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Vulnerability and psychosocial health experienced by repatriated children in Kosovo

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Manuscripts

Review

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Abstract

Accounts of non-voluntary deportations of Kosovar adolescents from European countries to Kosovo are increasing, and human rights organizations have condemned deportation practices endorsed by European governments for being violent and detrimental to adolescents' physical and psychosocial health and wellbeing. However, research on the pathways connecting migration, repatriation and reintegration realities with experiences of adolescents' psychosocial health and wellbeing remains scarce. This article aims to provide insight into how adolescent returnees living in Kosovo express their emotional distress, their struggle with negative living conditions, and their exposure to violence. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 14 adolescents with very high-level post-traumatic stress and depression symptomatology and a General Health Questionnaire score of 40 or higher. Based on the empirical data, in-depth information is provided about the adolescents' narratives of symptoms and illness, causal connections, ongoing stressors and the impacts these have on their health and wellbeing. The study found that suffering and related health problems are associated with a sense of loss and ongoing social isolation, economic problems, precarious living conditions, and discrimination. The adolescents' lack of social and economic capital make accessing appropriate resources and professional help for their health and social problems extremely difficult. In the discussion and conclusion section, recommendations are made for the development of appropriate and holistic psychosocial interventions focusing on wellbeing and human rights.

Keywords: Migration and repatriation, Vulnerability, Psychosocial health, Mental health, Adolescents, Kosovo

Introduction

Children and adolescents constituted 51 percent of the refugee population worldwide in 2014 (UNHCR, 2015). Exposed to poverty, social exclusion, exploitation, forced repatriation and associated health risks, these are vulnerable individuals. Increasingly amongst these vulnerable refugees and migrants are Kosovar adolescents from a range of different ethnic groups (Albanian, Serb, Roma, Ashkali, Egyptian and Gorani) who are often forcibly repatriated to Kosovo. Human rights organizations have condemned deportation practices endorsed by European governments for being violent and detrimental to adolescents' physical and psychosocial health and wellbeing.

There is a continued lack of effective policies to assist deportees, particularly children and adolescents, with their integration back into Kosovar society. Despite this, Kosovo has been pressed by the European Union and its Member States to readmit thousands of migrants. These return policies are enforced notwithstanding the knowledge that returnees face myriad obstacles upon their arrival in Kosovo. Separation of family members, lack of access to personal documents, difficulties repossessing property or obtaining housing, problems accessing education, health, employment and social welfare (HRW, 2010) are just some of the obstacles they face.

Research on the pathways connecting migration, repatriation, and reintegration realities with experiences of adolescents' psychosocial health and wellbeing is conspicuously absent. Hence this article aims to make a contribution to the gap in this field of research by providing initial insights into how these adolescents express the emotional distress arising from their day to day lives; how they are prevented from meeting their basic needs and their struggle with impoverished living conditions, discrimination, racism and social exclusion. Questions that guide this article are: How do adolescents experience forced-returns? How do they describe the ways in which

1
2
3 the reality of reintegration affects their psychosocial health and wellbeing?
4
5 Additionally, in what help and health seeking do they engage in order to improve their
6
7 wellbeing? Their stress narratives form part of a larger UNICEF study that assessed
8
9 the situation of repatriated children's and adolescents' psychosocial health in Kosovo.
10
11 While the larger mixed-method study aimed to gain insight into the overall situation,
12
13 the qualitative research component investigates how adolescents with high level post-
14
15 traumatic stress and depression symptomatology detail the challenging circumstances
16
17 in their lives. Based on our findings, we advocate for multi-sectorial legal, social and
18
19 medical interventions based on a social and human rights approach to health and
20
21 wellbeing.
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28 **Background**

29 *Kosovar emigration and (forced) repatriation history*

30
31
32 Borne out of economic necessity and political persecution, economic migration has,
33
34 for decades, been a livelihood strategy for Kosovars (Koser, 2000; Vathi & Black,
35
36 2007). Emigration pressure increased significantly in 1989, when Serbia revoked the
37
38 autonomy of Kosovo, created new laws and systematically expelled Kosovar
39
40 Albanians from all public institutions (Malcolm, 1998; Petritsch & Pichler, 2004).
41
42 The consequential rise in unemployment and insecurity resulted in around 400,000
43
44 Albanians emigrating from Kosovo to Western Europe (Independent International
45
46 Commission On Kosovo, 2006). The minority Roma, Ashkali and Egyptian (RAE)¹
47
48 and Gorani communities were caught between conflicting political pressures and
49
50 systematically excluded from participation in society, with the majority living in
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56 ¹ The Kosovar Romani community comprises Roma, Ashkali and Egyptians; most of them are
57 Moslem and while the Roma speak Romani, Ashkali and Egyptians speak Albanian (Sigona,
58 2012; Crowe 1996; Duijzings, 2000).
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1
2
3 poverty, facing high rates of unemployment and, if employed, occupying lower-level
4
5 positions (Sigona, 2012).
6

