legal And Regulatory Environment For Civil Society And Civic Engagement In Albania" May, 2004

Additional web resources

- ILO publications site - <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/support/publ/books.htm>
- Gender and poverty: an analysis for action www.sdn.undp.org/gender/resources/mono2.html
- Social Security Reform and Women's Pensions (discussion on Chilean social security system) <http://www.worldbank.org/gender/prt/wp17.pdf>
- The World Bank Poverty Net Library (loads of material on poverty-gender) <http://poverty.worldbank.org/library/subtopic/13410/>
- ADB Gender and Development web-page, including publications <http://www.adb.org/Gender/default.asp>
- UNIFEM web-site <http://www.unifem.org/>
- World Bank approach to Gender in Social Assessment <http://www.worldbank.org/gender/assessment/gcover.htm>
- <http://www.s-j-c.net/psia.html>