

Public Perceptions  
& Attitudes toward

# Gender Equality in Albania





# A PILOT STUDY

## Public Perceptions and Attitudes toward Gender Equality in Albania

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# SUMMARY

This study examines public perceptions of gender equality in Albania. Drawing on 450 interviews conducted in the four regions of the country – mountainous, coastal, central, and Tirana regions – the study sheds light on the following aspects: the division of household chores; the division of responsibilities for childcare; perceptions and attitudes towards the role of women and men in the family; employment and income; money management; career-family balance; and recommended areas of intervention to increase the participation of women and girls in the labor market, and the contribution of men and boys in the house. Below is a summary of the main findings:

- The majority of respondents – more than 80 percent – reported that it is usually women who do the laundry and iron clothes; clean the house; cook; and wash dishes. The two household chores where men were more likely than women to be involved were related to house maintenance and the payment of bills. Women and men were more likely to share the following tasks: taking out the garbage, shopping, and taking care of sick family members.
- Perceptions of women and men regarding their contribution within the household differ. Men were more likely than women to report that they equally share household responsibilities with women. For instance, men were more likely than women to report that they share the responsibility with women in cleaning the house. Or, men were more likely than women to report that dish washing is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men.
- Around 50 percent of respondents reported that they take care of their children with their spouse/partner. However, there is a sharp gender division. Men were more likely than women to report that they take care of their children jointly with their spouse/partner, 60.47 percent vs. 41.89 percent. Meanwhile, women were more likely than men to report that they take care of their children and do not get any support from their husbands. Women and men were more likely to share childcare responsibilities in cases of health emergencies.

- Men were more likely than women to report that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men. The percentage of men who reported that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men is approximately two times higher than the percentage of women, 27.91 percent and 13.51 percent respectively.
- Public perceptions vary by education. Respondents with higher levels of education were less likely to report a traditional gender division of labor within the household. For instance, respondents with higher levels of education – college education or above – were more likely to report that “taking out the garbage” is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men. There was a greater percentage of respondents with higher levels of education reporting that “taking the child to bed” is almost equally shared between women and men. Also, respondents with higher levels of education were more likely to disagree or strongly disagree with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.”
- The type of region (mountainous, coastal, central and Tirana) and area (urban vs. rural) also correlate with perceptions. Respondents in regions with lower levels of social and economic development were more likely to agree with traditional gender roles. For instance, a greater percentage of respondents in urban areas, compared to respondents in rural areas, reported that dishwashing is almost equally shared between women and men. Respondents in rural areas were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being.”
- The mean number of hours spent on household chores per day is 3.35 ( $SD = 2.69$ ; *range*: 0 – 20). Education, gender, and personal-level income were associated with the number of hours spent on household chores. Respondents with at least college education reported spending fewer hours on household chores ( $M = 2.73$ ,  $SD = 2.24$ ) than respondents with high school education or less ( $M = 3.51$ ,  $SD = 2.78$ ). Women reported spending more hours on household chores ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = 2.71$ ) than men ( $M = 2.07$ ,  $SD = 1.97$ ). Men reported that their spouse/partner spends more hours on household chores ( $M = 5.69$ ,  $SD = 3.03$ ) than women ( $M = 1.35$ ,  $SD = 1.86$ ). The relationship between individual income and the number of hours spent on household chores was negative. In other words, as individual income increases, the number of hours spent on household chores decreases.
- Women were less likely to be satisfied with the division of household chores ( $M = 3.80$ ,  $SD = 1.20$ ) than men ( $M = 4.19$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ). The higher the number of children under 11 years old, the lower the level of satisfaction with the division of household chores. There were no differences on the level of satisfaction by type of region (urban vs.

rural), civil status (married vs. non-married), education (college and above vs. other), and partner's education (college and above vs. other).

- Women were less likely to be satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities ( $M = 3.79$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ) than men ( $M = 4.44$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ).
- Respondents were more likely to agree with the statement "a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being," followed by the statement "it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family." Meanwhile, respondents were less likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement "men should engage as much as women in doing housework," followed by the statement "men should spend as much time as women raising their children."
- Public perceptions vary by gender. Men, compared to women, were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement "a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being," 78.95 percent vs. 71.17 percent. Women were more likely than men to disagree or strongly disagree with the statement "the wife should sacrifice her career for the family."
- Respondents with migration experience, compared to those who lacked such experience, were more likely to report that some of the household tasks, including shopping, cooking, and taking out the garbage, are almost equally shared between women and men.
- 40.89 percent of respondents ( $n = 184$ ) reported that both women and men have equal opportunities on the job market; 35.33 percent of respondents ( $n = 159$ ) said that men have greater opportunities; and 23.78 percent ( $n = 107$ ) said that women have greater opportunities. There were no statistical differences by the gender of the respondent.
- Less than 50 percent of respondents said that they would prefer either a man or a woman as boss – gender doesn't matter. Women were more likely than men to prefer a woman as boss. 32.43 percent of women ( $n = 72$ ) said that they prefer a woman as their boss; meanwhile, 22.37 percent of men ( $n = 51$ ) said that they prefer a woman as their boss.
- The income gap between women and men is higher among those with lower levels of education. The income difference between women and men with high school education or less is 194,053.7 ALL per month. Meanwhile, the income gap between women and men with at least college education is 48,773.91 ALL per month.
- Interventions seeking to increase the participation of women and girls in the labor market should focus on: enhancing opportunities for training and qualification;

providing opportunities for childcare in communities, such as kindergartens and nurseries; promoting the employment of women in local and central-level institutions; increasing the contribution of men in the house; providing incentives for women to open their own businesses; and creating opportunities for women to work from home. Interventions seeking to increase the participation of men and boys within the household should focus on: involving men and boys in housework; encouraging

men and boys to take responsibilities for childcare; and supporting paternity leave. Other interventions – suggested by study respondents – should focus on: instilling egalitarian attitudes in boys when they are little; working with family members who don't allow women to work; increasing state support for women; changing societal attitudes toward women's role in the society; and increasing family support for the career advancement of women.





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# INTRODUCTION

In the last twenty-five years, Albania has gone through vast transformations. The transition from a closed to an open access society has brought profound changes in the lives of women and men. Many milestones have been achieved on gender equality.

The government of Albania has ratified numerous international conventions, such as the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the European Convention on Human Rights. In addition, the government has endorsed several human rights documents and strategic papers, such as the National Strategy for Gender Equality and Eradication of Gender-Based Violence and Domestic Violence, and the Action Plan for Women Entrepreneurs (INSTAT, 2015).

The ultimate purpose of these changes in formal institutions – laws, rules, and regulations – is to address gender disparities and improve women’s role in the society. Despite this, gender disparities persist. Referring to the Global Gender Gap Report (2014), Albania ranks 83 (out of 142 countries) with a gender gap score of approximately 0.69.<sup>1</sup> Gender disparities are pronounced especially in the economic sector. The estimated earned income of men is approximately 2 times higher

than of women (US\$ 12,226 vs. US\$ 6,562). Only 23 percent of women hold a leading position – as legislators, senior officials, or managers. Meanwhile, this percentage for men is 78. Women, compared to men, are more likely to be technical workers than managers. In addition, only 12 percent of firms in the country have women as top managers (ibid.). Disparities are also pronounced in access to markets, asset ownership, and participation in policy-making processes (Dauti & Gjermeni, 2015; Halimi & Zhllima, 2014; ISB, 2013; Mandro, 2013; SHGPAZ, 2013; Zhllima, 2012, 2013).

One of the lessons learned from emerging democracies is that gender disparities can’t be addressed by legal changes alone. The extent to which legal changes are successful depends on how such changes are received by the population, among others. Businesswomen for instance are less likely to thrive if there is a widespread societal belief that women should be relegated to a secondary role. Equal access to markets and goods will not be achieved in the presence of patriarchal values and discriminatory attitudes toward women. If people’s

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1. The closer the score to number 1, the smaller the gender gap.

beliefs do not converge with policy changes, then a weak enforcement of legal changes will follow (North, 1995).

The shift from traditional to equitable gender roles is influenced by numerous factors. Two approaches – the interest-based and the exposure-based approach – provide insights on the patterns of change. Referring to the interest-based approach, people's interests will shape their attitudes toward gender equality. For instance, women will be more likely than men to prefer an equal division of household tasks and childcare responsibilities. Or, women will be more likely than men to support policies that reduce the wage gap because they are the ones who directly benefit from such policies. Income might also affect the extent to which women and men embrace non-traditional family roles. If men earn less than women, they might be less invested in traditional family roles (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). They will have lower expectations about women's involvement in the household and their child-rearing responsibilities. Overall, this approach suggests that interventions, which focus on promoting gender equality, find more support from the group that will benefit the most.

The exposure-based approach focuses on how life experiences might affect attitudes towards gender equality. Women's participation in the labor market for instance increases their support for gender equality. Women who participate in the labor market are exposed to discrimination and unequal treatment, which increases their awareness on the importance of promoting gender equality. Education has a similar effect. As Bolzendahl & Myers (2004) note, women "can also experience the 'enlightenment' effect through education,

which combats gender stereotypes and provides alternative interpretations of women's roles" (p.762). Other authors have found that women's attitudes change with improved education and participation in the labor market (Carter et al., 2009; Thornton et al., 1983).

Exposure can also work through a different channel that is parent's education, in particular mother's education and work status. Evidence shows that having a working mother has a positive effect on children's educational attainment and professional success (McGinn, 2015). In addition, sons of working mothers spend more time on housework tasks and they are more likely to have egalitarian attitudes on gender roles. If children are socialized in an environment that challenges gender stereotypes, then they are more likely to develop a consciousness on the importance of gender equality. Mothers' attitudes towards gender roles as well as their experiences play an important role in shaping the attitudes and views of children (Thornton et al., 1983). Both interest and exposure might interact with one another, resulting in outcomes that are context-dependent.

Perceptions toward the division of household tasks and childcare responsibilities affect marital satisfaction and the risk for divorce. Women are more likely than men to perceive the division of household chores as unfair and "the sense of unfairness significantly decreases marital happiness and increases psychological distress, marital disagreements, and the risk for divorce among women" (Oláh & Gähler, 2014, p. 575). Furthermore, perceptions are closely associated with attitudes towards gender roles. If women hold egalitarian gender attitudes, then they are

more likely to perceive a traditional division of housework as unfair. Meanwhile, if women hold traditional gender attitudes, then they will perceive a traditional division of housework as fair. Thus, the level of satisfaction with the division of household tasks might be mediated by the attitudes that an individual holds.

The study of public perceptions and attitudes on gender equality in the context of Albania is important for the following reasons: First, a good understanding of how Albanians perceive gender equality will inform interventions with the purpose of bringing the two – legal changes and people’s attitudes – closer to one another. If public perceptions are not supportive of women’s involvement in business for instance, then the task will be to develop strategies with the purpose of altering perceptions and fighting against gender stereotypes. Fortin (2005) argues that anti-egalitarian views, which restrict women’s role within the house, are still persisting even in developed countries. Studying perceptions of gender equality in times of institutional and structural changes provides insights on the complex forces sustaining traditionalism. Second, the study of public perceptions across groups and regions will provide insights into how individual and regional-level characteristics relate to perceptions. Third, the study of perceptions can offer insights into people’s attitudes and behavior. The study of perceptions is often criticized for offering biased information that might be substantially different from reality (Olken,

2009). For instance, people might report that they support the principles of gender equality but in practice they hold discriminatory attitudes. Social desirability might affect what people report and how they report it. This study will provide several insights into how future studies can address this concern.

Some of the questions that will be addressed in this study include: What kind of beliefs do Albanians hold regarding gender equality? Are there regional differences? How do individual characteristics, such as age and education, explain public perceptions of gender equality? What barriers impede women’s successful integration into the labor market? What kind of interventions can promote the economic empowerment of women? To address these questions, a quantitative study was conducted in the four regions of Albania – mountainous, coastal, central, and Tirana regions (World Bank, 2013). Findings shed light on the division of household chores, division of childcare responsibilities, perceptions and attitudes towards the role of women and men in the family, money management, career-family balance, experiences in the labor market, and the areas of intervention that can promote gender equality in the family and the labor market. Research findings can inform evidence-based interventions that can be utilized to affect public perceptions, grow the support for gender equality, and reduce the gap between legal changes and local realities in Albania.

# METHODOLOGY

To examine public perceptions of gender equality, a quantitative study was conducted in the four regions of Albania – mountainous, coastal, central, and Tirana regions. These regions are characterized by different levels of social and economic development (World Bank, 2013).

This selection was based on the assumption that the level of social and economic development underpins variations in perceptions. Previous studies show that women’s participation in local politics for instance vary by the four regions (Dauti & Gjermeni, 2015).

In each region, a few districts and then administrative units – urban and rural – were randomly selected (see appendix 1 for the selected areas). In each district, 45 interviews were conducted – 25 interviews in urban areas (with the exception of Tirana where 50 interviews were conducted) and 20 interviews in rural areas. Overall, 450 interviews were conducted in 9 cities and 10 villages.

One training session and two discussion meetings were held with the research team, which was comprised of 20 interviewers and 2 field coordinators. Specific guidelines for fieldwork were prepared for interviewers and field coordinators. Furthermore, the map of each selected unit was provided to aid the process of sample selection.

The selection of study participants was based on random walking, following the four geographical coordinates – north, south, east, and west. Random walking is criticized for resulting into a selection of study participants who are willing to participate in the study and cooperate with the interviewer (Rubin & Babbie, 2013). We tried to reduce the error by advising interviewers to visit peripheral areas and avoid staying close to the center of the city/village.

The team reviewed the research instruments used to measure perceptions of gender equality in other contexts, such as the General Social Survey, World Values Survey, Public Perceptions Survey on Gender Equality in Georgia, and the Eurobarometer Survey on Gender Equality. The research instrument was discussed with numerous actors and then pre-tested in a small group of individuals by each interviewer. Then, a meeting was held to discuss the instrument and make changes. Another meeting was held after the fieldwork was completed to discuss fieldwork experience.

Interviews were conducted with randomly selected individuals. Questions focused on (a) the division of household chores; (b) responsibility for childcare; (c) perceptions and attitudes towards the role of women and men in the family; (d) employment and income; (e) money management; (f) career-family balance; and (g) areas of intervention to increase the participation of women and girls in the labor market, and the contribution of men and boys in the house.

To capture the division of household chores, study participants were asked about the gender of the household member who is responsible for typical tasks, including doing laundry and ironing clothes, cleaning the house, shopping, cooking, washing dishes, taking out the garbage, maintaining the house, paying bills, and taking care of sick family members. In addition, they were asked about the number of hours they spend on household chores, the number of hours spent by their spouse/partner, the level of satisfaction with the division of household chores, and the level of satisfaction of the spouse/partner with the division of household chores.

To understand the responsibility for childcare, study participants with children under 11 years old were asked about the gender of the household member who takes care of the child, stays with the child when sick, takes the child to the doctor, takes the child to bed, takes the child to the kindergarten/school/courses, and helps the child with homework. They were also asked about the number of hours they spend on childcare, the number of hours the spouse/partner spends on childcare, the level of satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities, and the level of satisfaction of the spouse/partner with

childcare responsibilities.

To capture perceptions and attitudes towards the role of women and men in the family, study participants were asked about their level of agreement (from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with a set of statements, including “men should spend as much time as women raising their children,” “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family,” and “men should engage as much as women in doing housework.” Other questions focused on who should decide on the number of children, and the gender preference of the child.

To capture career–family balance, study participants were asked about their level of agreement (from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with a set of statements, including “it is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children,” “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family,” and “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family,” and “if the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family.” They were also asked on the chances of finding a job for women and men, and their preference for the gender of a boss in a hypothetical work environment. Questions also focused on the extent that family responsibilities impede career advancement and the support that women and men receive from family members.

Data were also collected on individual-level characteristics, including age, gender, religion, civil status, education level, education level of the spouse/partner, number of children, number of children under 11 years old, number of families under the same roof, number of individuals under

the same roof, and relationship with the head of the household. Study participants were also asked if they belonged to a minority group and if they received disability entitlements. Interviewers recorded information on the region (*qarku*), district (*rrethi*), municipality, and type of area (urban vs. rural).

Univariate and bivariate analysis (chi-square, ttest, correlation, anova) were conducted to examine the relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and public perceptions. Two research assistants entered the data in Access, which were then imported into STATA/SE 12.1 where they were analyzed. Thematic analysis was conducted to obtain insights on the opportunities of women and men in the labor market, and the preference for gender of boss.

## Sample characteristics

55.56 percent of respondents (n = 250) lived in urban areas; 49.33 percent (n = 222) were women;

and 79.33 percent (n = 357) were married. 45.33 percent (n = 204) reported completing high school. Only 18.22 percent of respondents (n = 82) had college education. 73.6 percent (n = 329) of respondents did not have children under 11 years old. The majority of respondents, 40.85 percent (n = 183), were the head of the household, followed by the spouse, 35.71 percent (n = 160) and one of the children, 15.40 percent (n = 69). 9.89 percent of respondents (n = 44) reported that they receive disability entitlements and 5.13 percent (n = 23) reported that they belong to a minority group (see Table 1).

The average number of children is 2.4 (*SD* = 1.82; *range* = 0 – 10). The average number of families under the same roof is 1.27 (*SD* = 0.61; *range* = 0 – 5). 25.11 percent of study participants (n = 113) reported that they have lived abroad. The mean number of years living abroad is 5.96 (*SD* = 5.26). More than 40 percent of respondents reported that they are employed; 77.89 percent of those employed (n = 155) said that they operate in the private sector (see Table 2).



# FINDINGS

The majority of respondents – more than 80 percent – reported that it is usually women who do the laundry and iron clothes; clean the house; cook; and wash dishes. The two household chores where men were more likely than women to be involved were related to house maintenance and the payment of bills.

## Division of household chores

The majority of respondents – more than 80 percent – reported that it is usually women who do the laundry and iron clothes; clean the house; cook; and wash dishes. The two household chores where men were more likely than women to be involved were related to house maintenance and the payment of bills. Women and men were more likely to share the following tasks: taking out the garbage, shopping, and taking care of sick family members. Besides gender, education, civil status, and migration experience were associated with the division of household chores.