7
8 By the mid-1990s, around half a million Kosovar Albanians were residing abroad,
9
10 while the number for minority groups such as RAE and Gorani are not known (Knaus
11
12 et al., 2012; Perić & Demirovski, 2007). The number of asylum seekers and
13
14 clandestine migrants increased further with the outbreak of the Kosovo War in 1998,
15
16 during which the Albanian majority sought independence from Serbia. It is estimated
17
18 that 863,000 civilians were forced into refuge outside Kosovo and 590,000 were
19
20 internally displaced trying to escape the violence imposed by the Federal Republic of
21
22 Yugoslavian (FRY)/ Serbian forces and paramilitaries (IICK, 2006). When Yugoslav
23
24 forces withdrew in June 1999, refugees returned to their homes in Kosovo in great
25
26 numbers (Bozo, 2001). Yet, their return sparked another wave of violence, this time
27
28 directed against the Serbian population and other minorities who were considered
29
30 “Serb collaborators”. Over 100,000 Serbians and tens of thousands of RAE fled the
31
32 systematic violence inflicted on them by the Albanian population (AI, 2009;
33
34 International Crisis Group, 2000).
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40 Although many Kosovar Albanians returned voluntarily, others began new lives in
41
42 their respective host-country. Kosovar RAE and Serb families, on the other hand,
43
44 were discouraged from returning to Kosovo as they were considered vulnerable and at
45
46 risk of persecution (AI, 2010). UNHCR (2002) explicitly demanded that their return
47
48 should happen on a strictly voluntary basis and assistance be provided for sustainable
49
50 reintegration. It was stressed that “minorities should not be forced, compelled or
51
52 induced to return to Kosovo” (p.3, underlining in original).
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56 Since 2009 European governments considered Kosovo to be a ‘safe country’ and
57
58 introduced rigid entry conditions, making it impossible for Kosovars to claim asylum
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3 on humanitarian grounds (HRW, 2010). Equally, refugees were urged and often
4 forced to return to Kosovo to reclaim their property and personal possessions (Kurz,
5 2010; “Stockholm Programme” (2010) of the European Council). Western European
6 governments are now resorting to different tactics both to frustrate living and work
7 conditions of migrants residing in their respective countries and to discourage and
8 prevent clandestine immigration. Prominent among the techniques used are the
9 introduction of employer sanctions, exclusion from public services, surveillance by
10 police, incarceration, and expulsion (Broeders & Engbersen, 2007; Silove, Steel &
11 Watters, 2000). However, since many migrants, including Kosovars, decide to stay
12 despite this repressive “web of barriers” (Castaneda, 2010), governments increasingly
13 opt to enforce the return through “removal or deportation of those who have been
14 denied refugee and permanent legal status” (Vathi & Black, 2007; UNMIK, 2006).

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30 Germany was the first European country to reach an agreement with the United
31 Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) to facilitate
32 deportations of individuals and families. The first charter flight, which included
33 members from all ethnic groups, left for Kosovo on 15 September 2009, the second
34 only 18 days later, leading to 541 deportations in that year alone (Duennwald, 2009).
35 Since then, the number of deportations from Germany and other EU member states
36 has continuously increased, partly due to the bilateral agreements signed between
37 Kosovo and host countries such as Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, Austria and
38 Albania (Bundestag, 2010). Involuntary returns have been accompanied by force and
39 sometimes physical brutality by police (Fekete, 2005; Medical Foundation for the
40 Care of Victims of Torture, 2004). These practices contravene Article five of the
41 European Union Return Directive, which instructs member states to consider the “best
42 interest of the child, family life and the state of health of the individual concerned”. In
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3 this context, children and adolescents are considered particularly vulnerable with the
4 key principle of respect for family life and unity repeatedly ignored, especially in
5 decisions involving family removal (Knaus et a., 2012).
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10 ***Psychosocial consequences linked to deportation experiences and living conditions***
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12 While scholars, activists, and journalists have discussed deportation processes and
13 related violence widely, less information is available with regards to what actually
14 happens to the deportees, particularly children and adolescents, once they arrive back
15 in their home country. In terms of Kosovo, Thomas Hammarberg, Council of
16 European Commissioner for Human Rights, warned that the country neither has the
17 budget nor the capacity to receive forcibly returned families with dignity and security
18 (Knaus et al., 2012). The available data make this strikingly apparent: Kosovo has the
19 highest poverty and unemployment rates in Europe (World Bank, 2006, 2009; UNDP,
20 2012), with statistics from the World Bank, UNDP and the Statistics Office of
21 Kosovo estimating the unemployment rate to be between 30 and 50 percent, while the
22 number of job seekers continues to rise. Unemployment among young people (15-24
23 years) is particularly grave, having risen to 73 percent. The most disadvantaged group
24 of Kosovar youth are RAE with an employment ratio that is six and twelve percentage
25 points lower than that experienced by Kosovo Serbs and Kosovo Albanians
26 respectively. The social protection system provides only limited support to those who
27 depend on it, targeting the poorest by excluding families from crucial benefits when
28 their youngest child turns five years old (UNDP, 2012). Around 45 percent of the
29 population live in poverty and around 15 percent in extreme poverty.
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52 The situation in the education sector is problematic, with schools operating a shift
53 system, due to lack of teachers. RAE receive limited education as 70 percent leave
54 school aged 12 or under. Also, children with special needs are mostly excluded from
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3 receiving a formal education and do not play a decisive role in Kosovo's broader
4 socio-political life (UNDP, 2012). Alongside poverty and problems related to
5 education, health care in Kosovo is equally dire. The infant mortality rate (18-44 per
6 1,000) is one of the highest in Europe and inadequate nutrition is a persistent problem
7 (UNDP, 2012; World Bank, 2005, 2008). In principle, all Kosovars have access to
8 health care however, as it is mostly unaffordable to them, this does not actually
9 translate into reality.
10
11

