



Albanian Mission Against Human Trafficking

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Analytical Research Report
on Migration in Albania

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Analytical Research Report on Migration in Albania

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ABSTRACT

Migration is a phenomenon that has affected nearly all Albanians. Statistics show that most Albanians want to leave in order to create a better life outside of Albania. Given this fact, a study has been undergone to identify the factors that push Albanians to migrate. The study has as a sample 1105 individuals with an equal gender distribution and different ages. The instruments used are the self-appointed questionnaire for migration, the World Health Organization questionnaire based on quality of life, the degree of hope and life satisfaction. Focus groups and interviews were also used to analyse the phenomenon. The results show a greater tendency for Albanians to leave as a result of socio-economic factors. What is unique about this study is the use of a comprehensive methodology and a first-time use of measuring the quality of life using the World Health Organization instrument.

This study aims to influence policy making and to present recommendations which will prevent illegal migration, and reintegrate returnees' back into society. This is a primary step towards an analysis of the migration phenomenon. Each datum is a source of study and a more profound and profiled analysis, allowing other authors to analyse the phenomenon of migration from other perspectives.

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INTRODUCTION

Migration out of Albania from the perspective of living in the country for 14 years.

On arriving in Albania 14 years ago and initially working for Caritas Albania in the most marginalised and isolated parts of the country, I am now very conscious of the extreme poverty and the feelings of hopelessness prevalent amongst the people. There seems to be no connection between the needs of the people and the services offered by the state. I sense a lack of sensitivity or any relevant response to this poverty in the rural and peripheral regions of the country. The intelligence and good will of the people is obvious so why is there such a divorce between the state and the needs of the people? In Albania the people in general are dismissed as non-existing and unnecessary to the well-being of the country. They are used but not enhanced or treated with the dignity they deserve. It is, in my understanding, this lack of encouragement and dignity amongst the educated of the country that is leading to this mass exodus of the intellectuals. This exodus is now including all the people who can manage to find their way out of the country towards a life where they strive to feel this respect and with the opportunity to reach their full potential. How can one feel freedom if you are entrapped by the very system which is meant to give a person the fullness of life. A person needs to act with honour and to be treated with honour. Without this sense of well-being, depression easily sets in and experienced hopelessness moves a person to flight. Fighting for justice and for honour within the system, which is controlled by nepotism and corruption, is felt to be impossible. It is felt as a thick impenetrable wall which cannot be broken down. The only hope is flight. This research reveals so much more. We hope that all those who have any power to make change will respond to this revealed truth and listen to the voice of the people who are voting now with their feet and moving away from their homeland.

Imelda Poole – President MWL

CHAPTER I

LITERATURE

1.1 Migration

“Migration is an expression of people’s aspirations for dignity, security, and better future.”

Migration is the process of population movement, whether within a state or across an international border (International Organization for Migration 2004). The movement of the population within a country is considered Immigration, while the movement of people abroad is considered as Emigration. Migration can be long-term or short-term, internal or international. Migration is a global phenomenon and today it is very current. Migration takes place for various reasons, including political instability, poverty, conflict, environmental degradation, and natural disasters.

With the progress of telecommunications, transportation and technology in general, people move much faster and more easily than before. For this reason, migration, whether voluntary or compulsory, is developing at high rates all over the world. People are moving in greater numbers and more quickly compared to other periods in history. This process is occurring at a time when many countries are unprepared to cope with demographic change and when policies and attitudes towards the movement of the population and emigration have significantly strengthened.

1.2 Theories on migration

The first group of contemporary theories designed to ‘explain’ migration are neoclassical ones. These theories suggest that the main reasons that drive an individual to migrate are socio-economic. Neoclassical theories are based on salary, employment, demand and labour market differentials. Neoclassical economic theory presupposes that individuals try to maximize their benefits: individuals “seek” for the place of residence that maximizes their well-being. This approach to the immigration economy makes it clear that both the sending and receiving countries can have a huge impact on the number and composition of migration flows by changing migration policies.