### **Doing the laundry and ironing clothes**

Approximately, 90 percent of respondents (n = 400) reported that it is usually women who do the laundry and iron clothes. Only 9.11 percent of respondents (n = 41) reported that “doing the laundry and ironing clothes” is a task shared almost equally between women and men (see Figure 1).

A chi-square test was conducted to examine the

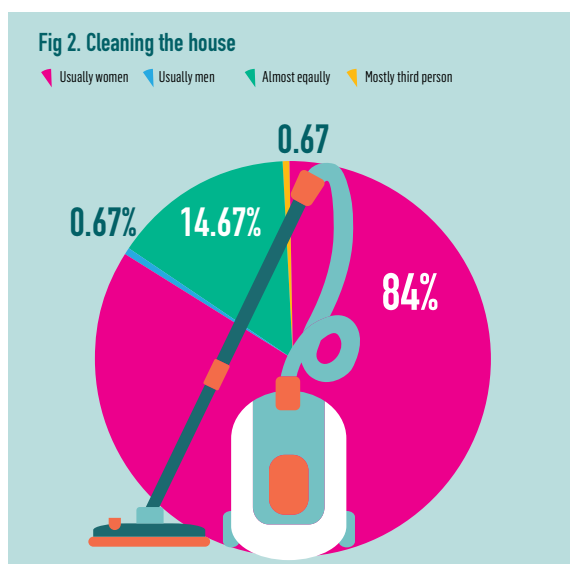


relationship between the type of region (urban vs. rural) and “doing the laundry and ironing clothes.” There was no statistical difference between respondents in urban and rural areas. Similarly, there was no statistical difference between women and men. The relationship between the civil status and “doing the laundry and ironing clothes” was statistically significant. Married respondents were more likely to

report that it is usually women who “do the laundry and iron clothes.” The relationship between education and “doing the laundry and ironing clothes” was not statistically significant. Despite this, the percentage of respondents who reported that responsibilities are almost equally shared between women and men was higher among those with higher levels of education. The percentage of respondents with at least college education who said that women and men share responsibilities almost equally was two times higher than the percentage of respondents with high school education or less, 13.95 percent and 6.88 percent respectively (see Table 33).

### Cleaning the house

Eighty-four percent of study participants (n = 378) reported that it is usually women who clean the house. 14.67 percent of study participants said that “cleaning the house” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Figure 2).

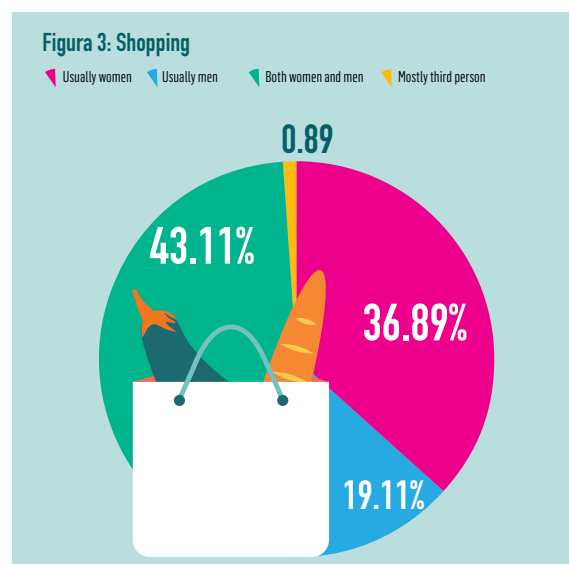


The relationship between gender and “cleaning the house” was statistically significant. Compared to men, women were more likely to report that it is “usually women who clean the house.” Men were more likely than women to report that they share the responsibility with women in cleaning the house, 19.74 percent and 9.46 percent respectively. The highest percentage of those who report that they share the responsibility with their partner is among respondents with higher levels of education (see Table 34).

### Shopping

36.89 percent of respondents (n = 166) said that it is usually women who shop and 43.11 percent (n = 194) said that shopping is shared almost equally between women and men (see Figure 3).

The relationship between gender and “shopping” was statistically significant. Compared to men, women were more likely to report that it is “usually



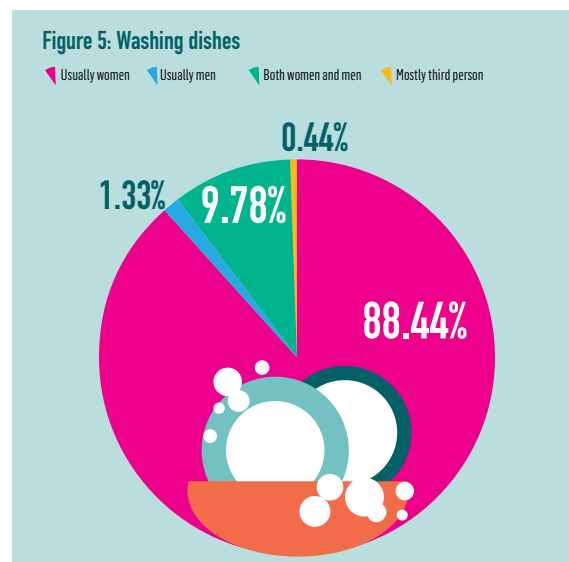
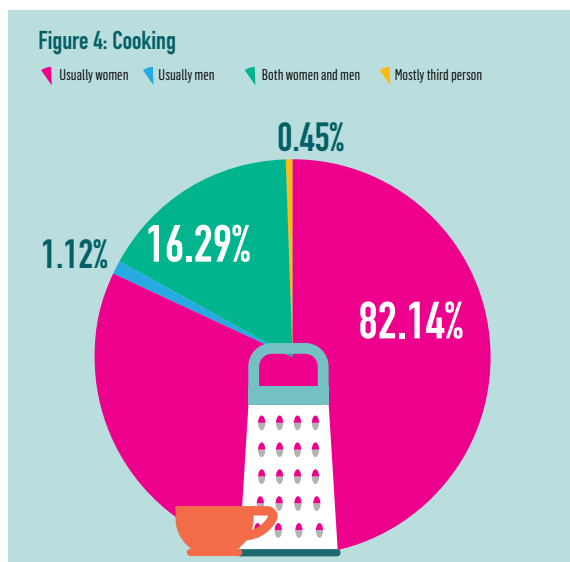
women who shop.” Men were more likely than women to report that they shop; 44.14 percent of women reported that it is usually women who shop; meanwhile, 29.82 percent of men reported that it is usually women who shop. While 23.35 percent of men reported that it is men who usually shop, the percentage of women who reported that it is usually men who shop is 14.86. Respondents with migration experience were more likely to report that this task is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 35).

### Cooking

82.14 percent of study participants (n = 368) reported that it is usually women who cook; 16.29 percent (n = 73) reported that cooking is almost equally shared between women and men (see Figure 4).

Approximately, 90 percent of respondents in the mountainous region reported that “it is usually women who cook.” The relationship between civil

status and “cooking” was statistically significant. Married respondents, compared to non-married, were more likely to report that “it is usually women who cook.” The relationship between education and “cooking” was statistically significant. Respondents with higher levels of education were more likely to report that cooking is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men. Respondents with high school education or less were more likely to report that “it is usually women who cook.” Specifically, 85.53 percent of respondents with high school education or less reported that “it is usually women who cook.” Meanwhile, this percentage for respondents with at least college education was 70.93. The percentage of respondents with college education and above who reported that “cooking” is almost equally shared between women and men is two times higher than the percentage of respondents with high school education or less. Respondents with migration experience were more likely to report that “cooking” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 36).



### Washing dishes

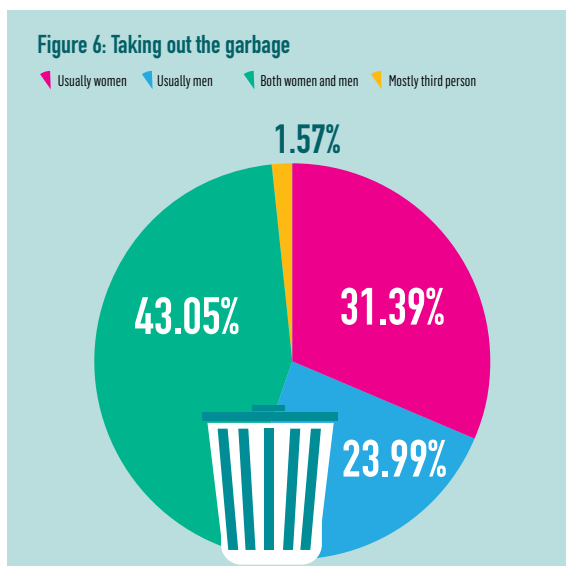
88.44 percent of respondents (n = 398) said that it is usually women who wash dishes; 9.78 percent (n = 44) said that the task of “washing dishes” is almost equally shared between women and men. Less than 0.5 percent of respondents reported that grandparents wash dishes (see Figure 5).

The relationship between the region and “washing dishes” was not statistically significant. However, there was a greater percentage of respondents in the mountainous region reporting that “it is usually women who wash dishes.” A greater percentage of respondents in the capital reported that dish washing is almost equally shared between women and men. Similarly, a greater percentage of respondents in urban areas reported that dishwashing is almost equally shared between women and men. The relationship between gender and “washing dishes” was statistically significant. Women were more likely than men to report that “it is usually women who wash dishes.” Specifically, 93.69 percent of women reported that “it is usually women who wash dishes.” Meanwhile, 83.33 percent of men reported that “it is usually women who wash dishes.” Men were more likely to report that dish washing is a responsibility almost equally shared by women and men. The percentage of men who reported that dish washing is a responsibility almost equally shared by women and men is almost 3 times higher than the percentage of women, 14.04 percent and 5.41 percent respectively. The relationship between education and “washing dishes” was not statistically significant. However, there was a greater percentage of respondents with higher levels of education who reported that the task of washing dishes is almost equally shared between women and men. The same conclusion holds for partner’s education (see Table 37).

### Taking out the garbage

31.39 percent of study participants (n = 140) reported that it is usually women who take out the garbage; 23.99 percent (n = 107) reported that it is usually men; and 43.05 percent (n = 192) reported that “taking out the garbage” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Figure 6).

The relationship between the region and “taking out the garbage” was not statistically significant. However, there was a greater percentage of respondents from the mountainous region reporting that “it is usually women who take out the garbage.” There was a greater percentage of respondents from Tirana and the central region reporting that the task of taking the garbage out is a responsibility almost equally shared by women and men. The relationship between the type of region (urban vs. rural) and “taking out the garbage” was statistically significant. Respondents in rural areas, compared to respondents in urban areas, were more likely to report that “it is usually women who take out the garbage,” 38.89 percent and 25.40 percent respectively. The relationship



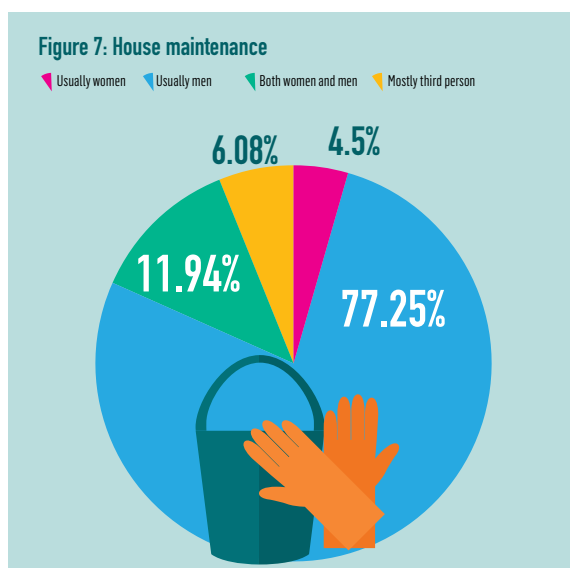
between gender and “taking out the garbage” was statistically significant. Women were more likely than men to report that “it is usually women who take out the garbage.” The percentage of women who reported that “it is usually women who take out the garbage” was approximately two times higher than the percentage of men. Men were more likely than women to report that “it is usually men who take out the garbage.” The relationship between education and “taking out the garbage” was statistically significant. Respondents with higher levels of education were more likely to report that “taking out the garbage” is a responsibility almost equally shared by women and men. The same conclusion holds for respondents with migration experience (see Table 38).

### House maintenance

4.50 percent of respondents (n = 20) said that it is usually women who are involved in house maintenance; 77.25 percent (n = 343) said that it is usually men; and 11.94 percent (n = 53) said that both women and men share the task. A small number of

respondents, 6.08 percent (n = 27), relied on outside sources (see Figure 7).

The relationship between the region and “house maintenance” was statistically significant. Respondents in the mountainous region were more likely to report that “it is usually men who are involved in house maintenance.” Respondents in Tirana and the coastal region were more likely to report that this task is almost equally shared between women and men. There was no difference between urban and rural areas, as well as between women and men. Married women were less likely to report that “it is usually women who are involved in house maintenance.” This is expected because the other group – non-married women including single women, divorced women, or widows – has to rely on themselves or outside sources. The relationship between education and “house maintenance” was statistically significant. Respondents with higher levels of education were less likely to report that the task of house maintenance is the responsibility of women alone (see Table 39).



### Paying bills

16.07 percent (n = 72) of respondents reported that the payment of bills is usually done by women; 56.70 percent (n = 254) said that it is done by men; and 24.55 percent (n = 110) said that it is shared almost equally between women and men (see Figure 8). The relationship between the region and “paying bills” was statistically significant. Respondents in the coastal region were more likely to report that “it is usually women who pay the bills.” Respondents in the mountainous region were more likely to report that “it is usually men who pay the bills.” Respondents

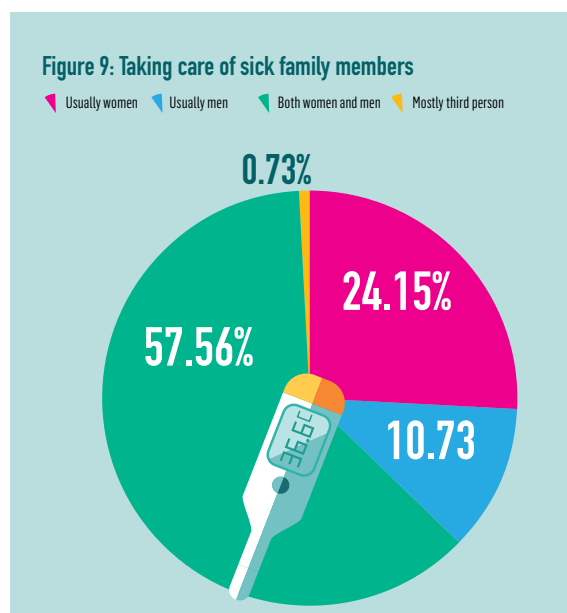
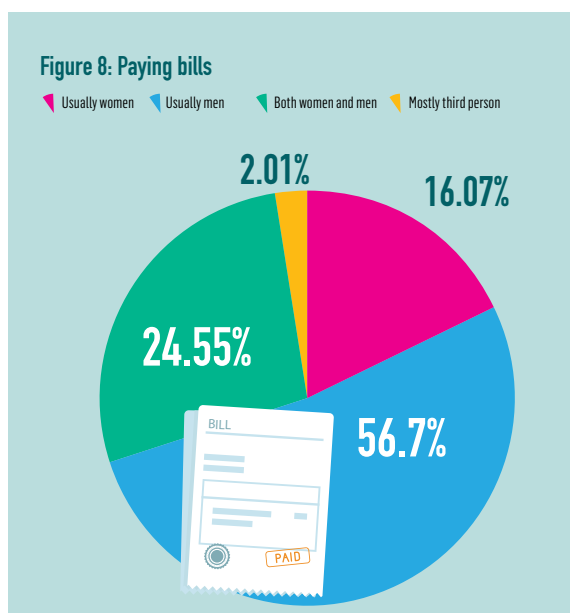
in Tirana were more likely to report that paying bills is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men. The responsibility between the type of region (urban vs. rural) and “paying bills” was statistically significant. Respondents in rural areas were more likely to report that “it is usually men who pay the bills.” Similarly, the relationship between gender and “paying bills” was statistically significant. Men, compared to women, were more likely to report that “it is men who pay the bills.” 63 percent of men reported that “it is usually men who pay bills”; meanwhile, this percentage for women was 50.23. There was a greater percentage of respondents with high levels of education who reported that the task of paying bills is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 40).

### Taking care of sick family members

24.15 percent (n = 99) of study participants reported

that it is usually women who take care of sick family members; 10.73 percent (n = 44) reported that it is usually men; and 57.56 percent (n = 236) reported that it is almost equally shared by women and men (see Figure 9).

The relationship between the type of region (urban vs. rural) and “taking care of sick family members” was statistically significant. More than 50 percent of respondents both in urban and rural areas said that the task of “taking care of sick family members” is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men. Married women, compared to non-married women, were more likely to report that “taking care of sick family members” is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men. There was a greater percentage of respondents with high levels of education reporting that “taking care of sick family members” is a responsibility almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 41).



### **The number of hours per day spent on household chores**

The mean number of hours spent per day on household chores is 3.35 ( $SD = 2.69$ ;  $range: 0 - 20$ ). This number for the spouse/partner is slightly higher, 3.59 hours ( $SD = 3.34$ ;  $range: 0 - 20$ ). Respondents in rural areas reported spending more hours on household chores ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 2.97$ ) than did respondents in urban areas ( $M = 2.96$ ,  $SD = 2.39$ ). The difference between the two groups was statistically significant (see Table 42). Women reported spending more hours on household chores ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = 2.71$ ) than men ( $M = 2.07$ ,  $SD = 1.97$ ). The difference between women and men was statistically significant (see Figure 10).

Married women reported spending more hours on household chores ( $M = 3.55$ ,  $SD = 2.16$ ) than non-married women ( $M = 2.62$ ,  $SD = 2.79$ ). The difference was statistically significant. Respondents with at least college education reported spending fewer hours on household chores ( $M = 2.73$ ,  $SD = 2.24$ ) than respondents with lower levels of education ( $M = 3.51$ ,  $SD = 2.78$ ). The difference was statistically significant. Similarly, respondents with migration experience reported spending fewer hours on household chores

(see Table 42). The relationship between individual income and the number of hours spent on household chores was negative. In other words, as individual income increases, the number of hours spent on household chores decreases. This conclusion holds only for individual-level income (not family-level income or expenses). The relationship between the number of children and the number of hours spent on household chores was positive. As the number of children increases, the number of hours spent on household chores increases as well. The same conclusion holds for the family size. The larger the family size, the higher the number of hours spent on doing household chores. The relationship between age and the number of hours spent on household chores was not statistically significant (see Table 43).