12 Families, who are forcibly returned to Kosovo, after having lived for many years
13 abroad, are found to be especially vulnerable due to their lack of social and economic
14 networks and, in the case of RAE and Gorani, to racism, resulting in physical
15 violence, and social exclusion (Duennwald, 2009). Available human rights reports
16 indicate that children and adolescents face precarious conditions upon their return
17 marked by extreme poverty, social deprivation, discrimination, lack of medical care,
18 political instability, and lack of adequate assistance (UNICEF, 2012; Bundestag,
19 2011; HRW, 2010; Lersner, Elbert, & Neuner, 2008; Shabani, 2005).
20
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22 Research has shown that socioeconomic inequalities and discrimination negatively
23 impact on the physical, social and mental well-being of individuals and families
24 (Miller & Rasmussen, 2010; Siegrist & Marmot, 2004). Few studies on children and
25 adolescents have examined in differentiated ways the relative impact of area-level,
26 family-level, and individual-level predictors of poor (mental) health (Panter-Brick,
27 Goodman, To, & Eggerman, 2011). However, exceptions exist and the available data
28 indicate that living in precarious and insecure circumstances has damaging effects on
29 children's and adolescents' physical, emotional and social development (Barber,
30 2008; Giacaman et al., 2005; Kohrt et al., 2010; Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012; among
31 others).
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3 Our recently published UNICEF report (Knaus et al., 2012) confirms this is also the
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5 case in Kosovo. We found that their precarious living conditions, their experience of
6
7 deportation and their distress over relational events, resulted in one in two (44.2%)
8
9 adolescents suffering from depression, one quarter reported symptoms of
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11 hopelessness (25.5%), and one fifth (19.1%) felt life was not worth living. One in four
12
13 (25.5%) reported suicidal ideation, and it was found that every third child between six
14
15 and 14 years of age (29%) and one out of three youths (30.4%) suffered from PTSD
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17 on a clinical level. The following qualitative data will provide important insights into
18
19 how repatriated Kosovar adolescents, with high level clinical symptomatology,
20
21 *themselves* perceive their psychosocial and health situation and the ways in which
22
23 they conceptualize their wellbeing and distress.
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30 **Methodology**

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33 This article is based on a larger mixed-method study in Kosovo, commissioned by
34
35 UNICEF, to assess the psychosocial health of children and adolescents repatriated
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37 from Germany and Austria. Our qualitative research component was conducted with a
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39 sample of 14 adolescents aged between 15-18 years from different ethnic
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41 backgrounds including RAE (6), Albanian (5), Gorani (2) and Serbian (1) who had
42
43 arrived from Germany (11) and Austria (3). Nine of the adolescents were female and
44
45 five were male. This gender imbalance results from a selection process designed to
46
47 include only adolescents with very high level post-traumatic stress and depression
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49 symptomatology in order to gain in-depth insight into their suffering, stress related
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51 factors and needs for support or treatment. Adolescents included had a General Health
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53 Questionnaire (GHQ) score of 40 or higher.
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3 We conducted semi- structured interviews and recorded observation notes concerning
4 family life and living conditions. Specific information was elicited on topics such as
5 living conditions, economic situations, social relationships, education and
6 participation in communal affairs. The questionnaire also included the McGill Illness
7 Narrative Interview (MINI) (Groleau, Young, & Kirmayer, 2006) to gain insight into
8 a basic temporal narrative of symptom and illness experience; salient prototypes
9 related to current health problems; and any explanatory models, including labels,
10 causal attributions and expectations for prognosis. Interviews were conducted by the
11 first author and research assistants who were students in the Department of
12 Psychology at the University of Prishtina. Interviews were conducted in Albanian,
13 Serbian and German.

14
15
16 We used Atlas.ti software to explore, annotate, code, and organize the data and
17 subsequently analysed them with thematic analysis. The analysis began with open
18 coding and once we had categorized the concepts, we linked and organized them by
19 relationship in a process called axial coding. Through a process of comparative
20 analysis, we established links between the categories and defined their properties such
21 as phenomena, causal conditions, context, intervening conditions, action strategies
22 and consequences. Through an interpretative process, we were able to identify the
23 core categories and themes from which we derived our theoretical conclusions.

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Ethics approval was acquired from an ethics committee at Pristina University prior to
the start of the study and informed consent was sought from the adolescents and at
least one parent.