Migration, it is argued, occurs due to the attractive-demand factors that direct migrants to industrialized countries, the push-pull factors pushing them out of their countries, and the network of friends and relatives already in industrial societies that serve as anchoring communities for newcomers. There are a number of associated economic and social conditions and circumstances that meet the category of driving factors to migrate. So low economic growth combined with a marked inequality in income distribution and management, overcrowding in some areas, uncontrolled growth of unemployment, the great burden on property and functional separation, armed conflicts, human rights abuses, discrimination and inhumane and degrading treatment, as well as natural disasters and ecological destruction, are factors relevant to migration (Essentials of Migration Management, 2004: 19) Meanwhile, attracting factors relate to security

and economic development in the destination country / area , and employment opportunities. With the evolution of the phenomenon of migration, the need for a review of the emotional, psychological and cultural values that accompany migration from one country to another is becoming increasingly evident. Migrants themselves, in addition to the often positive developments in the household or personal economy, are also providing in their experiences such feelings, such as repentance, nostalgia, hesitation and sometimes and shame (Kaufman, H. 2006: 19). In neoclassical theories, migration is perceived as a complex product of the 'push' and 'pull' factors that affect economic and household income, but they devote much less attention to the wider social, cultural, and psychological framework, nationally or internationally, and consequently to welfare planning. (Alvin, S., 1990: 17).

The migration process carries far more than a physical movement. Migration is often defined as "one of the historical forces that has shaped the world" or as "an inherent part of human behaviour", referring to the fact that it is a social phenomenon, as old as human history itself. . This term may be used to describe movements of various kinds, but our emphasis is mainly on voluntary migration, which limits the range of behaviours that can be called "migratory" (Ikonomi, L., 2009: 58).

1.3 Causes of migration

Factors that determine why a person migrates, may relate to the place of origin or to the destination, which may be final or temporary. Both the country of origin and the destination are characterized by factors that support (enable) migration, refuse, or are neutral (neither support nor oppose migration). Favourable attributes of a location are appealing factors that attract a person, while unfavourable attributes are constraining factors that force a person to leave. Positive and negative factors can coexist simultaneously both in the country of origin and destination. Typically, the causes are economic, socio-political and ecological. First, economic factors relate to a country's labour market, employment situation and overall economic situation. Favourable economic conditions in destination, the prospect of higher salaries, better employment opportunities and capital creation are factors that promote migration. Next, the desire to leave arises from the social, economic and political situation of the country of origin. Unemployed and poor individuals, as a consequence of the disadvantageous situation in their country of origin, will be forced to migrate and to find ways to survive. Secondly, socio-political factors influencing migration may include ethnicity, religion, race, culture, family conflicts, and the search for independence, the threat of conflict or war. Other socio-political drivers are political instability, security and defence concerns, conflict or threat of conflict, problems with infrastructure, as well as inadequate or limited urban services. At the same time, 'pull' factors associated with the socio-political dimension of the destination include family unification, independence and freedom, social integration and cohesion, food security and other material benefits, as well as access to services (health care, education, public services and transportation).

Thirdly, environmental factors such as climate change and availability of natural resources may cause individuals to migrate in search of more favourable circumstances.

1.4 Types of migration

Theories have drawn up different classifications of migration. The first division is based on the division of political boundaries. Thus, *internal migration* involves the movement between villages, cities

and districts. The other type of migration is *international migration*, defined as migration across national boundaries.

Other classifications of migration relate to social status, travel points and periodicity of movement. *Step-by-step migration* is where migration is defined as hierarchical and starts from a small place to a larger area. So the person may migrate from a farm to a village, then to a town, and finally to a city. *Cyclical migration* involves migration between the country of origin and the destination, characterized by at least one migration and return. Migrants share their time between two locations, spending long periods of time in the country of origin and migration. *Seasonal migration* is a very common form of migration, characterized by high demand for labour over a short period of time in a particular destination, mainly for agriculture. *The migration of returnees* is related to the repeated return of migrants to their country of origin, voluntarily or not. *Chain migration* is the type of migration where individuals from specific destinations follow their relatives to migrate.

An important classification of migration is based on an analysis of decision-making. Migration is classified as voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary migration is based on the desire and free choice of a person to live in a better place and with a better standard of living, among other factors. Involuntary migration occurs when the individual is forced to migrate because of unfavourable environmental and political conditions.