### **The number of hours per day spent by the spouse/partner on household chores**

Respondents in rural areas reported that their spouse/partner spends more hours doing household chores ( $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = 3.60$ ) than respondents in urban areas ( $M = 3.01$ ,  $SD = 2.98$ ). The difference between the two

Figure 10: Average number of hours spent on household chores by gender

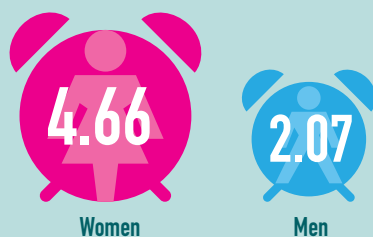
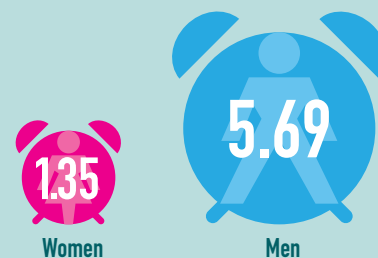


Figure 11: Average number of hours the spouse/partner spends on household chores by gender



groups was statistically significant. Men reported that their spouse/partner spends more hours on household chores ( $M = 5.69, SD = 3.03$ ) than women ( $M = 1.35, SD = 1.86$ ) (see Table 44). The difference between the two groups was statistically significant (see Figure 11).

The higher the number of children under 11 years old, the lower the number of hours spent by the spouse/partner on household chores (see Table 45). As age increases, the number of hours spent by the spouse/partner on household chores increases.

#### **Satisfaction with the division of household chores**

The mean value of satisfaction with the division of household chores is 4 ( $SD = 1.17; range: 1 - 5$ ). The mean value of satisfaction of the spouse/partner

with the division of household chores is 4.21 ( $SD = 1.07; range: 1 - 5$ ). Approximately, 80 percent of study participants are satisfied or very satisfied with the division of household chores (see Table 4). Similarly, the majority of respondents reported that their spouse/partner is satisfied with the division of household chores. Women were less likely to be satisfied with the division of household chores ( $M = 3.80, SD = 1.20$ ) than men ( $M = 4.19, SD = 1.11$ ). There were no differences on the level of satisfaction by type of region (urban vs. rural), civil status (married vs. non-married), education (college and above vs. other), and partner's education (college and above vs. other) (see Table 46). The higher the number of children under 11 years old, the lower the level of satisfaction with the division of household chores. As age increases, the level of satisfaction with the division of household chores increases (see Table 47).



## Childcare responsibilities

There is a sharp gender division of childcare responsibilities. Men were more likely than women to report that they take care of their children jointly with their spouse/partner. Meanwhile, women were more likely than men to report that they take care of their children and do not get any support from their husbands. Women and men were more likely to share childcare responsibilities in cases of health emergencies.

### Childcare support

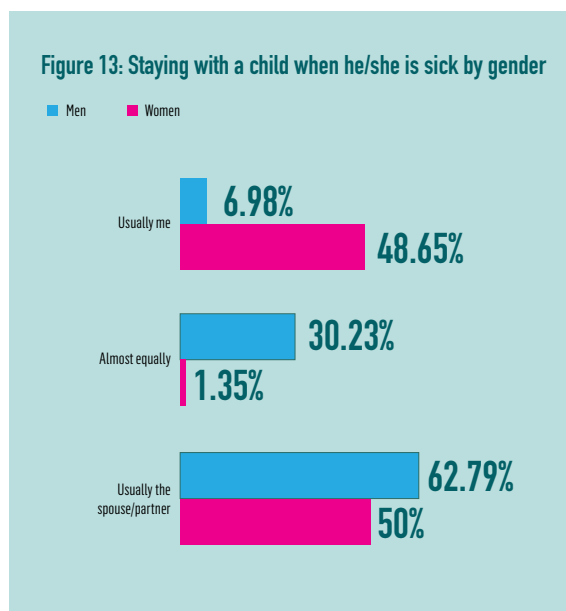
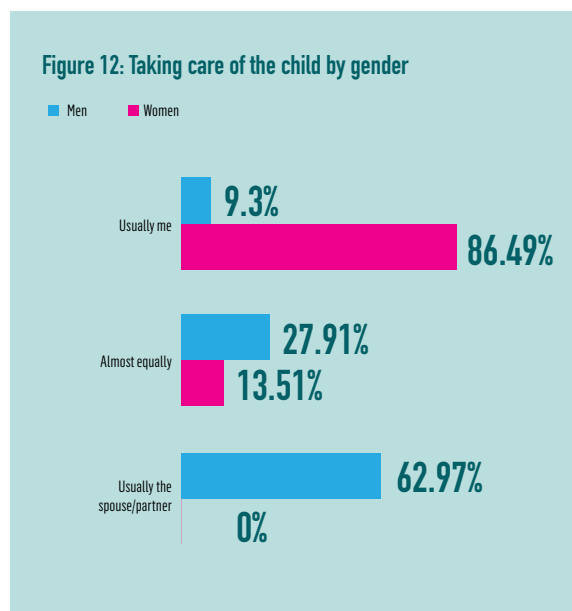
Less than 40 percent of respondents reported that they don't get any childcare support. Those who get support, mostly rely on their parents or the parents of their spouse/partner (see Table 5).

### Taking care of children

Around 50 percent of respondents reported that they take care of their children under 11 years old with their spouse/partner (see Table 6). However, there is a sharp gender division. Men are more likely than women to report that they take care of their children with their spouse/partner, 60.47 percent vs. 41.89 percent. Meanwhile, women are more likely than men to report that they take care of their children and do not get any support from their husbands (see Table 48). Women and men are more likely to share childcare responsibilities in cases of health emergencies; when the child is sick.

### Daily care of children

18.80 percent of study participants who had children under 11 years old (n = 22) reported that they share the task of taking care of children almost equally (see Table 7). There was a greater percentage of respondents in urban areas reporting that “taking care of the child”

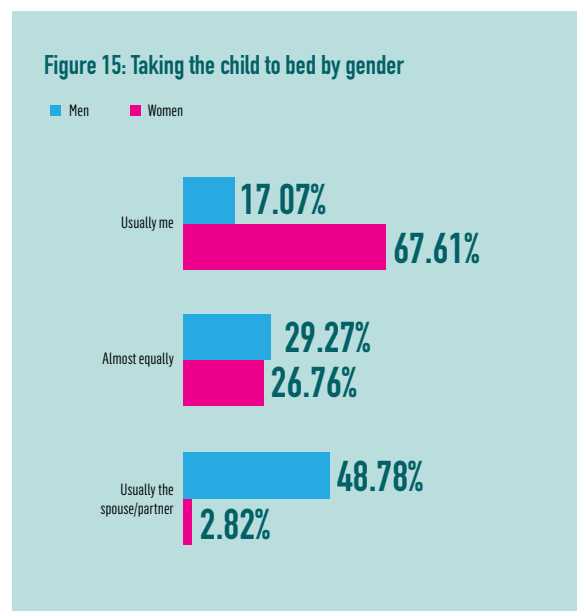
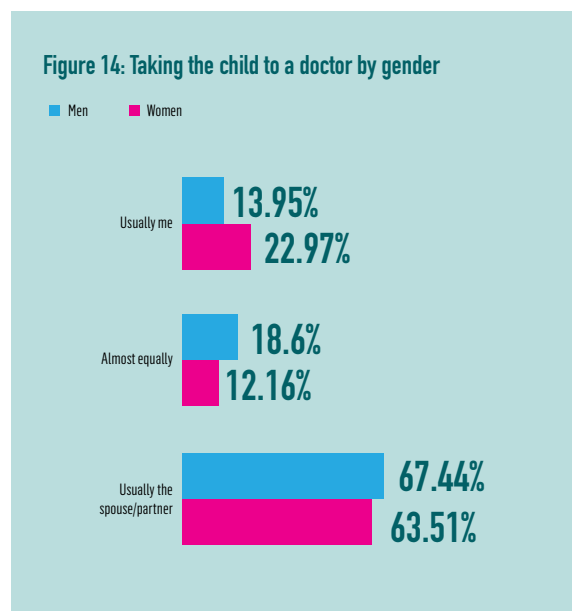


is almost equally shared between women and men. The relationship between gender and “taking care of the child” was statistically significant. 86.49 percent of women reported that they “take care of the child”; meanwhile, only 4 men (9.30 percent) reported that they “take care of the child.” Men were more likely than women to report that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men. The percentage of men who reported that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men is approximately two times higher than the percentage of women, 27.91 percent and 13.51 percent respectively (see Figure 12).

There was a greater percentage of highly educated respondents reporting that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men. Similarly, there was a greater percentage of respondents with migration experience reporting that “taking care of the child” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 48).

### Staying with a child when he/she is sick

More than half of respondents with children under 11 years old, 54.70 percent (n = 64), reported that “staying with a child when he/she is sick” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 7). The relationship between the type of region and “staying with the child when he/she is sick” was not statistically significant. However, there was greater percentage of respondents in urban areas reporting that “staying with the child when sick” is almost equally shared between women and men. The relationship between gender and “staying with the child when sick” was statistically significant. Women were more likely than men to report that they “stay with the child when sick,” 48.65 percent and 6.98 percent respectively. Compared to women, men were more likely to report that “staying with the child when sick” is almost equally shared between women and men, 62.79 percent and 50.00 percent respectively (see Table 49).



### Taking the child to a doctor

64.96 percent of respondents with children under 11 years old (n = 76) reported that “taking the child to a doctor” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 7). The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking the child to a doctor” was not statistically significant. Both women and men are mobilized in “taking the child to a doctor” (see Figure 14). There were not differences by region, gender, education, and partner’s education (see Table 50).

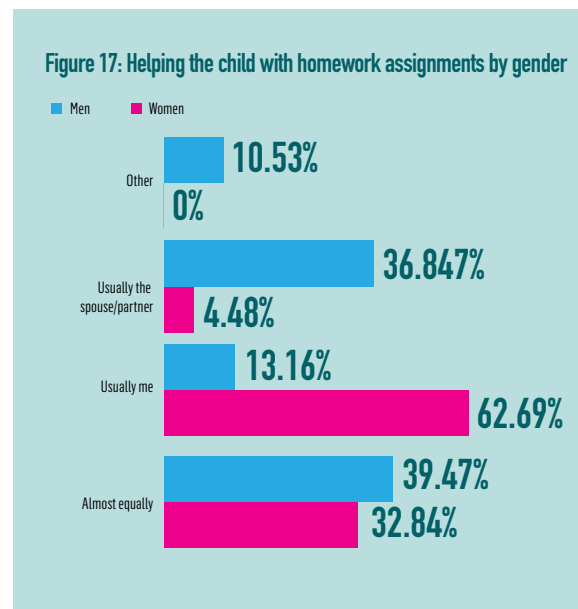
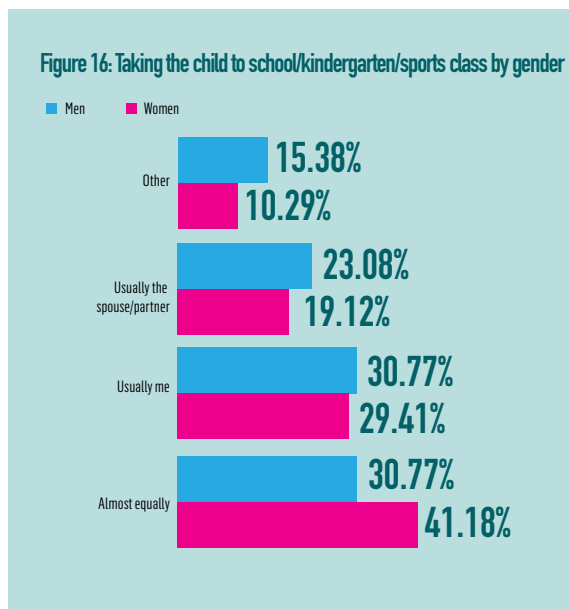
### Taking the child to bed

27.68 percent of respondents with children under 11 years old (n = 31) reported that “taking the child to bed” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 7). The relationship between gender and taking the child to bed was statistically significant. Women were more likely than men to report that

they “take the child to bed.” 67.61 percent of women reported taking the child to bed; meanwhile, this percentage for men was 17.07 (see Figure 15). There was a greater percentage of individuals with higher levels of education reporting that the “taking the child to bed” is almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 51).

### Taking the child to school/kindergarten/sports class

29.91 percent of respondents with children under 11 years old (n = 32) reported that “taking the child to school/kindergarten/sports class” is a task almost equally shared between women and men (see Table 7). The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking the child to the kindergarten/school/courses” was not statistically significant (see Table 52). In other words, the division of this task did not vary by the type of region, gender, and education (see Figure 16 for an example of gender division).



### Helping the child with homework assignments

35.24 percent of study participants with children under 11 years old ( $n = 47$ ) reported that “helping the child with homework assignments is almost equally shared between women and men” (see Table 7). There was greater percentage of respondents in urban areas reporting that they “help the child with homework.”

The relationship between gender and “helping the child with homework” was statistically significant. Women were more likely than men to report that they “help the child with homework” (see Table 53). The percentage of women who said that they “help the child with homework” was 62.69; meanwhile, this percentage for men was 13.16 (see Figure 17).

### Number of hours taking care of children

The average number of hours taking care of children under 11 years old is 4 ( $SD = 2.82$ ;  $range: 1 - 15$ ). The average number of hours the spouse/partner takes care of children under 11 years old is 3.23 ( $SD = 2.85$ ;

$range: 0 - 15$ ) (see Table 8). Women reported an average number of 4.65 hours ( $SD = 3.22$ ) spent on childcare; meanwhile, men reported an average of 2.91 hours ( $SD = 1.41$ ) (see Figure 18). The difference between the two groups was statistically significant (see Table 54).

The relationship between age and the number of hours spent on childcare was negative. In other words, as anticipated, as age increases, the number of hours spent on childcare decreases.

### Number of hours the spouse/partner takes care of children

Men reported that their spouse/partner spends an average of 5.65 hours per day ( $SD = 3.14$ ) on childcare. Meanwhile, women themselves reported an average of 4.65 hours per day. Women reported that their spouse/partner spends an average of 1.83 hours per day ( $SD = 1.33$ ) on childcare. Meanwhile, men themselves reported an average of 2.91 hours (see Figure 19, Table 54, Table 55).

Figure 18: Average number of hours taking care of children by gender

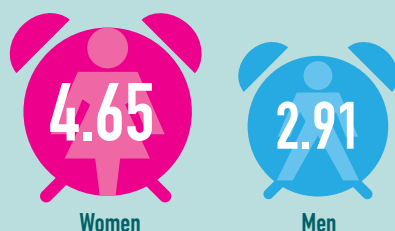
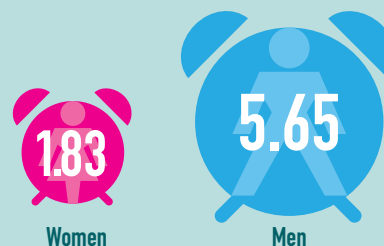


Figure 19: Average number of hours the spouse spends on taking care of children by gender



### ***Satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities***

The majority of respondents are satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities. Approximately, 80 percent of respondents reported that they are satisfied or very satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities. Women were less likely to be satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities ( $M = 3.79, SD = 1.21$ ) than men ( $M = 4.44, SD = 1.03$ ). Respondents in urban areas were more likely to be satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities ( $M = 4.61, SD = .60$ ) than respondents in rural areas ( $M = 4.13, SD = 1.14$ ) (Table 58). The higher the number of children, the lower the level of satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities (Table 59).

### ***Satisfaction of spouse/partner with the division of childcare responsibilities***

The majority of respondents reported that their spouse/partner is satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities. Specifically, 91.75 percent of study participants said that they are satisfied or very satisfied with the division of childcare responsibilities (see Table 8). The higher the number of children, the lower the level of satisfaction of the spouse with the division of childcare responsibilities. The larger the family size, the lower the level of satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities (see Table 61).

## The role of women and men in the family

### ***The main sources of income in your family***

The respondent and the spouse/partner comprise the main sources of income in the family; this is followed by sons and the father (see Table 9).

### ***The breadwinner***

The majority of respondents, 76.00 percent ( $n = 342$ ), reported that both women and men should be breadwinners; 22.67 percent of respondents ( $n = 102$ ) reported that men should be breadwinners (see Table 10).

### ***Attitudes towards the roles of women and men in the family***

Respondents were more likely to agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being,” followed by the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.” Meanwhile, respondents were less likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework,” followed by the statement “men should spend as much time as women raising their children.”