Narratives of symptoms and illness experiences

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3 To develop an understanding of how adolescent deportees perceive their distress and
4 related health problems, we elicited basic temporal narratives of symptoms and illness
5 experiences by asking the following questions: (1) From what kind of emotional or
6 physical health problems do you suffer since you learned that you had to return to
7 Kosovo? (2) When you get stressed out or nervous, how does your body react? (3)
8 What else happens when you experience these [symptoms]? These questions were
9 specifically designed to act as a prompt for further discussion with them concerning
10 the frequency, intensity and location of their symptoms.
11
12

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14 Although certain symptoms were experienced more frequently than others, when free
15 listing them, the adolescents generally expressed a wide range of symptoms. The
16 following is an excerpt from an interview with Delvina¹ which illustrates this:
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21 I: From what kind of emotional or physical health problems do you suffer
22 since you learned that you had to return to Kosovo?
23

24
25 A: When we first received the negative news. This was the biggest shock.
26 We lost hope in everything; we thought that there is nothing left for us.
27 When we were told that we had no chance but to return home [Kosovo],
28 this was another big shock and an even bigger one was when we came to
29 Kosovo. We were more nervous, more stressed, everything.
30

31
32 I: And what happened then?
33

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35 A: Then we started to get nervous, the whole family (...)
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38 I: And when you become nervous or are under a lot of stress, how does
39 your body react?
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3 A: Body-shakes, headache, I don't have anything under control. I don't
4 know what I am saying and I don't know what I am doing until it goes
5
6
7 away.
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9
10 I: (...) What else happens?
11

12
13 A: To tell you the truth, I don't know, I lose control and feel like it's not
14
15 my body, like I am another person, it's not me.
16

17
18 Delvina's symptom narrative combines various painful sensations related to both the
19
20 "shock" of hearing that she and her family would have to leave Germany and the
21
22 circumstances they encountered in Kosovo upon their return. In this short section she
23
24 mentioned lost hope, nervousness, stress, body "shakes", headaches, losing control,
25
26 feelings of estrangement, and isolation. She later referred to feelings of self-hate, guilt
27
28 and a frequent urge to kill herself.
29

30
31 The symptoms and feelings expressed most frequently by adolescents included
32
33 nervousness (9), headaches (9), bodily pains (7), fear (6), sleeping problems (6),
34
35 nightmares (5), anger (5), stress (4), body shakes (4), and problems concentrating (4).
36
37 Other symptoms that were shared, but mentioned less often, included hopelessness,
38
39 guilt, suicidal thoughts, crying for several hours, heat, heart palpitations, sadness,
40
41 stomach pains, thinking too much, avoidance, sweating, unwanted memories,
42
43 dizziness, and depersonalization. Other symptoms ranged from losing control,
44
45 isolation, and self-hate, to startle response, allergies, screaming, hearing voices, and
46
47 feeling depressed.
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49

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51 Our interview process allowed adolescents to name their symptoms without limitation
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53 to certain categories or terminologies, therefore a wide range were obtained. Some
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55 symptoms were unrelated to the deportation itself and were connected more to their
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3 current living conditions and concerns surrounding the precarious health and
4
5 wellbeing of family members.
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10 **Multiple causal connections**

11 *Deportation and arrival in Kosovo*

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16 When the adolescents were asked what triggered their symptoms, they all referred to
17
18 events associated with the deportation and/ or return to Kosovo. They stated that
19
20 symptoms and pain increase when they recall the deportation or specific events
21
22 related to the deportation and when they visit places or people whom they connect
23
24 with their return to Kosovo.
25
26

27
28 For instance, Marigona was convinced that her health problems were caused by the
29
30 deportation and related shock. She described the incident as follows: “The police
31
32 came to our house at six thirty in the morning and gave us thirty minutes to pack our
33
34 things. They yelled at us and touched us violently. Then they drove us from our home
35
36 to the airport.” Upon her arrival in Kosovo, her family had no place of their own.
37
38 Initially, they lived with members of their mother’s family under impoverished
39
40 conditions and then moved on to Serbia to reside with relatives of their father. Life in
41
42 Serbia was too expensive and so they returned to Kosovo to live in a suburb of
43
44 Prishtina occupying a house that does not belong to them.
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49 Sehare, who was born in Germany and for whom Kosovo had been simply an image
50
51 evoked during conversations with her parents, felt that her future was violently cut
52
53 short: “I have left a better future there [Germany] because here [Kosovo] you cannot
54
55 fulfil your dreams”. She remembered how the German police came at “two or three in
56
57 the middle of the night. They knocked on our door with all the strength they had.
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3 They were just about to break the door”. When they finally managed to enter, she
4
5 witnessed how her father attempted to flee, jumping out of the window and breaking
6
7 his leg. Sehare was certain that her current health problems were related to her return:
8
9