1.5 Psychosocial consequences of migration

Migration is a complex phenomenon that has an impact on individuals, families, societies, economies and cultures, both in the country of origin and the destination. Migration affects the physical, mental, and emotional well-being of migrants, people in the country of origin and people in the country of destination.

People migrate to improve their well-being. However, the effects of migration on psychological and emotional well-being are not very clear. The process of moving from one cultural environment to another can be very stressful, with potentially negative impacts on mental health (Bhugra and Jones, 2001). According to the World Health Organization (2001, p. 13), “usually migration does not bring improvement of social welfare, but often results in emigrant exposure to social stress and increased risk of mental disorder”. Migration can be very traumatic, with high levels of stress and can include people at risk. Migration involves separation from family and traditional values and adapting to new social and cultural situations. For many immigrants, social integration is difficult and often impossible. Problems with language, different culturally defined behaviours, the presence of prejudice and discrimination all increase the degree of difficulty experienced by migrants. Communication has an important role in mental health. Language barriers may cause feelings of isolation and being ‘unwanted.’ Poor communication may affect access to health care, leading to inappropriate diagnosis and treatment.

Migrants are affected by social inequalities and are likely to go through some experiences during the migration process that undermine their physical, mental and social well-being. In addition to coping with poverty and social exclusion, which have a negative impact on health, migrants may also find it difficult to cope with an unfamiliar healthcare environment.

1.6 The health consequences of migration

Migration involves a process that is carried out by a diverse group of people, including migrants in regular and irregular situations, trafficked persons, asylum seekers, refugees and displaced and returnees. As migration is becoming increasingly part of the lives of many people, the health implications of migration and migrant health should be recognized as an important issue in making health policies. Social inequalities that exist in any society and between different societies mean that the right to good healthcare is dispersed unequally among the different population groups. Migrants often find themselves among the most affected by health inequalities.

The social determinants of migrant health are related to the factors affecting the migration process, the reasons for migration, and the way of traveling, the duration of residence and immigrant language skills, race, and legal status. These migrant health determinants are complex and interrelated. Immigrants can come from different backgrounds and situations, and once migrated their status often changes dramatically. Different categories of immigrants may have very different experiences. The health determinants of migrants are formed by their experiences and situations in countries of origin, transit and destination. Migration itself adds a special dimension to social determinants of health, as being a migrant can make people more vulnerable to adverse health impacts.

Migration is not in itself a health risk, but the conditions surrounding the migration process can increase the vulnerability to poor health. This is especially true of those who migrate involuntarily and find themselves in an irregular situation, such as those who migrate through clandestine routes or are exploited by traffickers.

Migrant workers who lack appropriate immigration papers constitute a large and vulnerable group of the population. Undocumented workers are often involved in hazardous and degrading work, exposing themselves to occupational hazards, but do not have health insurance. It is in conflict with the notions of social justice that these migrant groups at high risk of abuse, exploitation and discrimination have less access to health and social services (Clapham & Robinson 2009). Health risk factors often also relate to the legal status of migrants, determining the level of access to health and social services. Other risk factors are poverty, stigma, discrimination, poor housing, lack of education, dangerous working conditions, social exclusion, gender, language and cultural differences, family segregation and socio-cultural norms.

1.7 Perceptions of migrants

One widespread belief is that migration is damaging society and that it would be ideal if countries accept few or no immigrants. Such perceptions promote prejudice, discrimination, the formation of stereotypes, and conflicts.

“ The emigrants steal our work ”

One of the most prevalent stereotypes in the migration discourse today connects emigrants with unemployment rates. According to these perceptions, emigrants offer cheap labour, are the cause of wage cuts and compete dishonestly for jobs in different sectors. Negative attitudes towards migrants are closely related to unemployment. In other words, the higher the unemployment rate in a given country, the more it is thought that immigrants “ steal ” jobs.

“ Migrants are unqualified ”

The general belief is that migrating individuals have lower levels of skills and this hinders innovative capacity. As a country's development comes from quality, states try to attract skilled migrants by setting higher standards for admission.

The perception that migrants have low levels of skills, legitimizes their employment in less desirable but necessary work, and creates space for abuse, irresponsible treatment, low pay, and social exclusion.