### ***“Men should engage as much as women in doing housework”***

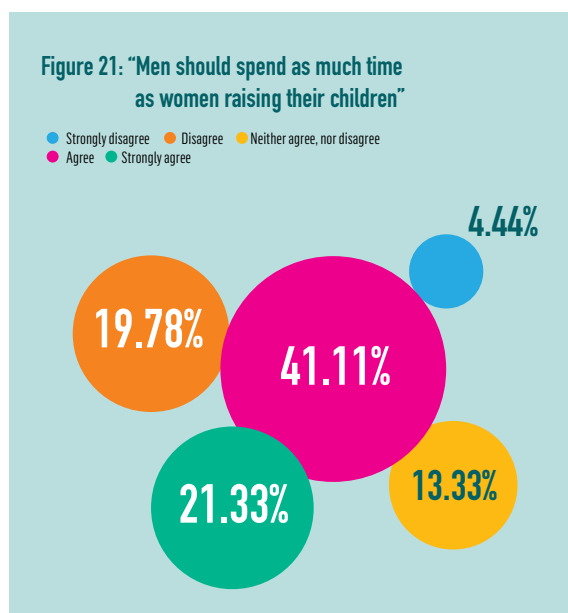
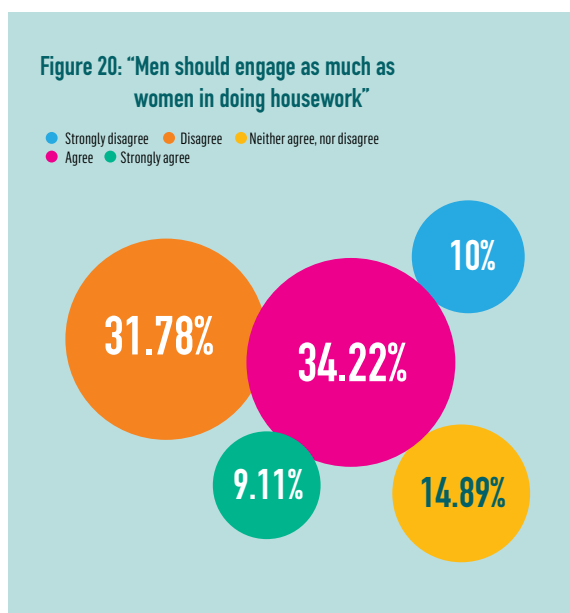
41.78 percent of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” (see Figure 20).

Differences exist by the type of area. 40.4 percent of respondents in urban areas agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework.” 47 percent of respondents in rural areas agreed or strongly agreed with “men should engage as much as women in doing housework.” The relationship between gender and “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” was statistically significant. Men were more likely than women to agree or strongly agree with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework.” 49.12 percent of men agreed or strongly agreed with “men should engage as much as women in doing housework.” 37.39 percent of women agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” (see Table 64). Older adults were more likely to agree with the statement “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” (see Table 65).

**“Men should spend as much time as women raising their children”**

More than 60 percent of respondents (n = 281) agreed or strongly agreed with “men should spend as much time as women raising their children” (see Figure 21). There were no differences by type of region, gender, civil status, and education (see Table 62).

58.77 percent of men agreed or strongly agreed with “men should spend as much time as women raising their children.” 66.21 percent of women agreed and strongly agreed with “men should spend as much time as women raising their children.” There were slight differences by education; 63.95 percent of respondents with at least college education agreed or strongly agreed with “men should spend as much time as women raising their children.” The percentage of those with lower levels of education was 62.08 (see Table 62).

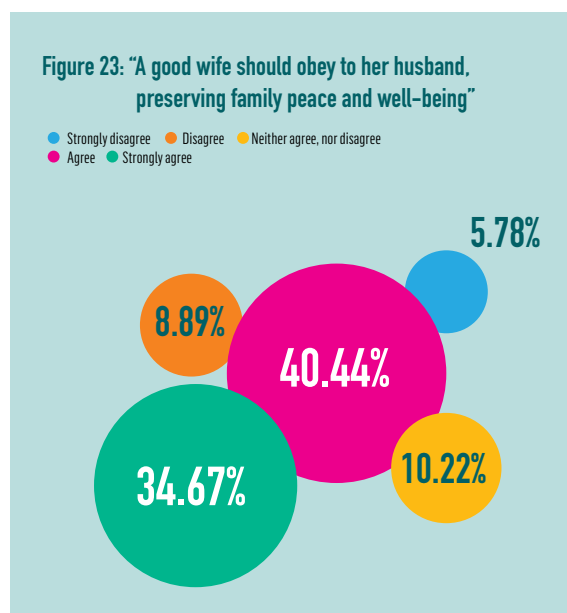
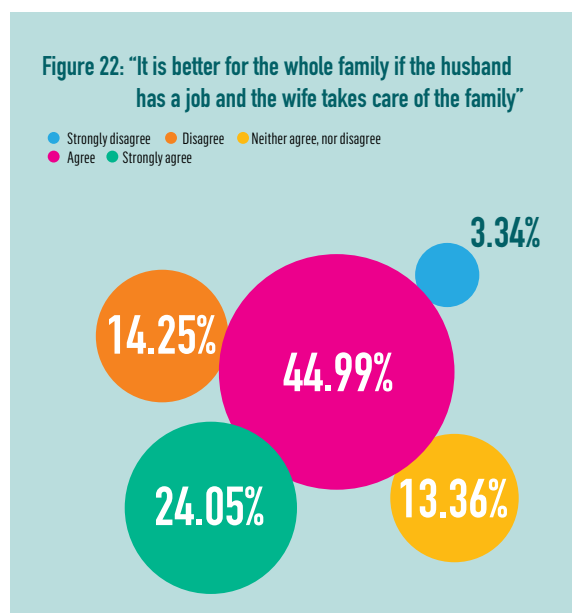


***“It is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family”***

Approximately, 70 percent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family” (see Figure 22).

Respondents in rural areas, compared to those in urban areas, were more likely to agree or strong agree with “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.” 62 percent of respondents in urban areas agreed or strongly agreed with the statement; meanwhile, the percentage for rural areas was 77.89. The gender of respondents does not make a (statistical) difference. 72.81 percent of men agreed or strongly agreed with “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family”; the percentage for women was 65.15. Respondents with higher levels of education were more likely to disagree or strongly disagree

with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.” 34.88 percent of respondents with college education (or above) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.” The percentage for those with lower levels of education was 13.5. Married respondents, compared to the non-married, were less likely to agree or strongly agree with “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family” (see Table 66). The higher the level of family income, the lower the level of agreement with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family.” There is less agreement with this traditional role in better-off families. As age increases, the level of agreement with the statement “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family” increases (see Table 67).



***“A good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being”***

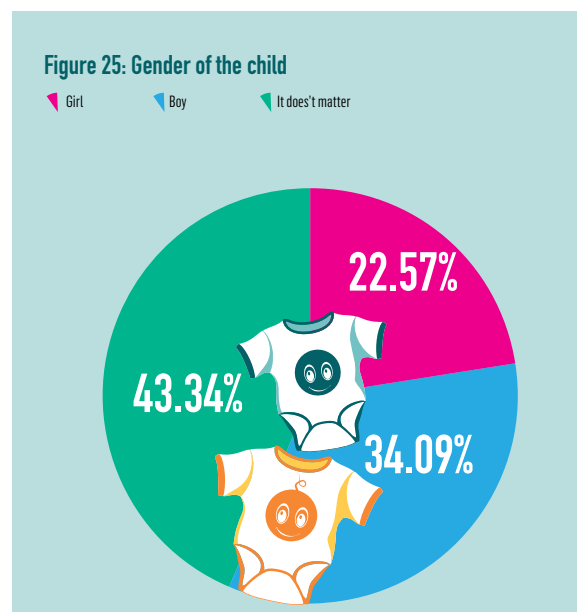
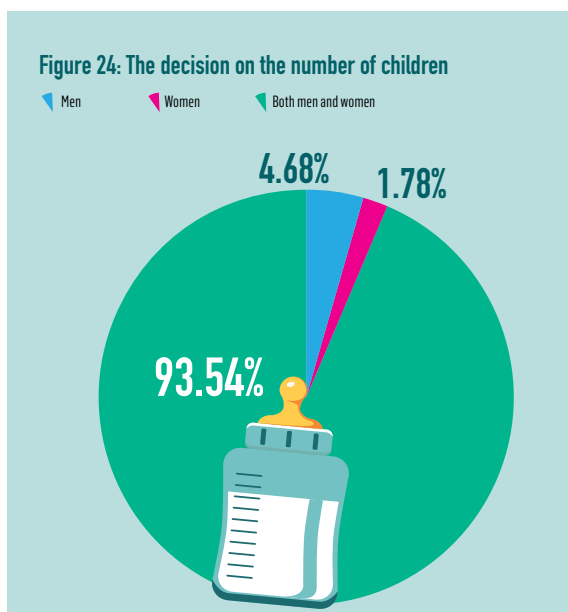
Seventy-five percent of respondents (n = 338) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being” (see Figure 23).

Respondents in rural areas were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being.” Specifically, 81 percent of respondents in rural areas agreed or strongly agreed with the statement; meanwhile, 70.4 percent of respondents in urban areas agreed or strongly agreed. Men, compared to women, were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being,” 78.95 percent vs. 71.17 percent. Differences were also observed by the education level. Respondents with greater levels

of education were less likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being.” When the partner/spouse had greater levels of education, respondents were less likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being” (see Table 68). The higher the level of family income, the lower the level of agreement with the statement “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being.” The same conclusion holds for family expenses. As age increases, the level of agreement with the statement increases (see Table 69).

***The decision on the number of children***

More than 90 percent of respondents reported that both men and women should make the decision on the number of children (see Figure 24).





### **Gender of the child**

Approximately, 43 percent of respondents reported that the gender of the child doesn't matter (see Figure 25).

Respondents in urban areas were more likely to report that the gender of the child doesn't matter; meanwhile, respondents in rural areas were more likely to report that they prefer a boy. The difference between urban and rural areas was statistically significant. Specifically, 40.72 percent of respondents in rural areas said that they prefer a boy; meanwhile, 28.92 percent of respondents in urban areas said that they prefer a boy.

## Employment

### **Salary satisfaction**

More than 50 percent of employed respondents reported that their salary does not reflect their qualifications. There were no differences between women and men (see Table 15).

### **Reasons for unemployment**

Slightly more than 55.33 percent of study participants ( $n = 249$ ) reported that they were unemployed. More than 50 percent of unemployed respondents ( $n = 123$ ) reported that they can't find a job. Only a small number of respondents, 1.33 percent or 3, reported that their spouse/partner does not want them to work (see Table 18).

### **Income and expenses**

The mean value of personal income is 20,000 ALL per month ( $SD = 354,702.7$ ; *range*: 20,000- 3,500,000). Men had greater levels of income ( $M = 387,794.6$ ;  $SD = 433,943$ ) than women ( $M = 231,729.7$ ;  $SD = 132,844$ ). The difference of 156,064.9 ALL between the two groups – women and men – was statistically significant. The income gap between women and men is higher among respondents with lower levels of education. The income difference between women and men with high school education or less is 194,053.7 ALL. The mean value of income for men with high school education or less is 391,831.5 ALL ( $SD = 474,726.8$ ); meanwhile, the mean value of income for women with high school education or less is 197,777.8 ALL ( $SD = 108,409$ ). The income gap between women and men with at least college education is 48,773.91 ALL. The average family income per month is 443,698.7 ALL ( $SD = 420,201.7$ ;

range: 10,000-4,000,000). The mean value of monthly expenses is 341,129.7 ALL ( $SD = 277,620.2$ ; range: 10,000- 3,000,000).

### **Amount of money keeping with you when leaving the house**

Men were more likely than women to report that their spouse/partner keeps less money in the wallet. Men report an average amount of 11,779.08 ALL ( $SD = 12,879.18$ ) for women; meanwhile, women reported an average amount of 39,017.01 ALL ( $SD = 65,661.24$ ) for men. The difference between the two amounts is 27,237.92 ALL.

### **Land ownership and cultivation**

47.33 percent of respondents ( $n = 213$ ) owned agricultural land. The mean value of the land area was 5.57 dynym<sup>2</sup> ( $SD = 5.97$ ; range: 0.15-50). More than 70 percent of study participants who owned land ( $n = 153$ ) said that they cultivate the land. Approximately, 55 percent of respondents who owned land reported that land cultivation is a responsibility shared almost equally between women and men (see Table 21).

### **Livestock ownership and care**

24.04 percent of respondents ( $n = 107$ ) reported that they raise cows and 13.06 percent ( $n = 58$ ) reported that they raise sheep and/or goats. 51.72 percent of respondents who owned livestock reported that “taking care of livestock” is a responsibility shared almost equally between women and men (see Table 22).

## Money management

### **Who keeps the money in the household**

The majority of respondents, 34.89 percent ( $n = 157$ ), said that the head of the household keeps the money in the family, followed by all together, 31.11 percent ( $n = 140$ ) (see Table 23).

### **Responsibility for money management**

Almost half of respondents reported that “we put all the money together and each of us gets how much he/she needs,” followed by “I manage all the money” (22.69 percent) and my spouse/partner manages all the money (21.01 percent) (see Table 24).

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2. One dynym equals 1,000 m<sup>2</sup> or 0.1 ha.

## Career – family balance

### **Family responsibilities impeding career advancement**

More than 20 percent of respondents (n = 77) reported that family responsibilities impede career advancement (see Figure 26).

### **Family members supporting career advancement**

More than 90 percent of respondents (n = 298) said that family members support their career advancement (see Figure 27).

### **Spouse/partner supporting career advancement**

Similarly, more than 90 percent of respondents who were married (n = 248) reported that their spouse/partner supports their career advancement (see Figure 28).

### **“It is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children”**

The majority of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “it is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children.” Specifically, 87.34 percent of respondents (n = 393) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement (see Figure 29). There were no differences by the type of region, gender, civil status, and education (see Table 70).

### **“The husband should sacrifice his career for the family”**

71.11 percent of respondents (n = 320) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “the husband

Figure 26: Family responsibilities impeding career advancement

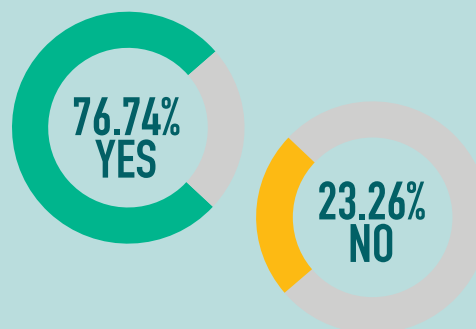


Figure 27: Family members supporting career advancement

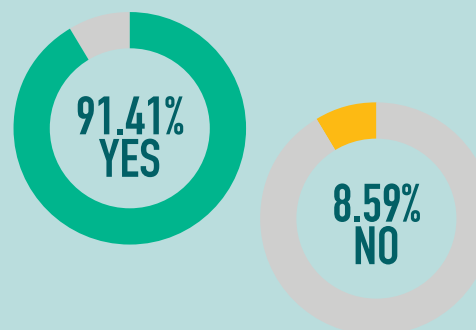
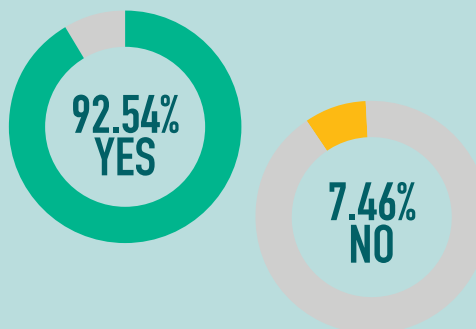


Figure 28: Spouse/partner supporting career advancement



should sacrifice his career for the family” (see Figure 30). Respondents with lower levels of education were more likely to agree or strongly agree with “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family” (see Table 72).

As age increases, the level of agreement with the statement “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family” increases (see Table 73).

disagree or strongly disagree with the statement “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family.” Married women, compared to non-married women, were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family.” Respondents with lower levels of education were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family” (see Table 74).

**“The wife should sacrifice her career for the family”**

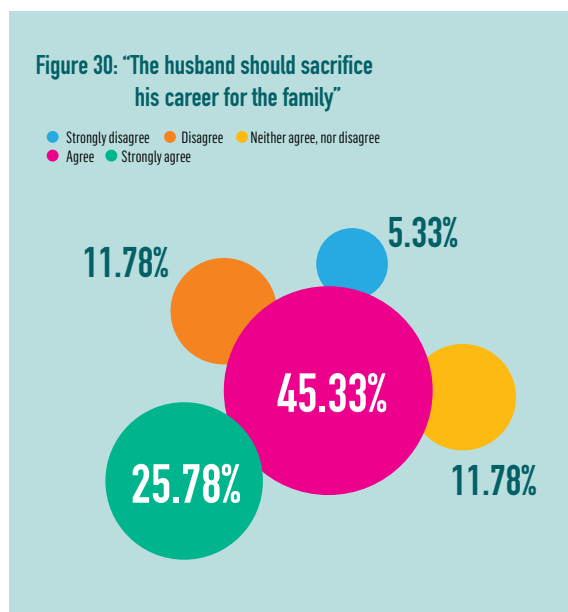
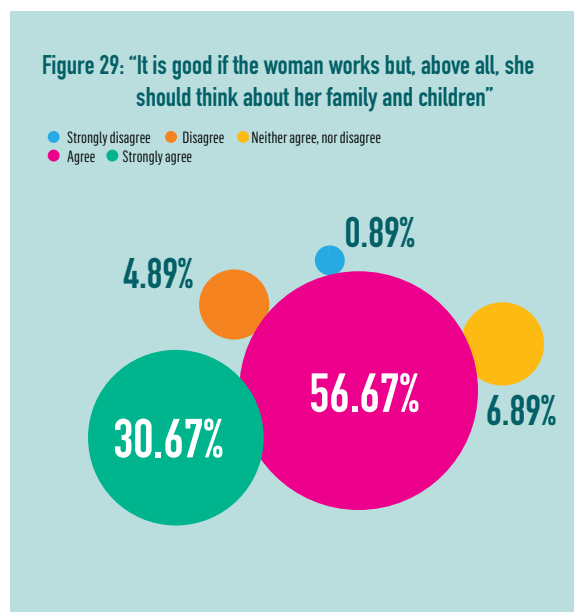
81.11 percent of respondents (n = 365) agreed or strong agreed with the statement “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family” (see Figure 31).

Respondents were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family” than with the statement “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family.” Women were more likely than men to

**If the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family**

72.16 percent of study participants (n = 324) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement “if the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family” (see Figure 32).

There were no differences by the type of region, gender, civil status, and education (see Table 76).



### Chances of getting a job

40.89 percent of respondents (n = 184) reported that both women and men have equal opportunities on the job market. If a man and a woman have the same level of education and apply for a job position, then they have equal chances to get the job. 35.33 percent of respondents (n = 159) said that “if a man and a woman have the same level of education and they apply for a job position,” the man is more likely to get the job. Meanwhile, 23.78 percent (n = 107) said that the woman is more likely to get the job (see Figure 33). There were no (statistical) differences by the gender of the respondent.