10 When I was there [Germany], I never woke up during the night, felt
11
12 frightened or was nervous inside. When we came here [Kosovo], we were
13
14 placed in a very bad house full of mice. The environment was very dirty.
15
16 When I compare my life to how it was in Germany, it’s just terrible. This
17
18 is how my problem was created. Nervousness, trauma, anxiety, they’re all
19
20 together.
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23
24 Like Sehare, most other adolescents had never been to Kosovo prior to their
25
26 deportation. They felt like strangers in a foreign land, insecure and disoriented. In
27
28 their conversations with us, all adolescents drew an imaginary line between “before
29
30 the deportation” and “after the deportation”. Apart from two, they all claimed that,
31
32 prior to their deportation, they had not suffered from any of the symptoms discussed
33
34 in the previous section. They contrasted their lives then with their lives now and the
35
36 conclusion was that they had been economically better off, well integrated, and happy
37
38 prior to the deportation. Conversely, they described their current situation as hopeless
39
40 and steadily worsening due to lack of prospects and on-going socioeconomic
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42 difficulties.
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49 ***On-going stressors and their impact on health and wellbeing***

50 *Social isolation*

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55 Many of the adolescents felt isolated from their social environment. Unable to attend
56
57 or fully participate in school and unable to speak Albanian or Serbian fluently, they
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1
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3 could not properly communicate with others. As a result their social surroundings
4 appeared threatening to them and often they would stay at home rather than venture
5 out. The reasons that adolescents did not attend or dropped out of school were largely
6 because foreign school certificates required official translation, they struggled with
7 the different school curriculum, and had difficulty understanding the language. The
8 isolation that they experienced from not attending school created feelings of
9 loneliness and emotional despair. Sabina, an Ashkali girl, explained how she missed
10 attending school and spending time with her school friends. “I sometimes dream that
11 we return to Germany and that I go to school and everybody is happy.” In her dreams,
12 her friends worry about her loss in weight and offer her food that she would be
13 willing to eat, as it is not Kosovar and not therefore prepared in a “stinking
14 environment”. Upon awaking and realizing where she is, stress overruns her: “It is
15 very stressful and I have to get up. I wash my eyes and try to go back to sleep. But I
16 often feel terrible about it and can’t sleep”.

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35 Parents often described the Kosovar school system as disorganized and, therefore, not
36 conducive to learning. Although siblings Marigona and Sedat had gone to school in
37 Germany, their father refused to send them to school in Kosovo as the teachers “are
38 not well educated and there is only chaos in the schools. The children’ won’t learn
39 anything”. Further conversations revealed that his view of the Kosovar education
40 system was not based on actual experience, but rather reflected his overall frustration
41 and anger as a result of discrimination and lack of support by the Kosovar state and
42 community. His decision to deprive his children from further education significantly
43 affected their wellbeing. His son reflected that going to school in Germany was an
44 important way for him to connect with others, to build friendships, and to plan his
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3 future. He would like to return to school, but, believed that his language skills were
4
5 not good enough and that others would, therefore, treat him with contempt.
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8 Valdete, on the other hand, attended school but was bullied due to her accent and
9
10 behaviour, which her classmates considered 'foreign'. To calm herself down, she
11
12 soliloquizes in German, an invitation for her peers to tease her further. "They tell me,
13
14 'don't speak German, you don't have to act high and mighty around here'". She
15
16 explained that she was sad that she was unable to make friends, frustrated that she
17
18 could not concentrate in school and worried for her future because of her low grades.
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21 It was evident that adolescents attributed social isolation and withdrawal to multiple,
22
23 sometimes overlapping factors including poverty, discrimination, psychosocial
24
25 problems experienced by the parents and bureaucratic hurdles put in place by the
26
27 Kosovar state. Furthermore, the narratives make apparent that such difficulties were
28
29 believed to further diminish their health and wellbeing and increased their frustrations
30
31 with life in Kosovo.
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34 35 *Economic problems and precarious living conditions* 36 37

38 Their feelings of social isolation are exacerbated by the unstable economic situation
39
40 and precarious living conditions. Adolescents from the RAE community have
41
42 particular difficulty accessing employment and many of them live in poverty.
43
44 Delvina's living conditions were difficult with no running water and no bathroom in
45
46 the house. Routine activities such as taking a bath, cleaning up, or cooking have
47
48 become a burden. Her surroundings made her feel hopeless and without prospects.
49
50 "There is no way out, I don't have hope, I lost hope for living, I don't have anything.
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52 Everything is becoming worse. [...] I get terribly nervous these past days". The
53
54 adolescents' economic worries seemed to mirror the anxiety of the adults. During
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3 informal conversations, the adults frequently talked about their financial problems.
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5 For instance, Marigona and Zedan's parents talked to us about their harsh economic
6
7 situation. Their father exclaimed in desperation, "We live like chicken here. Not like
8
9 chicken in cages. No, no, like chicken that get to run around in the dirt and hope to
10
11 find a worm. Yes, we are still hoping to find this worm. If this hope dies, we have
12
13 nothing left".
14