“ Migrants undermine the welfare of the country ”

It is perceived that the destination country gives migrants more than they deserve. There is continual controversy about immigrants benefiting from health care, pensions or social assistance. Migrants are thought to somehow threaten welfare systems and undermine group solidarity, because they are 'different' from the majority of the population. " At school children suffer from the presence of immigrants". It is assumed that the quality of schools decreases with the increase in the number of migrant children in the classrooms. Despite the belief that these children have poor skills, it should be noted that it is not the child's origin that results in less success in school but the level of resources available and their low socioeconomic status.

1.8 Migration in Albania

The events of 1989-1991 in Eastern Europe marked a new phase of migration in Europe. The political transformation of communist regimes also brought about a transformation in migratory dynamics. Citizens now wanted to be free to exercise their right to leave and migrate, especially towards Western European countries.

Even in Albania there have been changes. The social and economic transformation of the country occurred in a short time. The first distinguishing feature is the extreme transformation of economy and politics, from a centralized economy to a neoliberal economy. The second distinctive element of the post-communist Albanian transformation is the high degree of migration (Carletto et al., 2006). Albania and its population have been significantly affected by this phenomenon since the early 1990s. A predominant trend was Albanian citizens migrating to rich countries in Europe, but also to North America and Australia. Although the main migrations recorded are in the 1990s and 2000s, emigration from Albania continues today.

Albania's migration flows have been the result of a number of 'push' and 'pull' factors that act at individual, family, community and national levels, and have changed over time. Stampini et al (2005) break down the evolution of Albanian migration from 1990 to four periods. The first period, commencing with the collapse of the communist government, falls between 1990 and 1992. Emigration was officially banned during the communist regime and initial political instability, social upheavals and the economic downturn associated with the collapse of the government led to an increase in international migration. Between 1993 and 1996, persistent poverty, unemployment, a declining public sector, poor access to public services, poor infrastructure, wage differentials, fast development and the economic rhythms of neighbouring countries encouraged the wave of migration. By the end of 1996, the collapse of a number of fraudulent pyramid investment schemes triggered another period of international migration.

Thus, estimates of Albanians living abroad in 2001 are in the range of 600,000-700,000, or about one-fifth of the population. These results are high figures for a country where international migration is a relatively recent phenomenon.

1.9 Migration chronology

1.9.1 Early migration

Albanians use a number of different words to refer to migration, each of them having different connotations. Exile, refugee, emigrant or kurbet have described the tradition. The term kurbet is related to cultural perceptions, and popular Albanian songs that speak of the suffering of migration, both for migrants and for the family left behind.

Albania's sudden and rapid migration became one of the most dramatic flows in the 'new European migration map' of the 1990s. But this was not the first time in their history that Albanians had emigrated.

Historical documents on the demographic movements of the Albanian population before 1945 are not numerous and should be considered with reservations. Data on this phenomenon are usually taken from books about historical characters, or journals of different travellers, which are not always complete and may not have credibility.

The first important emigration began at the end of the 15th century, when thousands of Albanian Christians, to escape Ottoman attacks, fled to Italy. Known as Arbëresh, they kept their language and customs throughout their exile. The tradition of the "emigration", to support the family was a reaction to economic difficulties. The meaning of emigration in Albania is ambivalent. It is associated with strong morale of values of pride and courage, because it involved taking risks and making sacrifices, especially when it involved far distant places, such as the USA or Argentina. Although migration was banned during the communist period, the language and ideology of the emigration persisted in the folklore and memory of the people.

In many songs and in social memory in general, exile or migration was described as a painful loss experienced by abandoned migrants, making heroic sacrifices for their families [Pistrick, 2010]. On the other hand it is also depicted in positive terms, as an event that brought civilization, economic development and general well-being.

1.9.2 Migration during the communist regime

Albania experienced one of the most dictatorial and isolating communist regimes. Economic and political contacts with other, even communist, countries were gradually and definitively cut off. There was no free movement even within the internal borders. Every move required a special travel permit, a policy that prevented international migration, and also retained the population in rural areas.

State propaganda also emphasized the negative human consequences of Albanian emigration. The concept of the kurbet was exploited, with the emphasis on the negative connotations it had, such as separation, tears, suffering, loss and destruction.