The majority of respondents who said that men are more likely to get the job focused on the division of household tasks and childcare. They argued that women are more likely than men to spend time raising their children and doing household chores. For them, this has two implications. First, women have less time to do paid work; family comes first. Second, over time, women become less competitive in the labor market

because they tend to support their family rather than seek training opportunities for themselves. Some of the responses are listed below: “Women would be busy taking care of household chores”; “Women have family responsibilities”; “Men have more free time; they have less family commitments”; “Women should raise their children and do household chores”; “The woman has more responsibility for her children and the family”; “Women are not accustomed to working outside of the house;” and “Women are busy doing household chores.”

Others referred to what they considered as the “inherent qualities” of men. Some examples of comments include: “Men are more powerful;” “Men are more capable;” “Men are more responsible;” “Men are more likely to lean towards leading roles;” “Men have more authority and they are superior. They know the situation well. They are born to be superior;” “Men have higher confidence in themselves;” “In 99 percent of the cases, men are dominant. This is how it has always been.” In comparing men with women,

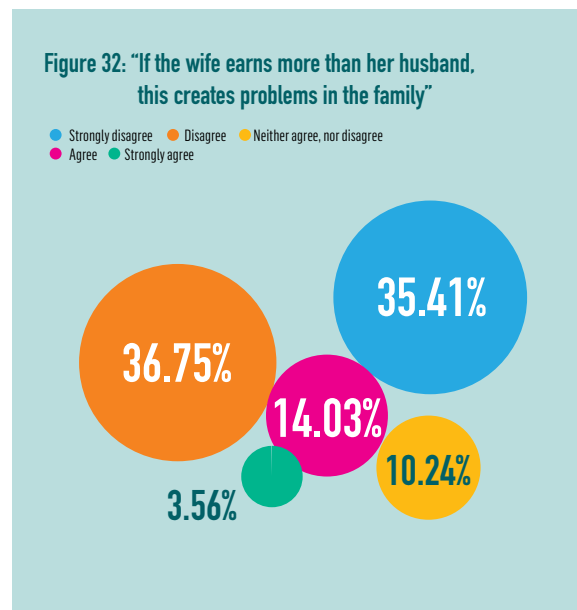
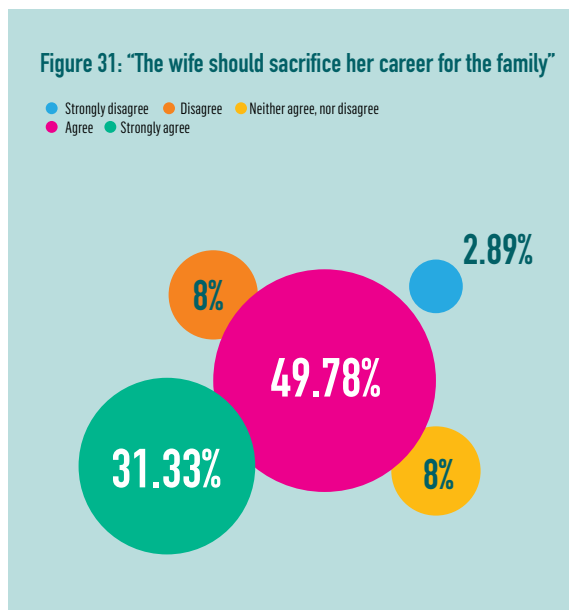
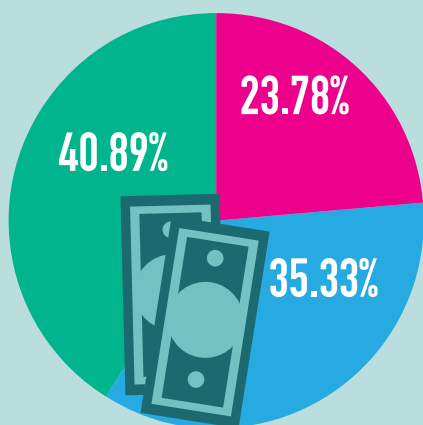


Figure 33: Chances of getting a job

Woman Man Equal opportunities



one of the respondents said: “Men are more powerful and have more control; women are softer and they are committed to their family.”

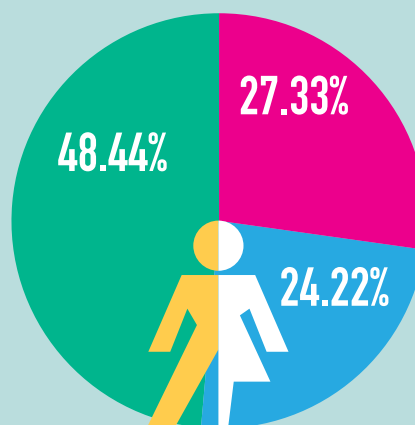
The majority of respondents who said that women are more likely to get the job referred to “women’s qualities,” in particular women’s resourcefulness, innovation, diligence, accuracy, capability, and flexibility. Others emphasized that women, compared to men, have better communication and management skills; work harder; are better educated; and are less corrupt. A few respondents mentioned that women should be supported to succeed in the labor market. One of the reasons why women might not succeed in finding a job is that their networks are too small. Meanwhile, men have more connections and therefore are more likely to find job opportunities.

### Preference for the gender of boss

Less than 50 percent of respondents said that they would prefer either a man or a woman as their boss

Figure 34: Preference for the gender of boss

Woman Man Woman or man



(see Figure 34).

Women were more likely than men to prefer a woman as boss. 32.43 percent of women (n = 72) said that they prefer a woman as their boss; meanwhile, 22.37 percent of men (n = 51) said that they prefer a woman as their boss.

Respondents reported that they would prefer a man as their boss because of the “qualities of men.” Specifically, they mentioned that men are more fearless; determined; understandable; tolerant; accurate; reasonable; and fair. One of the respondents said that “A man knows how to manage difficult situations well; his words are well respected.”

Men reported that they would feel more comfortable communicating with a man rather than with a woman. Some of the responses were: “You feel better in communicating with them [men]”; “Men can understand one another well; it is difficult to get along well with women.” In addition, some of the

respondents were against the idea of “getting orders from women” or “being criticized from women.” One of the respondents said “It will be unbearable if women offend you.”

Respondents who said that they prefer a woman as their boss highlighted the following qualities: communication and management skills; tolerance; responsibility; and politeness. Some of their comments were: “Women are more capable (lit: gratë janë më të zonja);” “Women provide more details; they explain things”; “Women are more tolerant and responsible”; “Women are closer to the family”; and “Women work harder and are more responsible than men.”

Some of the women respondents felt more connected with a woman because of the shared gender identity. Some of their responses were: “I can communicate with women; women can understand the problems of other women”; “Women understand the problems that you have;” “You express what you feel and they understand you well”; “It is easier for women to get along with other women rather than with men”; “Women want women (lit: gratë duan gratë);” “A woman would allow me to take a break and it would be easier to communicate with her;” “I feel better with a woman; you can’t discuss problems with men;” and “Women understand one another well; there are certain things that women know and men don’t.”

Some of the women respondents said that they avoid finding a job where the boss is a man because this might lead to conflicts in the family. For instance, one of the women respondents said: “My husband would be jealous.” Similarly, another woman respondent said: “The husband won’t allow me [to work] if my boss is a man.”

## Intervention areas

Respondents were asked if the participation of women and girls in the labor market as well as the contribution of men and boys within the household should increase. Then, they were asked to select from a list of interventions. In addition, they were encouraged to provide their own suggestions.

### **Increasing the participation of women and girls in the labor market**

98 percent of respondents (n = 440) said that the participation of women and girls in the labor market should increase.

### **Ways of increasing the participation of women and girls in the labor market:**

- Enhancing opportunities for training and qualification: 71.36 percent (n = 314);
- Providing opportunities for childcare in communities, such as kindergartens and nurseries: 44.55 percent (n = 196);
- Promoting the employment of women in local and central-level institutions: 58.18 percent (n = 256);
- Increasing the contribution of men in the house: 34.55 percent (n = 152);
- Providing incentives for women to open their own businesses: 30.91 percent (n = 136);

- Creating opportunities for women to work from home: 24.32 percent (n = 107);
- Other suggestions: Regulating employer – employee relationship; working with family members who don't allow women to work; increasing state support for women; changing societal attitudes toward women's role in the society; and increasing family support for the career advancement of women.

***Increasing the contribution of men and boys in the house***

86.64 percent of respondents (n = 389) said that the contribution of men and boys within the household should increase. Respondents were more likely to

agree with increasing the participation of women and girls in the labor market than increasing the contribution of men and boys in the house.

***Ways of increasing the participation of men and boys within the household:***

- Involving men and boys in housework: 60.67 percent (n = 236);
- Encouraging men to take responsibilities for childcare: 67.61 percent (n = 263);
- Supporting men to take paternity leave: 24.94 percent (n = 97);
- Other suggestions: Instilling egalitarian attitudes in boys when they are little.



## CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This study investigates public perceptions and attitudes toward gender equality in Albania. Public perceptions were examined in relation to the following aspects: the division of household chores; the division of childcare responsibilities; perceptions and attitudes towards the role of women and men in the family; employment and income; money management; career-family balance; and areas of intervention to increase the participation of women and girls in the labor market, and the contribution of men and boys in the family.

**T**his study found strong support for the “the man as the breadwinner and the woman as the homemaker” model. The majority of respondents reported that it is usually women who do the laundry and iron clothes; clean the house; cook; and wash dishes. The two household chores where men were more likely than women to be involved were related to house maintenance and the payment of bills. Women and men were more likely to share the following tasks: taking out the garbage, shopping, and taking care of sick family members. Women do the lion’s share of child-rearing and household tasks. Men are more likely to be involved in cases of health emergencies, for instance taking the child to a doctor.

The level of satisfaction of women with the division of household tasks is not very low, even when they have full responsibility for household tasks. One of the explanations for this finding is that women hold traditional attitudes towards family roles. The division

of household tasks fulfills their expectations. Despite this, the level of satisfaction of women with the division of household tasks is lower than the level of satisfaction of men.

For some of the household tasks, women and men have different perceptions about the contribution of one another. Men are more likely to report that they equally share the work with women. Meanwhile, women are more likely to report that they do not get the support of men. It is unclear how the different perceptions affect the sense of fairness within the family and marital satisfaction.

The gendered division of work within the household varies by individual-level characteristics, such as education, age, and migration experience. Education is correlated with almost all variables. Well-educated individuals were more likely to hold gender equitable attitudes. Migration experience is also correlated with

perceptions. Respondents who had some migration experience, compared to those who didn't have, were more likely to report that they almost equally share the tasks of cooking, shopping, and taking out the garbage. Meanwhile, for other tasks, such as washing dishes or taking care of sick family members, they did not (statistically) differ from respondents who haven't lived abroad. Or, respondents who had some migration experience did not (statistically) differ on their level of agreement with the statement "a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being" or the statement "it is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children." These findings indicate that some gender roles are more malleable than others. Future studies should focus on the rigidity of gender roles and how the experience of living abroad affects perceptions and attitudes towards gender equality within the household and the labor market.

The study shows that the relationship between age and the reported division of household tasks and attitudes towards gender roles is not one-directional. For example, older adults, compared with young adults, are more likely to agree with the statement "a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being" as well as with the statement "men should engage as much as women in doing housework." One explanation might be that older adults have more time to spend and contribute to household chores. However, their contribution does not challenge the beliefs that they hold. The underlying causes of these contradictory views need further analysis.

The study reveals that there is less agreement with traditional gender role in better-off families. The higher the level of family income, the lower the level

of agreement with the statement "it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family." Similarly, the higher the level of family income, the lower the level of agreement with the statement "a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being." However, personal income and family income might affect perceptions and attitudes through different mechanisms. Personal income, compared to family income, might provide more power to negotiate gender roles. The mechanisms through which income affects the malleability of gender roles needs further investigation.

The transformation of gender roles and norms requires that the gender gap, in terms of participation in the labor market and earnings, diminishes. In recent years, national statistics have revealed a decline of women in the labor market (Ministry of Social Welfare and Youth, 2015). Hence, Albanian families are far from approaching the dual-earner model. This reality is also influenced by larger forces, such as economic shocks, which undermine women's involvement in the formal labor market (INSTAT, 2005; Sabarwal, Sinha, & Buvinic, 2011).

The extent that the division of housework has changed in the last 25 years is unclear. Being a cross-sectional study, it doesn't allow capturing how perceptions and attitudes have changed over time. A panel study can track such changes as well as the impact that certain forces, such as migration, have on gender equality.

The sample of this study does not represent the population of Albania. Future studies should consider a larger sample. Despite this drawback, this study provides numerous insights on how individual and regional-level characteristics affect

public perceptions of gender equality. Future studies should consider alternative methods for collecting information. One of the disadvantages of self-reports is that respondents might provide socially desirable answers. Interviewers shared instances of inconsistent responses. For instance, men would report that they support gender equality but then say that “women should not have rights over land” or “women don’t want to own land”. Or, women would report that

husbands spend several hours helping them with household chores but then find it difficult to share specific examples of the work that their husbands do. Other methods should be utilized with the purpose of comparing what people say and what they do in practice. For instance, participant observation can provide additional insights; the information reported by study participants can be compared with the observed behavior.

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# Appendix 1

## Selected areas

### Mountainous region

District (rrethi)	Region (qarku)	Selected urban area	Selected rural area
Lezha	Lezha	Lezha (n=25)	Kolsh (n=20)
Delvina	Vlora	Delvina (n=25)	Vergo (n=20)
Vlora	Vlora	Vlora (n=25)	Shushica (n=20)

### Central region

District (rrethi)	Region (qarku)	Selected urban area	Selected rural area
Tepelena	Gjirokastra	Tepelena (n=25)	Hormova (n = 20)
Berat	Berat	Berat (n=25)	Otlak (n=20)
Korça	Korça	Korça (n=25)	Mollaj (n=20)

### Mountainous region

District (rrethi)	Region (qarku)	Selected urban area	Selected rural area
Bulqiza	Dibër	Bulqiza (n=25)	Zerqan (n=20)
Kukës	Kukës	Kukës (n=25)	Bicaj (n=20)

### Tirana

District (rrethi)	Region (qarku)	Selected urban area	Selected rural area
Tirana	Tirana	Tirana (n=50)	Farka (n=20)
Tirana	Tirana		Shëngjergj (n=20)

# Appendix 2

## Univariate analysis

**Table 1: Sample characteristics (continuous variables)**

Variable	M	SD	Range
Number of children	2.40	1.82	0-10
Number of children under 11 years old	0.40	0.75	0-4
Number of families under the same roof	1.27	0.61	0-5
Number of individuals under the same roof	4.64	2.02	1-22
Number of hours per day spent on household chores	3.35	2.69	0-20
Number of hours per day spent on household chores by the spouse/partner	3.59	3.34	0-20
Satisfaction with the division of household chores	4.00	1.17	1-5
Satisfaction of the spouse/partner with the division of household chores	4.21	1.07	1-5

**Table 2: Sample characteristics (categorical variables)**

Variable	n	%
Region		
Coastal	135	30
Mountainous	95	21.11
Central	130	28.89
Tirana	90	20
Type of region		
Urban	250	55.56
Rural	200	44.44
Gender		
Women	222	49.33
Men	228	50.67
Member of a minority group		
Yes	23	5.13
No	425	94.87
Beneficiary of disability entitlements		
Yes	44	9.89
No	401	90.11
Religion		
Muslim	338	75.11
Christian	81	18.00



Atheist	17	3.78
Other	14	3.11
Civil status		
Single	68	15.11
Married	357	79.33
Divorced	7	1.56
Widowed	17	3.78
Cohabitates	1	0.22
Education		
No education	6	1.33
Primary school	20	4.44
Secondary school	134	29.78
High school	204	45.33
College	82	18.22
Master	4	0.89
Doctorate	0	-
Partner's education		
No education	3	0.83
Primary school	20	5.51
Secondary school	116	31.96
High school	175	48.21
College	47	12.95
Master	1	0.28
Doctorate	1	0.28
Families with children under 11 years old		
Yes	118	26.4
No	329	73.6
Relationship with the head of the household		
Head of the household	183	40.85
Spouse/partner	160	35.71
Child	69	15.40
Niece/nephew	1	0.22
Father/mother	9	2.01
Brother/sister	1	0.22
Groom/bride	20	4.46
Brother/sister-in-law	0	-
Grandmother/father	0	-
Mother/father-in-law	4	0.89
Other	1	0.22

\*Other: the owner of the house.

**Table 3: Division of household chores**

	Usually women (%)	Usually men (%)	Almost equally (%)	Mostly third person (%)	Not applicable (%)
Doing laundry and ironing clothes	400 (88.89)	7 (1.56)	41 (9.11)	2 (0.44)	0 (0)
Cleaning the house	378 (84.00)	3 (0.67)	66 (14.67)	3 (0.67)	0 (0)
Shopping	166 (36.89)	86 (19.11)	194 (43.11)	4 (0.89)	0 (0)
Cooking	368 (82.14)	5 (1.12)	73 (16.29)	2 (0.45)	0 (0)
Washing dishes	398 (88.44)	6 (1.33)	44 (9.78)	2 (0.44)	0 (0)
Taking out the garbage	140 (31.39)	107 (23.99)	192 (43.05)	7 (1.57)	0 (0)
House maintenance	20 (4.50)	343 (77.25)	53 (11.94)	27 (6.08)	1 (0.23)
Paying bills	72 (16.07)	254 (56.70)	110 (24.55)	9 (2.01)	3 (0.67)
Taking care of sick family members	99 (24.15)	44 (10.73)	236 (57.56)	3 (0.73)	28 (6.83)

**Table 4: Division of household chores (cont.)**

Variable	M	SD	Range
Number of hours per day spent on household chores	3.35	2.69	0-20
Number of hours per day spent on household chores by the spouse/partner	3.59	3.34	0-20
Satisfaction with the division of household chores	4.00	1.17	1-5
Satisfaction of the spouse/partner with the division of household chores	4.21	1.07	1-5

**Table 5: Childcare support**

	n	%
Babysitter	1	0.87
My parents	24	20.87
The parents of my spouse/partner	28	24.35
My friends	1	0.87
I don't get any support	43	37.39
Other	18	15.65

\*Other: older children.