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16
17 None of the families owned or rented the houses they were living in. Those who had
18
19 previously owned property found it difficult to establish ownership due to missing
20
21 documentation and new tenants refusing to leave. Those without property did not
22
23 receive any assistance from the Kosovar authorities in finding a place to live. Most
24
25 adolescents explained that they and their families either squatted in abandoned houses
26
27 whose owners were assumed to have left the country or were living in houses owned
28
29 by family members under crowded living conditions.
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32 33 *Health problems of other family members*

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35 Surprisingly, eight out of fourteen adolescents related their distress and symptoms to
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37 worries about the poor health of other family members. Health problems of parents
38
39 and siblings ranged from thyroid problems and diabetes, to heart problems, gallstones,
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41 liver problems, and psychological distress. Adolescents perceived the health problems
42
43 of their parents and siblings as extremely dangerous. They feared that their own
44
45 symptoms mirrored their family members' health issues and that they would soon
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47 suffer in similar terms or that their respective member of the family was on the verge
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49 of dying.
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53 Agon stated that his own "stress and spiritual suffering" is partly related to his worries
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55 for his parents who suffer from psychological problems related to the Kosovo War.
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3 He explained that he suffers from headaches, cries for hours and becomes nervous
4
5 when he thinks of the trauma his parents experienced during and following the war.
6
7 Similarly, when we asked Marigona about what in her opinion causes her distress,
8
9 apart from the deportation, she referred mainly to the health problems of her family
10
11 members. “My whole family is sick. My dad has problems with his heart, my mother
12
13 has heart problems and asthma, and my little sister has heart problems, breathing
14
15 problems and bronchitis.” She is frequently worried that her parents and sister might
16
17 die.
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21 The heightened anxiety around others’ health problems might be because parents,
22
23 particularly those belonging to minority ethnic groups, frequently lamented that
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25 doctors treated them disrespectfully, that they could not afford to purchase
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27 medications for their health problems, and/ or that medicines available abroad were
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29 not available in Kosovo. Data from our research suggests that adolescents have
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31 absorbed these perceptions, frustrations and worries and, consequently, viewed
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33 others’ and their own health condition as steadily worsening or incurable.
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36 37 *Discrimination and harassment* 38

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40 Adolescents, especially those from RAE and Gorani communities, felt vulnerable
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42 facing discrimination and violence and, thus, lived in fear of physical assault, racist
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44 persecution, and interpersonal conflict. Most viewed their social environment as
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46 inherently violent and were afraid to leave the house. Zedan admitted that he is afraid
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48 that someone might follow and attack him. He said: “People here are extremely
49
50 aggressive, they have knives and many have guns. I avoid them. Therefore, I was only
51
52 three times in downtown Prishtina since we returned.” It is important to note that the
53
54 city centre is only a fifteen-minute car ride from where his family lives and the
55
56 surroundings are considered safe.
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3 While some felt insecure but never actually experienced any direct violence, others
4
5 had been exposed to harassment and physical assaults. When we met Blendi, he had a
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7 bandage around his left hand due to a fight with a group of Albanians who had beaten
8
9 him up on his way from school. His experience is not an isolated case. Human rights
10
11 reports have stated that such incidents, often motivated by racism, happen frequently
12
13 but remain largely underreported out of fear of reprisal and the assumption that the
14
15 Kosovar police would not take violence experienced by members of the RAE and
16
17 Gorani communities seriously enough (Duennwald, 2009; HRW, 2010).
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20
21 Two of the Ashkali girls we interviewed referred to sexual harassment and abuse,
22
23 which left them feeling distrustful of and disgusted by men. Linda said vaguely:
24
25 “People here are not nice. They are not like in Germany where people say nice things.
26
27 Here people are perverse”. Her sister picked up her thread explaining: “We walk
28
29 down the street and young men and even the grandfathers offer us money. They offer
30
31 the money just to do the one thing, you know...” Consequently, both girls are afraid
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33 and isolate themselves at home.
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40 ***Help- and health-seeking behaviour***