**Table 6: Taking care of children**

	n	%
I take care of my children	43	36.75
My spouse/partner takes care of my children	17	14.53
We both take care of children	57	48.72

**Table 7: Childcare responsibilities**

	Usually me (%)	Usually my spouse/partner (%)	Almost equally (%)	Other (%)
Daily care of the child	68 (58.12)	27 (23.08)	22 (18.80)	0 (0)
Staying with the child when he/she is sick	39 (33.33)	14 (11.97)	64 (54.70)	0 (0)
Taking the child to the doctor	23 (19.66)	17 (14.53)	76 (64.96)	1 (0.85)
Taking the child to bed	55 (49.11)	22 (19.64)	31 (27.68)	4 (3.57)
Taking the child to school/kindergarten/sports class	40 (37.38)	22 (20.56)	32 (29.91)	13 (12.15)
Helping the child with homework assignments	47 (44.76)	17 (16.19)	37 (35.24)	4 (3.81)

\*Other: grandparents; the child is old enough to go to school/sports class by himself/herself.

**Table 8: Childcare responsibilities (cont.)**

	M	SD	Range
Number of hours taking care of children	4	2.82	1-15
Number of hours the spouse/partner takes care of children	3.23	2.85	0-15
Satisfaction with the division of tasks	4.03	1.18	1-5
Satisfaction of partner/spouse with the division of tasks	4.37	.94	1-5

**Table 9: Sources of income in the family**

Source of income	Yes (%)	No (%)
Respondent	201 (44.67)	249 (55.33)
Spouse/partner	184 (40.89)	266 (59.11)
Son	33 (7.33)	417 (92.67)
Daughter	8 (1.78)	442 (98.22)
Father	53 (11.78)	397 (88.22)
Mother	22 (4.89)	428 (95.11)
Brother	10 (2.22)	440 (97.78)
Sister	1 (0.22)	449 (99.78)
Relatives	1 (0.22)	449 (99.78)
Other	51 (11.33)	399 (88.67)

\*Other: government programs, cousins, brother-in-law.

**Table 10: Who should be the breadwinner**

	n	%
Men	102	22.67
Women	6	1.33
Both men and women	342	76.00

**Table 11: Attitudes towards gender roles**

	M	SD	Range
Men should spend as much time as women raising their children	3.55	1.16	1-5
Men should engage as much as women in doing housework	3.01	1.19	1-5
It is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family	3.72	1.08	1-5
A good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being	3.89	1.15	1-5

**Table 12: Attitudes towards gender roles (cont.)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Men should spend as much time as women raising their children	20 (4.44)	89 (19.78)	60 (13.33)	185 (41.11)	96 (21.33)
Men should engage as much as women in doing housework	45 (10.00)	143 (31.78)	67 (14.89)	154 (34.22)	41 (9.11)
It is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family	15 (3.34)	64 (14.25)	60 (13.36)	202 (44.99)	108 (24.05)
A good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being	26 (5.78)	40 (8.89)	46 (10.22)	182 (40.44)	156 (34.67)

**Table 13: Who should take the decision on the number of children?**

	n	%
Men	21	4.68
Women	8	1.78
Both men and women	420	93.54

**Table 14: Gender preference of the child**

	n	%
Girl	100	22.32
Boy	151	33.71
It doesn't matter	192	42.86
I don't know	5	1.12

**Table 15: Employment status**

	n	%
Employment status		
Employed	201	44.67
Unemployed	249	55.33
Employment sector		
Private	155	77.89
Public	44	22.11
Salary reflecting qualifications		
Yes	85	47.75
No	93	52.25

**Table 16: Family-career balance**

	M	SD	Range
Difficulties managing career-family balance	2.95	1.20	1-5
Job satisfaction	3.14	1.15	1-5
Monthly income	325,704	354,702	200,00-3,500,000

**Table 17: Personal income**

	n	%
My income is higher	61	37.89
My spouse's/partner's income is higher	35	21.74
Our income is almost equal	44	27.33
My spouse/partner does not have an income	21	13.04

**Table 18: Reasons for unemployment**

	n	%
I could not find a job	123	54.42
I don't want to work	6	2.65
My spouse/partner does not want me to work	3	1.33
I find it difficult to combine work and housework	16	7.08
I find it difficult to open a business	2	0.88
Old age	15	6.64
Other	61	26.99

\*Other: attending school, lacking professional experience, having a disability, facing health problems, taking care of sick family members (the mother-in-law),

**Table 19: Evaluating family income**

	n	%
We can afford only food	168	37.67
We have enough money for food and clothing	151	33.86
We have enough money for food, clothing, and furniture	71	15.92
We have enough money for food, clothing, and furniture, and going on vacation	48	10.76
We have enough money to make large purchases, such as buy a house and/or a car	8	1.79

**Table 20: Monthly family income and expenses**

	M	SD	Range
Monthly family income	443,698.7	420,201.7	10,000-4,000,000
Monthly family expenses	341,129.7	277,620.2	100,00-3,000,000

**Table 21: Land cultivation**

	n	%
Usually women	13	8.44
Usually men	49	31.82
Almost equally	85	55.19
Workers	7	4.55

**Table 22: Taking care of livestock**

	n	%
Usually women	7	12.07
Usually men	17	29.31
Almost equally	30	51.72
Workers	2	3.45
Other	2	3.45

\*Other: relatives

**Table 23: Who keeps the money in the family**

	n	%
The head of the household	157	34.89
Spouse/partner	55	12.22
Men	24	5.33
Women	73	16.22
All together	140	31.11
I don't know	1	0.22

**Table 24: Money management in the couple**

	n	%
I manage all the money	81	22.69
My spouse/partner manages all the money	75	21.01
We put all the money together and each of us gets how much he/she needs	181	50.70
We put some money together and leave the rest of it for ourselves	17	4.76
Each of us manages his/her own money	3	0.84

**Table 25: Amount of money carrying when leaving the house**

	M	SD	Range
Amount of money carrying with you when you leave the house	23,865.22	65,494.2	0-1,000,000
Amount of money your spouse/partner carries when leaving the house	25,125.67	48,739.89	0-500000

**Table 26: Career advancement**

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Family responsibilities impeding career advancement	77 (23.26)	254 (76.74)
Family members support career advancement	298 (91.41)	28 (8.59)
Spouse/partner support career advancement	248 (92.54)	20 (7.46)

**Table 27: Gender roles and career advancement**

	M	SD	Range
It is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children	4.11	0.80	1-5
The husband should sacrifice his career for the family	3.74	1.12	1-5
The wife should sacrifice her career for the family	3.99	0.99	1-5
If the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family	2.13	1.15	1-5

**Table 28: Gender roles and career advancement**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
It is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children	4 (0.89)	22 (4.89)	31 (6.89)	255 (56.67)	138 (30.67)
The husband should sacrifice his career for the family	24 (5.33)	53 (11.78)	53 (11.78)	204 (45.33)	116 (25.78)
The wife should sacrifice her career for the family	13 (2.89)	36 (8.00)	36 (8.00)	224 (49.78)	141 (31.33)
If the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family	159 (35.41)	165 (36.75)	46 (10.24)	63 (14.03)	16 (3.56)

**Table 29: If a man and a woman have the same level of education and they apply for a job position, who is more likely to get the job?**

	n	%
Women	107	23.78
Men	159	35.33
Both women and men – equal opportunities	184	40.89



**Table 30: Would you prefer a man or a woman as your boss?**

	n	%
A woman	123	27.33
A man	109	24.22
It doesn't matter	218	48.44

**Table 31: Suggestions for increasing the participation of women and girls in the labor market**

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Enhancing opportunities for training and qualification	314 (71.36)	126 (28.64)
Providing opportunities for childcare in the communities, such as kindergartens and nurseries	196 (44.55)	244 (55.45)
Promoting women's employment in local and central-level institutions	256 (58.18)	184 (41.82)
Increasing men's contribution within the household	152 (34.55)	288 (65.45)
Providing incentives for women to open their own businesses	136 (30.91)	304 (69.09)
Creating opportunities for women to work from home	107 (24.32)	333 (75.68)
Other	5 (1.14)	435 (98.86)

\*Other: instilling egalitarian attitudes in boys when they are little; working with family members who don't allow women to work; increasing state support for women; changing societal attitudes toward women's role in the society; and increasing family support for the career advancement of women.

**Table 32: Suggestions for increasing the contribution of men and boys in the house**

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Men and boys should do more house work	236 (60.67)	153 (39.33)
Men should take more childcare responsibilities	263 (67.61)	126 (32.39)
Men should take maternity leave, as women do	97 (24.94)	292 (75.06)
Other	7 (1.80)	382 (98.20)

\*Other: educating boys when they are little.

## Appendix 3

**Table 33: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “doing laundry and ironing clothes” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					0.87
Coastal	116 (85.93)	4 (2.96)	14 (10.37)	1 (0.74)	
Mountainous	86 (90.53)	1 (1.05)	8 (8.42)	0 (0)	
Central	116 (89.23)	1 (0.77)	12 (9.23)	1 (0.77)	
Tirana	82 (91.11)	1 (1.11)	7 (7.78)	0 (0)	
Type of region					0.89
Urban	222 (88.80)	3 (1.20)	24 (9.60)	1 (0.40)	
Rural	178 (89.00)	4 (2.00)	17 (8.50)	1 (0.50)	
Gender					1.27
Men	199 (87.28)	4 (1.75)	24 (10.53)	1 (0.44)	
Women	201 (90.54)	3 (1.35)	17 (7.66)	1 (0.45)	
Civil status					8.17*
Married	323 (90.48)	3 (0.84)	30 (8.40)	1 (0.28)	
Other	77 (82.80)	4 (4.30)	11 (11.83)	1 (1.08)	
Education					7.92
Secondary or less	144 (90.00)	3 (1.88)	11 (6.88)	2 (1.25)	
High school	184 (90.20)	2 (0.98)	18 (8.82)	0 (0)	
College and above	72 (83.72)	2 (2.33)	12 (13.95)	0 (0)	
Partner’s education					2.91
Secondary or less	125 (89.93)	2 (1.44)	11 (7.91)	1 (0.72)	
High school	160 (91.43)	1 (0.57)	14 (8.00)	0 (0)	
College and above	43 (87.76)	1 (2.04)	5 (10.20)	0 (0)	
Living abroad					5.7
Yes	95 (84.07)	1 (0.88)	16 (14.16)	1 (0.88)	
No	305 (90.50)	6 (1.78)	25 (7.42)	1 (0.30)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

†Other individual-level characteristics – recipient of disability entitlements, minority member, and religion – were included in the analysis. The analysis did not reveal statistically significant relationships. Therefore, they were not included in the table.

**Table 34: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “cleaning the house” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
<b>Region</b>					9.18
Coastal	113 (83.70)	2 (1.48)	18 (13.33)	2 (1.48)	
Mountainous	83 (87.37)	0 (0)	12 (12.63)	0 (0)	
Central	105 (80.77)	0 (0)	25 (19.23)	0 (0)	
Tirana	77 (85.56)	1 (1.11)	11 (12.22)	1 (1.11)	
<b>Urban</b>					0.46
Urban	208 (83.20)	2 (0.80)	37 (14.80)	3 (1.20)	
Rural	170 (85.00)	1 (0.50)	29 (14.50)	0 -	
<b>Gender</b>					16.17**
Men	177 (77.63)	3 (1.32)	45 (19.74)	3 (1.32)	
Women	201 (90.54)	0 (0)	21 (9.46)	0 (0)	
<b>Civil status</b>					5.45
Married	298 (83.47)	1 (0.28)	56 (15.69)	2 (0.56)	
Other	80 (86.02)	2 (2.15)	10 (10.75)	1 (1.08)	
<b>Education</b>					7.39
Secondary or less	136 (85.00)	2 (1.25)	20 (12.50)	20 (1.25)	
High school	175 (85.78)	0 (0)	28 (13.73)	1 (0.49)	
College and above	67 (77.91)	1 (1.16)	18 (20.93)	0 (0)	
<b>Partner’s education</b>					4.08
Secondary or less	114 (82.01)	2 (1.44)	22 (15.83)	1 (0.72)	
High school	146 (83.43)	0 (0)	28 (16.00)	1 (0.57)	
College and above	43 (87.76)	0 (0)	6 (12.24)	0 (0)	
<b>Living abroad</b>					6.23
Yes	88 (77.88)	0 (0)	24 (21.24)	1 (0.88)	
No	290 (86.05)	3 (0.89)	42 (12.46)	2 (0.59)	

**Table 35: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “shopping” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					9.04
Coastal	57 (42.22)	18 (13.33)	59 (43.70)	1 (0.74)	
Mountainous	31 (32.63)	25 (26.32)	38 (40.00)	1 (1.05)	
Central	46 (35.38)	23 (17.69)	59 (45.38)	2 (1.54)	
Tirana	32 (35.56)	20 (22.22)	38 (42.22)	0 (0)	
Type of region					3.06
Urban	98 (39.20)	41 (16.40)	109 (43.60)	2 (0.80)	
Rural	68 (34.00)	45 (22.50)	85 (42.50)	2 (1.00)	
Gender					11.31*
Men	68 (29.82)	53 (23.25)	105 (46.05)	2 (0.88)	
Women	98 (44.14)	33 (14.86)	89 (40.09)	2 (0.90)	
Civil status					7.04
Married	123 (34.45)	66 (18.49)	165 (46.22)	3 (0.84)	
Other	43 (46.24)	20 (21.51)	29 (31.18)	1 (1.08)	
Education					7.83
Secondary or less	69 (43.12)	27 (16.88)	61 (38.12)	3 (1.88)	
High school	70 (34.31)	41 (20.10)	92 (45.10)	1 (0.49)	
College and above	27 (31.40)	18 (20.93)	41 (47.67)	0 (0)	
Partner’s education					3.43
Secondary or less	53 (38.13)	26 (18.71)	58 (41.73)	2 (1.44)	
High school	56 (32.00)	35 (20.00)	83 (47.43)	1 (0.57)	
College and above	18 (36.73)	7 (14.29)	24 (48.98)	0 (0)	
Living abroad					9.37*
Yes	30 (26.55)	20 (17.70)	62 (54.87)	1 (0.88)	
No	136 (40.36)	66 (19.58)	132 (39.17)	3 (0.89)	

**Table 36: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “cooking” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					8.73
Coastal	108 (80.00)	3 (2.22)	23 (17.04)	1 (0.74)	
Mountainous	84 (89.36)	0 (0)	10 (10.64)	0 (0)	
Central	102 (79.07)	1 (0.78)	26 (20.16)	0 (0)	
Tirana	74 (82.22)	1 (1.11)	14 (15.56)	1 (1.11)	
Type of region					3.26
Urban	201 (80.40)	4 (1.60)	43 (17.20)	2 (0.80)	
Rural	167 (84.34)	1 (0.51)	30 (15.15)	0 (0)	
Gender					2.93
Men	181 (79.74)	4 (1.76)	41 (18.06)	1 (0.44)	
Women	187 (84.62)	1 (0.45)	32 (14.48)	1 (0.45)	
Civil status					12.65**
Married	293 (82.30)	1 (0.28)	61 (17.13)	1 (0.28)	
Other	75 (81.52)	4 (4.35)	12 (13.04)	1 (1.09)	
Education					14.17*
Secondary or less	136 (85.53)	1 (0.63)	20 (12.58)	2 (1.26)	
High school	171 (84.24)	2 (0.99)	30 (14.78)	0 (0)	
College and above	61 (70.93)	2 (2.33)	23 (26.74)	0 (0)	
Partner's education					7.28
Secondary or less	115 (83.33)	2 (1.45)	20 (14.49)	1 (0.72)	
High school	140 (80.00)	0 (0)	35 (20.00)	0 (0)	
College and above	43 (87.76)	0 (0)	6 (12.24)	0 (0)	
Living abroad					9.49*
Yes	83 (74.11)	3 (2.68)	26 (23.21)	0 (0)	
No	285 (84.82)	2 (0.60)	47 (13.99)	2 (0.60)	

**Table 37: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “washing dishes” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					9.95
Coastal	116 (85.93)	4 (2.96)	14 (10.37)	1 (0.74)	
Mountainous	89 (93.68)	1 (1.05)	5 (5.26)	0 (0)	
Central	112 (86.15)	0 (0)	17 (13.08)	1 (0.77)	
Tirana	81 (90.00)	1 (1.11)	8 (8.89)	0 (0)	
Type of region					2.18
Urban	217 (86.80)	3 (1.20)	29 (11.60)	1 (0.40)	
Rural	181 (90.50)	3 (1.50)	15 (7.50)	1 (0.50)	
Gender					12.49**
Men	190 (83.33)	5 (2.19)	32 (14.04)	1 (0.44)	
Women	208 (93.69)	1 (0.45)	12 (5.41)	1 (0.45)	
Civil status					4.07
Married	313 (87.68)	4 (1.12)	39 (10.92)	1 (0.28)	
Other	85 (91.40)	2 (2.15)	5 (5.38)	1 (1.08)	
Education					9.52
Secondary or less	143 (89.38)	3 (1.88)	12 (7.50)	2 (1.25)	
High school	184 (90.20)	1 (0.49)	19 (9.31)	0 (0)	
College and above	71 (82.56)	2 (2.33)	13 (15.12)	0 (0)	
Partner’s education					6.73
Secondary or less	122 (87.77)	3 (2.16)	13 (9.35)	1 (0.72)	
High school	157 (89.71)	1 (0.57)	17 (9.71)	0 (0)	
College and above	39 (79.59)	1 (2.04)	9 (18.37)	0 (0)	
Living abroad					4.17
Yes	95 (84.07)	1 (0.88)	16 (14.16)	1 (0.88)	
No	303 (89.91)	5 (1.48)	28 (8.31)	1 (0.30)	

**Table 38: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking out the garbage” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					9.06
Coastal	46 (34.33)	29 (21.64)	56 (41.79)	3 (2.24)	
Mountainous	37 (38.95)	24 (25.26)	34 (35.79)	0 (0)	
Central	32 (25.20)	34 (26.77)	59 (46.46)	2 (1.57)	
Tirana	25 (27.78)	20 (22.22)	43 (47.78)	2 (2.22)	
Type of region					13.31**
Urban	63 (25.40)	58 (23.39)	121 (48.79)	6 (2.42)	
Rural	77 (38.89)	49 (24.75)	71 (35.86)	1 (0.51)	
Gender					34.60***
Men	48 (21.33)	77 (34.22)	97 (43.11)	3 (1.33)	
Women	92 (41.63)	30 (13.57)	95 (42.99)	4 (1.81)	
Civil status					0.29
Married	110 (31.07)	86 (24.29)	152 (42.94)	6 (1.69)	
Other	30 (32.61)	21 (22.83)	40 (43.48)	1 (1.09)	
Education					16.89*
Secondary or less	66 (30)	30 (18.99)	59 (37.34)	3 (1.90)	
High school	57 (28.22)	51 (25.25)	90 (44.55)	4 (1.98)	
College and above	17 (19.77)	26 (30.23)	43 (50.00)	0 (0)	
Partner’s education					8.99
Secondary or less	52 (37.96)	29 (21.17)	54 (39.42)	2 (1.46)	
High school	51 (29.31)	42 (24.14)	78 (44.83)	3 (1.72)	
College and above	9 (18.37)	18 (36.73)	21 (42.86)	1 (2.04)	
Living abroad					12.20**
Yes	22 (20.00)	32 (29.09)	52 (47.27)	4 (3.64)	
No	118 (35.12)	75 (22.32)	140 (41.67)	3 (0.89)	

**Table 39: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “house maintenance” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					29.75**
Coastal	12 (8.96)	93 (69.40)	21 (15.67)	7 (5.22)	
Mountainous	2 (2.17)	79 (85.87)	5 (5.43)	6 (6.52)	
Central	2 (1.54)	100 (76.92)	14 (10.77)	14 (10.77)	
Tirana	4 (4.55)	71 (80.68)	13 (14.77)	0 (0)	
Type of region					2.16
Urban	12 (4.84)	191 (77.02)	28 (11.29)	17 (6.85)	
Rural	8 (4.08)	152 (77.55)	25 (12.76)	10 (5.10)	
Gender					9.38
Men	5 (2.24)	183 (82.06)	23 (10.31)	11 (4.93)	
Women	15 (6.79)	160 (72.40)	30 (13.57)	16 (7.24)	
Civil status					13.14*
Married	11 (3.12)	274 (77.62)	44 (12.46)	24 (6.80)	
Other	9 (9.89)	69 (75.82)	9 (9.89)	3 (3.30)	
Education					23.86**
Secondary or less	11 (6.92)	109 (68.55)	22 (13.84)	17 (10.69)	
High school	7 (3.48)	170 (84.58)	15 (7.46)	8 (3.98)	
College and above	2 (2.38)	64 (76.19)	16 (19.05)	2 (2.38)	
Partner’s education					8.66
Secondary or less	3 (2.17)	104 (75.36)	16 (11.59)	15 (10.87)	
High school	9 (5.17)	135 (77.59)	23 (13.22)	7 (4.02)	
College and above	1 (2.13)	39 (82.98)	5 (10.64)	2 (4.26)	
Living abroad					4.86
Yes	4 (3.64)	87 (79.09)	14 (12.73)	4 (3.64)	
No	16 (4.79)	256 (76.65)	39 (11.68)	23 (6.89)	



**Table 40: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “paying bills” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					23.62*
Coastal	29 (21.48)	59 (43.70)	41 (30.37)	4 (2.96)	
Mountainous	12 (12.63)	66 (69.47)	16 (16.84)	1 (1.05)	
Central	22 (17.05)	78 (60.47)	25 (19.38)	3 (2.33)	
Tirana	9 (10.11)	51 (57.30)	28 (31.46)	1 (1.12)	
Type of region					24.52***
Urban	54 (21.60)	118 (47.20)	72 (28.80)	4 (1.60)	
Rural	18 (9.09)	136 (68.69)	38 (19.19)	5 (2.53)	
Gender					13.79**
Men	23 (10.13)	143 (63.00)	55 (24.23)	5 (2.20)	
Women	49 (22.17)	111 (50.23)	55 (24.89)	4 (1.81)	
Civil status					8.52
Married	53 (14.93)	210 (59.15)	83 (23.38)	8 (0.28)	
Other	19 (20.43)	44 (47.31)	27 (29.03)	1 (1.08)	
Education					7.86
Secondary or less	28 (17.50)	91 (56.88)	34 (21.25)	5 (3.12)	
High school	36 (17.82)	110 (54.46)	52 (25.74)	3 (1.49)	
College and above	8 (9.30)	53 (61.63)	24 (27.91)	1 (1.16)	
Partner’s education					8.58
Secondary or less	17 (12.23)	88 (63.31)	28 (20.14)	4 (2.88)	
High school	33 (18.97)	93 (53.45)	45 (25.86)	3 (1.72)	
College and above	7 (14.58)	30 (62.50)	10 (20.83)	1 (2.08)	
Living abroad					7.86
Yes	10 (8.85)	64 (56.64)	35 (30.97)	3 (2.65)	
No	62 (18.51)	190 (56.72)	75 (22.39)	6 (1.79)	

**Table 41: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking care of sick family members” (categorical variables)**

	Usually women	Usually men	Almost equally	Mostly third person	chi-square
Region					15.68
Coastal	32 (25.40)	15 (11.90)	69 (54.76)	0 (0)	
Mountainous	14 (17.28)	9 (11.11)	51 (62.96)	0 (0)	
Central	35 (30.97)	12 (10.62)	55 (48.67)	2 (1.77)	
Tirana	18 (20.00)	8 (8.89)	61 (67.78)	1 (1.11)	
Type of region					13.57**
Urban	66 (29.33)	20 (8.89)	128 (56.89)	0 (0)	
Rural	33 (17.84)	24 (12.97)	108 (58.38)	3 (1.62)	
Gender					7.03
Men	39 (19.40)	23 (11.44)	119 (59.20)	2 (1.00)	
Women	60 (28.71)	21 (10.05)	117 (55.98)	1 (0.48)	
Civil status					12.24*
Married	76 (23.31)	34 (10.43)	197 (60.43)	3 (0.92)	
Other	23 (27.38)	10 (11.90)	39 (46.43)	0 (0)	
Education					10.09
Secondary or less	43 (29.05)	17 (11.49)	79 (53.38)	2 (1.35)	
High school	41 (22.04)	23 (12.37)	108 (58.06)	1 (0.54)	
College and above	15 (19.74)	4 (5.26)	49 (64.47)	0 (0)	
Partner's education					6.54
Secondary or less	30 (23.26)	18 (13.95)	73 (56.59)	2 (1.55)	
High school	41 (26.28)	13 (8.33)	92 (58.97)	1 (0.64)	
College and above	7 (14.89)	5 (10.64)	33 (70.21)	0 (0)	
Living abroad					5.24
Yes	22 (21.57)	12 (11.76)	56 (54.90)	2 (1.96)	
No	77 (25.00)	32 (10.39)	180 (58.44)	1 (0.32)	

**Table 42: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “numbers of hours spent on household chores” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			-3.54***
Urban	2.96	2.39	
Rural	3.86	2.97	
Gender			-11.47***
Men	2.07	1.97	
Women	4.66	2.71	
Civil status			-2.93**
Married	3.55	2.16	
Other	2.62	2.79	
Education			2.41*
College and above	2.73	2.24	
Other	3.51	2.78	
Partner’s education			1.99*
College and above	2.83	1.85	
Other	3.67	2.89	
Living abroad			-3.13**
Yes	2.67	2.72	
No	3.59	2.65	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 43: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “number of hours spent on doing household chores” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.17*
Family income (log)	-0.09
Family expenses (log)	-0.05
Number of children	0.12*
Number of children under 11 years old	0.15**
Family size	0.10*
Age	0.01

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 44: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “numbers of hours spent by the spouse/partner on household chores” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			-3.35***
Urban	3.01	2.98	
Rural	4.22	3.60	
Gender			15.58***
Men	5.69	3.03	
Women	1.35	1.86	
Civil status			-0.46
Married	3.59	3.35	
Other	2.5	.70	
Education			0.32
College and above	3.45	3.29	
Other	3.61	3.35	
Partner’s education			1.02
College and above	3.12	3.54	
Other	3.67	3.31	
Living abroad			5.33***
Yes	5.20	3.69	
No	3.04	3.03	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 45: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “number of hours spent by the spouse/partner on household chores” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.03
Family income (log)	-0.11
Family expenses (log)	-0.09
Number of children	0.11*
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.19***
Family size	-0.0005
Age	0.22***

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 46: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “satisfaction with the division of household chores” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			-0.57
Urban	3.97	1.16	
Rural	4.03	1.18	
Gender			3.53***
Men	4.19	1.11	
Women	3.80	1.20	
Civil status			-0.51
Married	4.01	1.18	
Other	3.94	1.14	
Education			-0.72
College and above	4.08	1.13	
Other	3.98	1.18	
Partner’s education			-0.24
College and above	4.04	1.15	
Other	3.99	1.19	
Living abroad			0.19
Yes	4.01	1.19	
No	3.99	1.16	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 47: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “satisfaction with the division of household chores” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.04
Family income (log)	0.025
Family expenses (log)	-0.02
Number of children	0.02
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.13**
Family size	-0.08
Age	0.13**

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 48: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking care of the child” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	chi-square
Region				4.31
Coastal	26 (70.27)	6 (16.22)	6 (13.51)	
Mountainous	15 (50.00)	9 (30.00)	6 (20.00)	
Central	17 (58.62)	6 (20.69)	6 (20.69)	
Tirana	10 (47.62)	6 (28.57)	5 (23.81)	
Type of region				5.23
Urban	29 (48.33)	16 (26.67)	15 (25.00)	
Rural	39 (68.42)	11 (19.30)	7 (12.28)	
Gender				77.34***
Men	4 (9.30)	27 (62.79)	12 (27.91)	
Women	64 (86.49)	0 (0)	10 (13.51)	
Education				1.28
College and above	9 (60.00)	2 (13.33)	4 (26.67)	
Other	59 (57.84)	25 (24.51)	18 (17.65)	
Partner's education				4.40
College and above	5 (33.33)	5 (33.33)	5 (33.33)	
Other	62 (61.39)	22 (21.78)	17 (16.83)	
Living abroad				22.28***
Yes	8 (24.24)	15 (45.45)	10 (30.30)	
No	60 (71.43)	12 (14.29)	12 (14.29)	

**Table 49: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “staying with the child when sick” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	chi-square
Region				
Coastal	15 (40.54)	4 (10.81)	18 (48.65)	5.28
Mountainous	8 (26.67)	3 (10.00)	19 (63.33)	
Central	10 (34.48)	2 (6.90)	17 (58.62)	
Tirana	6 (28.57)	5 (23.81)	10 (47.62)	2.47
Type of region				
Urban	16 (26.67)	8 (13.33)	36 (60.00)	
Rural	23 (40.35)	6 (10.53)	28 (49.12)	
Gender				
Men	3 (6.98)	13 (30.23)	27 (62.79)	33.94***
Women	36 (48.65)	1 (1.35)	37 (50.00)	
Education				
College and above	6 (40.00)	1 (6.67)	8 (53.33)	0.64
Other	33 (32.35)	13 (12.75)	56 (54.90)	
Partner’s education				2.30
College and above	3 (20.00)	1 (6.67)	11 (73.33)	
Other				
Living abroad				
Yes	6 (18.18)	9 (27.27)	18 (54.55)	12.17**
No	33 (39.29)	5 (5.95)	46 (54.76)	

**Table 50: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking the child to the doctor” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	chi-square
Region				15.11
Coastal	13 (35.14)	5 (13.51)	19 (51.35)	
Mountainous	4 (13.33)	6 (20.00)	20 (66.67)	
Central	2 (6.9)	4 (13.79)	23 (79.31)	
Tirana	4	2	14	
Type of region	(19.05)	(9.52)	(66.67)	3.53
Urban	9 (15.00)	11 (18.33)	39 (65.00)	
Rural	14 (24.56)	6 (10.53)	37 (64.91)	
Gender				2.55
Men	6 (13.95)	8 (18.60)	29 (67.44)	
Women	17 (22.97)	9 (12.16)	47 (63.51)	
Education				3.25
College and above	3 (20.00)	0 (0)	12 (80.00)	
Other	20 (19.61)	17 (16.67)	64 (62.75)	
Partner's education				1.74
College and above	2 (13.33)	1 (6.67)	12 (80.00)	
Other	20 (19.80)	16 (15.84)	64 (63.37)	
Living abroad				8.15*
Yes	3 (9.09)	9 (27.27)	21 (63.64)	
No	20 (23.81)	8 (9.52)	55 (65.48)	



**Table 51: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking the child to bed” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	chi-square
Region				8.92
Coastal	23 (63.89)	6 (16.67)	6 (16.67)	
Mountainous	13 (46.43)	6 (21.43)	9 (32.14)	
Central	12 (44.44)	6 (22.22)	8 (29.63)	
Tirana	7 (33.33)	4 (19.05)	8 (38.10)	
Type of region				4.61
Urban	26 (44.07)	13 (22.03)	16 (27.12)	
Rural	29 (54.72)	9 (16.98)	15 (28.30)	
Gender				41.84***
Men	7 (17.07)	20 (48.78)	12 (29.27)	
Women	48 (67.61)	2 (2.82)	19 (26.76)	
Education				3.75
College and above	5 (33.33)	3 (20.00)	7 (46.67)	
Other	50 (51.55)	19 (19.59)	24 (24.74)	
Partner’s education				5.75
College and above	4 (26.67)	6 (40.00)	6 (26.67)	
Other				
Living abroad				19.57***
Yes	8 (25.00)	14 (43.75)	8 (25.00)	
No	47 (58.75)	8 (10.00)	23 (28.75)	

**Table 52: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “taking the child to the kindergarten/school/courses” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	Other	chi-square
Region					9.63
Coastal	14 (41.18)	6 (17.65)	9 (26.47)	5 (14.71)	
Mountainous	10 (34.48)	3 (10.34)	11 (37.93)	5 (17.24)	
Central	12 (42.86)	6 (21.43)	8 (28.57)	2 (7.14)	
Tirana	4 (25.00)	7 (43.75)	4 (25.00)	1 (6.25)	
Type of region					3.26
Urban	19 (33.93)	10 (17.86)	21 (37.50)	6 (10.71)	
Rural	21 (41.18)	12 (23.53)	11 (21.57)	7 (13.73)	
Gender					
Men	12 (30.77)	9 (23.08)	12 (30.77)	6 (15.38)	1.45
Women	28 (41.18)	13 (19.12)	20 (29.41)	7 (10.29)	
Education					
College and above	3 (21.43)	5 (35.71)	4 (28.57)	2 (14.29)	2.96
Other	37 (39.78)	17 (18.28)	28 (30.11)	11 (11.83)	
Partner’s education					5.42
College and above	3 (21.43)	4 (28.57)	3 (21.43)	4 (28.57)	
Other	36 (39.13)	18 (19.57)	29 (31.52)	9 (9.78)	
Living abroad					
Yes	10 (32.26)	9 (29.03)	7 (22.58)	5 (16.13)	3.18
No	30 (39.47)	13 (17.11)	25 (32.89)	8 (10.53)	

**Table 53: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “helping the child with homework” (categorical variables)**

	Usually me	Usually the spouse	Almost equally	Other	chi-square
Region					16.38
Coastal	20 (64.52)	4 (12.90)	7 (22.58)	0 (0)	
Mountainous	11 (39.29)	3 (10.71)	11 (39.29)	3 (10.71)	
Central	11 (37.93)	4 (13.79)	13 (44.83)	1 (3.45)	
Tirana	5 (29.41)	6 (35.29)	6 (35.29)	0 (0)	
Type of region					9.17*
Urban	20 (37.04)	12 (22.22)	22 (40.74)	0 (0)	
Rural	27 (52.94)	5 (9.80)	15 (29.41)	4 (7.84)	
Gender					
Men	5 (13.16)	14 (36.84)	15 (39.47)	4 (10.53)	36.33***
Women	42 (62.69)	3 (4.48)	22 (32.84)	0 (0)	
Education					
College and above	5 (41.67)	2 (16.67)	5 (41.67)	0 (0)	0.71
Other	42 (45.16)	15 (16.13)	32 (34.41)	4 (4.30)	
Partner’s education					5.58
College and above	2 (16.67)	4 (33.33)	5 (41.67)	1 (8.33)	
Other	44 (47.83)	13 (14.13)	32 (34.78)	3 (3.26)	
Living abroad					
Yes	6 (20.69)	11 (37.93)	10 (34.48)	2 (6.90)	17.89***
No	41 (53.95)	6 (7.89)	27 (35.53)	2 (2.63)	

**Table 54: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “numbers of hours spent on childcare” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			
Urban	3.93	2.86	-0.29
Rural	4.08	2.79	
Gender			
Men	2.91	1.41	-3.39**
Women	4.65	3.22	
Education			
College and above	4.4	2.87	-0.59
Other	3.94	2.44	
Partner’s education			1.41
College and above	3.07	1.16	
Other	4.17	2.98	
Living abroad			
Yes	3.48	2.86	-1.24
No	4.2	.30	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 55: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “number of hours spent on childcare” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.04
Family income (log)	-0.03
Family expenses (log)	-0.06
Number of children	-0.16
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.07
Family size	-0.07
Age	-0.22*

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 56: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “numbers of hours the spouse/partner spends on childcare” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			
Urban	3.58	3.24	1.39
Rural	2.84	2.32	
Gender			
Men	5.65	3.14	9.09***
Women	1.83	1.33	
Education			
College and above	3.96	4.08	-1.04
Other	3.12	2.64	
Partner’s education			
College and above	4.67	4.34	-2.05*
Other	3.02	2.55	
Living abroad			
Yes	5.10	3.40	4.82***
No	2.5	2.22	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 57: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “number of hours the spouse/partner spends on childcare” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.25
Family income (log)	-0.13
Family expenses (log)	-0.07
Number of children	-0.07
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.06
Family size	0.05
Age	0.11