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42 It is evident from the data that the adolescent deportees did not have extensive social
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44 networks and, consequently, their capability to access resources and professional help
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46 for their health and social problems was minimal. In our interviews we asked the
47
48 adolescents about their coping strategies. While the strategies mentioned were very
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50 individualistic (none of them were shared by the majority of interlocutors), they all
51
52 refer to activities that allow individuals to isolate themselves from others and to
53
54 internalize their suffering. Specifically, adolescents mentioned avoidance of thoughts
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3 (3), avoidance of people (2), roaming the streets (2), praying to God (2), sleeping a lot
4
5 (2), isolation from others (1), and listening to loud music (1). For instance, Marigona
6
7 explained that her main strategy was to avoid people whom she suspected might talk
8
9 to her about the deportation: “I feel that they just make fun of us. When they come, I
10
11 leave the room and wait until they are gone. However, it is hard to simply leave as
12
13 people claim that I don’t honor my family”. Daran, on the other hand, said: “When I
14
15 get nervous, I go out, just not to stay at home, to calm down”. When asked where he
16
17 tends to go, he replied: “I walk through the city because I get scared to stay at home
18
19 and become nervous with myself. Who knows what I would do...” Daran suffered
20
21 from suicidal ideation and, thus, we suspect that leaving the home and wandering the
22
23 streets was, not only a survival strategy, but also a vehicle by which to deescalate
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25 interpersonal conflict.
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30 Without exception, the adolescents stated that it was their immediate family who
31
32 provided them with support in times of difficulty. Everyone had at least one or more
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34 family member, who encouraged them to socialize, listened to them, calmed them in
35
36 times of sadness and distress, and/ or tried to provide some comfort when in pain.
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38 However, it was disheartening to see that only three adolescents mentioned friends as
39
40 a source of support while five stated that they did not have any friends. Seven
41
42 adolescents described people, who could potentially be their friends such as
43
44 schoolmates, neighbors or cousins, as “useless” and untrustworthy as they do not
45
46 provide any support, cannot empathize with their pain as they do not understand what
47
48 it feels like, and ridicule their feelings. In contrast, the same adolescents all referred
49
50 spontaneously to having had meaningful friendships in Germany, Switzerland or
51
52 Austria. They often thought about their friends and some were able to remain in
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54 contact with them through social media.
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3 Professional support from health providers or social workers was either weak or
4
5 nonexistent. Half of the adolescents reported that they had seen a general practitioner
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7 for their health problems, but felt that they had not received proper advice or
8
9 treatment. While most clinicians seemed to recognize that the adolescents suffered
10
11 from emotional distress, only one was referred to a psychiatrist whereas others
12
13 received aspirin for their headaches and medication for “stress” including vitamins
14
15 and diazepam.
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19 Six children referred to Kosovar doctors as incompetent characterizing them as
20
21 unskilled, lazy, and corrupt. Especially, adolescents from RAE and Gorani
22
23 communities felt discriminated and unequally treated by health providers. They
24
25 described how clinicians ignored them and spoke to them disrespectfully. Rumors of
26
27 malpractice directed at minorities in the clinical setting also circulated and further
28
29 diminished trust in health-care institutions. Without assuming that these stories reflect
30
31 all or part of the reality, they strongly reflect the distrust adolescents have towards the
32
33 health system. These findings correspond with results published by the Open Society
34
35 Foundation in Kosovo (Schaaf, 2009), which indicate that sixteen percent of RAE feel
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37 discriminated against or treated unequally by Kosovar health institutions.
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47 **Limitations**

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49 Our study is limited to a small and select sample of adolescents suffering from high
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51 levels of psychological suffering with a background of multiple possible causal
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53 factors including deportation experiences, poverty, limited social networks, domestic
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55 violence, and structural violence such as ethnic and gendered discrimination and
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3 exclusion. Moreover, their narratives are subject to recall and subjective biases and
4
5 are shaped by the illness experience itself. The data are not easy to generalize and,
6
7 therefore, might not reflect the experiences of other adolescent deportees in Kosovo,
8
9 particularly those with greater resilience or more effective coping strategies. A
10
11 comparison with more resilient adolescents could have helped to further examine to
12
13 what extend the exposure to trauma and adversity were the main factors
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15 differentiating both groups, and explore the resources and coping mechanism at the
16
17 heart of the resilience process. An additional limitation is that information derived
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19 from caregivers was mostly acquired through observation and informal interviews.
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26 **Discussion and recommendations**

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28 Our study clearly shows that forced repatriation practices are experienced as
29
30 disruptive, violent events, depriving the adolescents of a sense of security and
31
32 “home”. Born or raised in Germany and Austria, they experienced the repatriation
33
34 realities in Kosovo as hostile, characterizing their lives as plagued by poverty, social
35
36 deprivation and discrimination with a lack of medical care and overall assistance.
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40 The illness narratives of the adolescents make apparent that living under such
41
42 precarious circumstances is perceived to have a damaging effect on physical,
43
44 emotional and social development. Most of the adolescents listed a wide range of
45
46 psychological, psychosomatic and organic symptoms that they connected to the
47
48 deportation and repatriation experience. There was a related sense of loss and social
49
50 isolation that emerged from their unstable economic and living conditions. Their lack
51
52 of social and economic capital made accessing appropriate resources and professional
53
54 help for their health and social problems difficult, if not impossible. In the absence of
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3 professional help the adolescents turned to their immediate family for protection
4
5 against an environment that they perceived as hostile and discriminatory.
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7 The adolescents were convinced that their health problems were generated and
8
9 perpetuated partly through social and political practices; a perception that is
10
11 powerfully mirrored in the social determinants of health approach that has linked
12
13 health outcomes to social position (Commission on Social Determinants of Health
14
15 2008). Consequently, to improve the health and wellbeing of these adolescents
16
17 requires more than simply providing medical care. A broader set of services or
18
19 programs are crucial to address political, economic, social and medical factors. More
20
21 specifically, we advocate for a multi-sectorial legal, social and medical intervention
22
23 based on a social and human rights approach that is designed to protect and promote
24
25 the rights and wellbeing of children.
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30 On the legal level, it is essential that prevention measures are established by
31
32 international and national bodies to protect adolescents' wellbeing. European Member
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34 States have to be held accountable for the wellbeing of voluntarily or forcedly
35
36 repatriated children and adolescents. It is important that they screen all returnees
37
38 according to the UNHCR guidelines and abide by the European Court of Human
39
40 Rights (ECHR) framework that is, only return children and adolescents if it is in their
41
42 best interest while taking their special needs into account (ECHR, 2014). Host
43
44 countries, in turn, must engage with international human rights standards before
45
46 deciding on repatriation and, at the same time, independently verify the conditions for
47
48 reception and reintegration in Kosovo's municipalities. It is partly the host countries'
49
50 responsibility to ensure that the rights of adolescents are fully respected and that the
51
52 return is conducted in a safe and dignified manner (OSCE, 2011). Currently, human
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3 rights standards are not fully respected during repatriation processes (National
4 Strategy for Reintegration of Repatriated Persons in Kosovo, 2013).
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8 Receiving countries, in this case Kosovo, must be held liable for the provision of
9 financial and social assistance to returning children and their families.
10 Implementations and repatriation strategies must be agreed upon reintegration and
11 anti-discrimination laws applied. (OSCE, 2011; National Strategy for Reintegration
12 of Repatriated Persons in Kosovo, 2013; HRW, 2010). By following a human rights-
13 based approach, their actions need to be based on an understanding that young people
14 have the right to be included in the decision-making processes that concern them; to
15 receive adequate information to ensure their health and wellbeing; to be protected
16 from any form of violence or harm; to receive special support and care in order to live
17 fulfilling and independent lives; to receive governmental support if they are affected
18 by poverty; to receive quality education; and to have an adequate standard of living
19 (UN Convention on the Rights of the Child).
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35 A human rights based approach to repatriation has to be implemented in such a way
36 as to directly impact on the social determinants that affect the adolescents' health and
37 wellbeing. It is crucial to implement policies that guarantee the provision of adequate
38 housing, education, employment, economic opportunities and healthcare. A particular
39 priority should be the educational sector as education can pave the way forward to a
40 secure future. As the situation currently stands, with adolescents facing
41 insurmountable obstacles in accessing proper schooling, a stronger commitment from
42 the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST), the municipalities and
43 relevant educational institutions, is crucial.
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55 Additionally, psychosocial interventions should be designed to equip adolescents,
56 parents and communities with resources to change their social environment into one
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3 that is perceived as livable, dignified and future oriented (see for example
4
5 recommendations by Hobfoll et al., 2007). Panter-Brick and Eggerman (2012) have
6
7 identified that for adolescents to thrive in precarious situations shaped by traumatic
8
9 experiences and deep-seated poverty, it is crucial that quality of education is vastly
10
11 improved and furthermore, structural determinants of risk and resilience are
12
13 addressed. This could be achieved through strengthening families and by “[severing]
14
15 the insidious linkages between political insecurity, economic instability, domestic
16
17 crowding, and domestic violence” that tend to circumvent wellbeing.
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20
21 This approach accords with recommendations of the WHO (2008), which highlight
22
23 the importance of tackling the social determinants of poor health and avoidable health
24
25 inequalities as a priority. This would mean focusing on (1) improving daily living
26
27 conditions; (2) confronting inequitable distribution of power, money and resources;
28
29 and (3) measuring and understanding the problem and assessing the impact of action.
30
31 However, to ensure the implementation of these principles, these approaches must be
32
33 connected to policies and laws that guarantee core human rights, including the right to
34
35 health (Venkatapuram, 2014).
36
37

38
39 Within this framework, specialized psychotherapy and targeted interventions should
40
41 be reserved for adolescents suffering from trauma-related health problems such as
42
43 PTSD and depression (Panter-Brick et al., 2011; Tol et al., 2011). It is notable that
44
45 vital evidence on the effectiveness of common mental health treatment methods in
46
47 large-scale disasters and crises situations, is lacking. A recent systematic review
48
49 performed by Tol and colleagues (2011) highlighted that in children, meta-analysis of
50
51 randomized controlled trials failed to show an effect for PTSD symptomatology, but
52
53 identified that effects of group psychotherapy, school-based support and other
54
55 psychosocial support benefitted those who internalized their symptoms. Our research
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2
3 suggests that the implementation of mental health follow-up procedures alongside
4
5 effective treatment protocols for adolescent deportees would be a useful strategy in
6
7 addressing these issues.
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10 Scholars and interventionists largely agree that to improve and sustain adolescents'
11
12 mental health and psychosocial support, governments must develop and implement
13
14 multi-sectorial and multidisciplinary policies that integrate services into national and
15
16 local health, education, and social systems (Panter-Brick et al., 2011; Jordans et al.,
17
18 2010; Tol et al., 2011). To this, we would add an overhaul of the legal system in order
19
20 to ensure the implementation of human rights mechanisms. Only through such a
21
22 holistic approach will it be possible to provide repatriated adolescents with a secure
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24 environment and the capability to pursue and develop their lives in meaningful ways.
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ⁱ All names are anonymized to protect the identity of the study participants

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