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 58: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “level of satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			1.90
Urban	4.24	1.02	
Rural	3.82	1.31	
Gender			2.94**
Men	4.44	1.03	
Women	3.79	1.21	
Education			-0.11
College and above	4.06	.96	
Other	4.03	1.22	
Partner’s education			-1.28
College and above	4.4	.51	
Other	3.98	1.25	
Living abroad			1.37
Yes	4.27	1.18	
No	3.94	1.18	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 59: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “level of satisfaction with the division of childcare responsibilities” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.06
Family income (log)	0.05
Family expenses (log)	0.11
Number of children	-0.23*
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.07
Family size	-0.10
Age	-0.0007

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 60: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “level of satisfaction of the spouse with the division of childcare responsibilities” (categorical variables)**

	M	SD	t
Type of region			2.77**
Urban	4.61	.60	
Rural	4.13	1.14	
Gender			1.12
Men	4.5	1.01	
Women	4.28	.89	
Education			-0.15
College and above	4.4	.63	
Other	4.36	.98	
Partner’s education			-0.74
College and above	4.53	.52	
Other	4.34	.99	
Living abroad			1.18
Yes	4.53	.91	
No	4.29	.95	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 61: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “level of satisfaction of the spouse with the division of childcare responsibilities” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.01
Family income (log)	0.08
Family expenses (log)	0.08
Number of children	-0.29**
Number of children under 11 years old	0.09
Family size	-0.26**
Age	-0.14

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 62: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “men should spend as much time as women raising their children” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	chi-square
Region						11.28
Coastal	7 (5.19)	33 (24.44)	19 (14.07)	49 (36.30)	27 (20.00)	
Mountainous	4 (4.21)	20 (21.05)	10 (10.53)	37 (38.95)	24 (25.26)	
Central	3 (2.31)	21 (16.15)	15 (11.54)	62 (47.69)	29 (22.31)	
Tirana	6 (6.67)	15 (16.67)	16 (17.78)	37 (41.11)	16 (17.78)	
Type of region						1.44
Urban	11 (4.40)	50 (20.00)	33 (13.20)	98 (39.20)	58 (23.20)	
Rural	9 (4.50)	39 (19.50)	27 (13.50)	87 (43.50)	38 (19.00)	
Gender						8.05
Men	15 (6.58)	45 (19.74)	34 (14.91)	93 (40.79)	41 (17.98)	
Women	5 (2.25)	44 (19.82)	26 (11.71)	92 (41.44)	55 (24.77)	
Civil status						0.95
Married	15 (4.20)	73 (20.45)	46 (12.89)	146 (40.90)	77 (21.57)	
Other	5 (5.38)	16 (17.20)	14 (15.05)	39 (41.94)	19 (20.43)	
Education						2.75
College and above	6 (6.98)	14 (16.28)	11 (12.79)	34 (39.53)	21 (24.42)	
Other	14 (3.85)	75 (20.60)	49 (13.46)	151 (41.48)	75 (20.60)	
Partner's education						5.07
College and above	3 (6.12)	5 (10.20)	9 (18.37)	20 (40.82)	12 (24.49)	
Other	12 (3.82)	69 (21.97)	37 (11.78)	129 (41.08)	67 (21.34)	
Living abroad						2.31
Yes	7 (6.19)	24 (21.24)	14 (12.39)	48 (42.48)	20 (17.70)	
No	13 (3.86)	65 (19.29)	46 (13.65)	137 (40.65)	76 (22.55)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 63: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “men should spend as much time as women raising their children” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.04
Family income (log)	-0.01
Family expenses (log)	0.05
Number of children	0.04
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.05
Age	0.03

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .



**Table 64: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	chi-square
Region						14.42
Coastal	12 (8.89)	40 (29.63)	16 (11.85)	50 (37.04)	17 (12.59)	
Mountainous	7 (7.37)	33 (34.74)	17 (17.89)	32 (33.68)	6 (6.32)	
Central	11 (8.46)	40 (30.77)	18 (13.85)	47 (36.15)	14 (10.77)	
Tirana	15 (16.67)	30 (33.33)	16 (17.78)	25 (27.78)	4 (4.44)	
Type of region						5.67
Urban	29 (11.60)	79 (31.60)	41 (16.40)	84 (33.60)	17 (6.80)	
Rural	16 (8.00)	64 (32.00)	26 (13.00)	70 (35.00)	24 (12.00)	
Gender						11.67*
Men	22 (9.65)	57 (25.00)	37 (16.23)	91 (39.91)	21 (9.21)	
Women	23 (10.36)	86 (38.74)	30 (13.51)	63 (28.38)	20 (9.01)	
Civil status						4.86
Married	36 (10.08)	116 (32.49)	50 (14.01)	118 (33.05)	37 (10.36)	
Other	9 (9.68)	27 (29.03)	17 (18.28)	36 (38.71)	4 (4.30)	
Education						5.15
College and above	8 (9.30)	21 (24.42)	17 (19.77)	29 (33.72)	11 (12.79)	
Other	37 (10.16)	122 (33.52)	50 (13.74)	125 (34.34)	30 (8.24)	
Partner's education						8.53
College and above	8 (16.33)	9 (18.37)	11 (22.45)	16 (32.65)	5 (10.20)	
Other	29 (9.24)	110 (35.03)	40 (12.74)	103 (32.80)	32 (10.19)	
Living abroad						2.45
Yes	12 (10.62)	30 (26.55)	16 (14.16)	44 (38.94)	11 (9.73)	
No	33 (9.79)	113 (33.53)	51 (15.13)	110 (32.64)	30 (8.90)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 65: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “men should engage as much as women in doing housework” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.05
Family income (log)	-0.12*
Family expenses (log)	-0.12*
Number of children	0.10*
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.13**
Age	0.16***

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 66: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	chi-square
Region						17.14
Coastal	7 (5.19)	15 (11.11)	15 (11.11)	59 (43.70)	39 (28.89)	
Mountainous	5 (5.26)	10 (10.53)	14 (14.74)	45 (47.37)	21 (22.11)	
Central	0 (0)	27 (20.93)	18 (13.95)	60 (46.51)	24 (18.60)	
Tirana	3 (3.33)	12 (13.33)	13 (14.44)	38 (42.22)	24 (26.67)	
Type of region						18.68***
Urban	12 (4.80)	43 (17.20)	40 (16.00)	110 (44.00)	45 (18.00)	
Rural	3 (1.51)	21 (10.55)	20 (10.05)	92 (46.23)	63 (31.66)	
Gender						5.38
Men	4 (1.75)	31 (13.60)	27 (11.84)	108 (47.37)	58 (25.44)	
Women	11 (4.98)	33 (14.93)	33 (14.93)	94 (42.53)	50 (22.62)	
Civil status						11.31*
Married	11 (3.09)	42 (11.80)	48 (13.48)	171 (48.03)	84 (23.60)	
Other	4 (4.30)	22 (23.66)	12 (12.90)	31 (33.33)	24 (25.81)	
Education						25.52***
College and above	4 (4.65)	26 (30.23)	13 (15.12)	29 (33.72)	14 (16.28)	
Other	11 (3.03)	38 (10.47)	47 (12.95)	173 (47.66)	94 (25.90)	
Partner's education						9.77*
College and above	2 (4.08)	11 (22.45)	8 (16.33)	15 (30.61)	13 (26.53)	
Other	10 (3.19)	31 (9.90)	40 (12.78)	157 (50.16)	13 (23.96)	
Living abroad						2.65
Yes	3 (2.65)	14 (12.39)	13 (11.50)	50 (44.25)	33 (29.20)	
No	12 (3.57)	50 (14.88)	47 (13.99)	152 (45.24)	75 (22.32)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 67: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “it is better for the whole family if the husband has a job and the wife takes care of the family” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.17
Family income (log)	-0.24***
Family expenses (log)	-0.20***
Number of children	
Number of children under 11 years old	0.06
Age	0.12*

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 68: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Chi-square
Region						18.36
Coastal	8 (5.93)	15 (11.11)	12 (8.89)	54 (40.00)	46 (34.07)	
Mountainous	2 (2.11)	4 (4.21)	10 (10.53)	33 (34.74)	46 (48.42)	
Central	8 (6.15)	10 (7.69)	16 (12.31)	60 (46.15)	36 (27.69)	
Tirana	8 (8.89)	11 (12.22)	8 (8.89)	35 (38.89)	28 (31.11)	
Type of region						12.39*
Urban	20 (8.00)	28 (11.20)	26 (10.40)	102 (40.80)	74 (29.60)	
Rural	6 (3.00)	12 (6.00)	20 (10.00)	80 (40.00)	82 (41.00)	
Gender						11.33*
Men	7 (3.07)	15 (6.58)	26 (11.40)	92 (40.35)	88 (38.60)	
Women	19 (8.56)	25 (11.26)	20 (9.01)	90 (40.54)	68 (30.63)	
Civil status						2.97
Married	18 (5.04)	33 (9.24)	34 (9.52)	146 (40.90)	126 (35.29)	
Other	8 (8.60)	7 (7.53)	12 (12.90)	36 (38.71)	30 (32.26)	
Education						51.03***
College and above	13 (15.12)	20 (23.26)	9 (10.47)	29 (33.72)	15 (17.44)	
Other	13 (3.57)	20 (5.49)	37 (10.16)	153 (42.03)	141 (38.74)	
Partner's education						14.84***
College and above	7 (14.29)	8 (16.33)	3 (6.12)	17 (34.69)	14 (28.57)	
Other	11 (3.50)	26 (8.28)	32 (10.19)	130 (41.40)	115 (36.62)	
Living abroad						3.56
Yes	5 (4.42)	11 (9.73)	16 (14.16)	41 (36.28)	40 (35.40)	
No	21 (6.23)	29 (8.61)	30 (8.90)	141 (41.84)	116 (34.42)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 69: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “a good wife should obey to her husband, preserving family peace and well-being” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.13
Family income (log)	-0.19***
Family expenses (log)	-0.15**
Number of children	0.14**
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.01
Age	0.17***

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 70: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “it is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Chi-square
Region						10.97
Coastal	1 (0.74)	5 (3.70)	10 (7.41)	76 (56.30)	43 (31.85)	
Mountainous	1 (1.05)	10 (10.53)	7 (7.37)	50 (52.63)	27 (28.42)	
Central	1 (0.77)	6 (4.62)	7 (5.38)	74 (56.92)	42 (32.31)	
Tirana	1 (1.11)	1 (1.11)	7 (7.78)	55 (61.11)	26 (28.89)	
Type of region						3.01
Urban	2 (0.80)	16 (6.40)	18 (7.20)	140 (56.00)	74 (29.60)	
Rural	2 (1.00)	6 (3.00)	13 (6.50)	115 (57.50)	64 (32.00)	
Gender						7.63
Men	3 (1.32)	14 (6.14)	11 (4.82)	137 (60.09)	63 (27.63)	
Women	1 (0.45)	8 (3.60)	20 (9.01)	118 (53.15)	75 (33.78)	
Civil status						6.75
Married	4 (1.12)	18 (5.04)	20 (5.60)	200 (56.02)	115 (32.21)	
Other	0 (0)	4 (4.30)	11 (11.83)	55 (59.14)	23 (24.73)	
Education						6.71
College and above	0 (0)	6 (4.40)	10 (5.77)	49 (56.59)	21 (32.14)	
Other	4 (1.10)	16 (4.40)	21 (5.77)	206 (56.59)	117 (32.14)	
Partner's education						5.06
College and above	1 (2.04)	5 (10.20)	4 (8.16)	26 (53.06)	13 (26.53)	
Other	3 (0.96)	13 (4.14)	16 (5.10)	176 (56.05)	106 (33.76)	
Living abroad						1.60
Yes	2 (1.77)	6 (5.31)	7 (6.19)	65 (57.52)	33 (29.20)	
No	2 (0.59)	16 (4.75)	24 (7.12)	190 (56.38)	105 (31.16)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 71: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “it is good if the woman works but, above all, she should think about her family and children” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.02
Family income (log)	-0.03
Family expenses (log)	0.01
Number of children	0.04
Number of children under 11 years old	0.08
Age	0.04

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 72: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Chi-square
Region						22.22*
Coastal	11 (8.15)	20 (14.81)	13 (9.63)	54 (40.00)	37 (27.41)	
Mountainous	7 (7.37)	8 (8.42)	13 (13.68)	41 (43.16)	26 (27.37)	
Central	5 (3.85)	17 (13.08)	21 (16.15)	53 (40.77)	34 (26.15)	
Tirana	1 (1.11)	8 (8.89)	6 (6.67)	56 (62.22)	19 (21.11)	
Type of region						7.10
Urban	14 (5.60)	35 (14.00)	35 (14.00)	109 (43.60)	57 (22.80)	
Rural	10 (5.00)	18 (9.00)	18 (9.00)	95 (47.50)	59 (29.50)	
Gender						14.82**
Men	11 (4.82)	21 (9.21)	26 (11.40)	94 (41.23)	76 (33.33)	
Women	13 (5.86)	32 (14.41)	27 (12.16)	110 (49.55)	40 (18.02)	
Civil status						5.29
Married	20 (5.60)	41 (11.48)	36 (10.08)	166 (46.50)	94 (26.33)	
Other	4 (4.30)	12 (12.90)	17 (18.28)	38 (40.86)	22 (23.66)	
Education						26.79***
College and above	5 (5.81)	23 (26.74)	13 (15.12)	27 (31.40)	18 (20.93)	
Other	19 (5.22)	30 (8.24)	40 (10.99)	177 (48.63)	98 (26.92)	
Partner's education						13.49**
College and above	5 (10.20)	12 (24.49)	5 (10.20)	20 (40.82)	7 (14.29)	
Other	15 (4.78)	31 (9.87)	32 (10.19)	146 (46.50)	90 (28.66)	
Living abroad						5.20
Yes	3 (2.65)	13 (11.50)	15 (13.27)	46 (40.71)	36 (31.86)	
No	21 (6.23)	40 (11.87)	38 (11.28)	158 (46.88)	80 (23.74)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 73: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “the husband should sacrifice his career for the family” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.05
Family income (log)	0.05
Family expenses (log)	0.09*
Number of children	0.11*
Number of children under 11 years old	0.001
Age	0.09

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 74: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Chi-square
Region						8.17
Coastal	4 (2.96)	12 (8.89)	9 (6.67)	64 (47.41)	46 (34.07)	
Mountainous	4 (4.21)	5 (5.26)	9 (9.47)	47 (49.47)	30 (31.58)	
Central	4 (3.08)	12 (9.23)	14 (10.77)	61 (46.92)	39 (30.00)	
Tirana	1 (1.11)	7 (7.78)	4 (4.44)	52 (57.78)	26 (28.89)	
Type of region						8.78
Urban	9 (3.60)	21 (8.40)	24 (9.60)	131 (52.40)	65 (26.00)	
Rural	4 (2.00)	15 (7.50)	12 (6.00)	93 (46.50)	76 (38.00)	
Gender						9.38*
Men	6 (2.63)	13 (5.70)	18 (7.89)	106 (46.49)	85 (37.28)	
Women	7 (3.15)	23 (10.36)	18 (8.11)	118 (53.15)	56 (25.23)	
Civil status						13.93***
Married	11 (3.08)	28 (7.84)	20 (5.60)	182 (50.98)	116 (32.49)	
Other	2 (2.15)	8 (8.60)	16 (17.20)	42 (45.16)	25 (26.88)	
Education						24.49***
College and above	5 (5.81)	16 (18.60)	10 (11.63)	37 (43.02)	18 (20.93)	
Other	8 (2.20)	20 (5.49)	26 (7.14)	187 (51.37)	123 (33.79)	
Partner's education						11.14**
College and above	3 (6.12)	7 (14.29)	6 (12.24)	21 (42.86)	12 (24.49)	
Other	8 (2.55)	22 (7.01)	14 (4.46)	163 (51.91)	107 (34.08)	
Living abroad						1.56
Yes	2 (1.77)	10 (8.85)	8 (7.08)	54 (47.79)	39 (34.51)	
No						

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 75: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “the wife should sacrifice her career for the family” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	-0.05
Family income (log)	0.03
Family expenses (log)	0.06
Number of children	0.08
Number of children under 11 years old	0.07
Age	0.05

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 76: The relationship between individual and regional-level characteristics and “if the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family” (categorical variables)**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree, nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Chi-square
Region						11.88
Coastal	45 (33.58)	51 (38.06)	8 (5.97)	22 (16.42)	8 (5.97)	
Mountainous	36 (37.89)	35 (36.84)	11 (11.58)	12 (12.63)	1 (1.05)	
Central	51 (39.23)	46 (35.38)	16 (12.31)	14 (10.77)	3 (2.31)	
Tirana	27 (30.00)	33 (36.67)	11 (12.22)	15 (16.67)	4 (4.44)	
Type of region						3.76
Urban	92 (36.80)	97 (38.80)	22 (8.80)	30 (12.00)	9 (3.60)	
Rural	67 (33.67)	68 (34.17)	24 (12.06)	33 (16.58)	7 (3.52)	
Gender						5.88
Men	83 (36.56)	76 (33.48)	20 (8.81)	39 (17.18)	9 (3.96)	
Women	76 (34.23)	89 (40.09)	26 (11.71)	24 (10.81)	7 (3.15)	
Civil status						1.55
Married	128 (35.96)	128 (35.96)	39 (10.96)	49 (13.76)	12 (3.37)	
Other	31 (33.33)	37 (39.78)	7 (7.53)	14 (15.05)	4 (4.30)	
Education						4.62
College and above	35 (40.70)	33 (38.37)	4 (4.65)	12 (13.95)	2 (2.33)	
Other	124 (34.16)	132 (36.36)	42 (11.57)	51 (14.05)	14 (3.86)	
Partner's education						9.09
College and above	14 (28.57)	25 (51.02)	2 (4.08)	8 (16.33)	0 (0)	
Other	114 (36.42)	105 (33.55)	37 (11.82)	43 (13.74)	14 (4.47)	
Living abroad						20.39***
Yes	41 (36.61)	29 (25.89)	8 (7.14)	28 (25.00)	6 (5.36)	
No	118 (35.01)	136 (40.36)	38 (11.28)	35 (10.39)	10 (2.97)	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 77: The relationship between individual-level characteristics and “if the wife earns more than her husband, this creates problems in the family” (continuous variables)**

	r
Individual income (log)	0.03
Family income (log)	-0.02
Family expenses (log)	-0.06
Number of children	0.05
Number of children under 11 years old	-0.02
Age	0.08

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$