As a result of all preventive measures, travel restrictions, prohibition of the practice of external or internal migration, between 1950 and 1989, only about 20,000 persons managed to leave Albania.

1.9.3 Migration after the Communist Period: Hello Europe!

Albanian emigration represents the largest exodus compared with the population of any country that has faced economic transition (Castaldo et al., 2005). According to estimates, on average every

family has had at least one member emigrate (INSTAT, 2001, Gërmenji and Sinnen, 2005). In the Albanian context, emigration is seen as very important economically. According to UNDP (2000), Albania is highly dependent

On remittances, which have been increasing and in most cases have exceeded the amount of foreign investment, exports or assistance received from international institutions (INSTAT, 2002; of Albania, 2008).



'Embassy Migrants', Summer 1990

The first period of Albanian migration took place in the mid-1990s, when about 5,000 Albanians, frustrated by travel bans abroad, invaded some of the Western embassies in Tirana. This moment was the symbolic act of 'migration' on foreign soil.

This occurred at a time when the country was facing an unstable political situation, with social insecurity and extreme economic poverty. Unemployment affected about 40% of the population, the average monthly salary reached \$ 20, inflation grew steeply, and the industrial and agricultural sectors were collapsing. Within a short period, by early 1991, about 20,000 Albanians left, mostly to Italy.

1.9.4 The main mass exodus, March and August 1991

The chaos of the first democratic elections in Albania led to the first exodus to southern Italy in March 1991, where 25,000 immigrants were admitted and settled in Italy. The second exodus was in August, but most of the 20,000 migrating at this time were repatriated. Italian authorities argued that while "first wave" migrants could be treated as refugees because of the tense political situation, the "second wave" followed democratic elections and therefore could not be given refugee status. Meanwhile, a large-scale but untold exodus took place to Greece, where many young men were smuggled across the southern mountains. So during 1991-93 it was estimated that 300,000 Albanians left the country, the vast majority to Greece and Italy. Images of overcrowded vessels destined for Brindisi and Bari have become part of the iconography of the mass migration of the Albanian people.

1.9.5 Pyramid Investment Funds Crisis, spring 1997

Another important moment for migration was the year 1997, when the collapse of several pyramid investment schemes, largely funded by remittances from emigrants, financially destroyed a large number of Albanian households.

In the first months of 1997, the collapse of pyramid schemes where private savings were invested led to a period of political and economic turmoil, with civil war. This chaos produced another exodus. Initially, 10,600 Albanians were accepted by Italy, but then the migrations from the sea were ended in tragic circumstances. On March 29, 1997, as a result of a collision between an Italian coaster and a boat with Albanian migrants, 87 people, including many women and children lost their lives. Unrecorded border crossings continued to Greece. Meanwhile, the Kosovo War in 1999 again caused a refugee crisis.

1.9.6 Migration after the 90s

Migration continued throughout the 2000s, albeit with declining intensity (Azzarri and Carletto, 2009). In 2000, government estimates of the total number of Albanians living abroad were approximately 800,000 immigrants, with 500,000 in Greece and 200,000 in Italy. These figures included migrants with or without documents. Other countries with a significant number of Albanians included Germany (12,000), the United States (12,000), the United Kingdom (5,000), Canada (5,000), Belgium (2,500), France (2,000), Turkey (2,000) Austria (1,000), Switzerland (1,000) and Australia (1,460).

1.10 Statistics on Migration in Albania

Since 1990, about 20% of the Albanian population has fled and lives across borders. Compared to other countries, the outflow of Albanian emigration is about 4-5 times higher than the average rates found for contemporary emigration (Barjaba, 2000).

According to a World Bank study, by 2005 at least one in three families had a member who had fled abroad (World Bank 2007). Some years later, about two in five families have at least one former member abroad. The real impact of migration is probably higher (INSTAT, Institute of Public Health and ICF Macro 2010).

Foreign sources

By 2010, the World Bank reported that 1.4 million Albanians were living abroad, equal to half of the current Albanian resident population (2.8 million according to the 2011 census results). This report puts Albania at the top countries in terms of emigration around the world (World Bank, 2011, pp. 4, 54).

Statistics from Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes (NSIs) for European countries report that about 988,000 Albanian citizens live abroad in 2011, according to Eurostat, 2011 (and data from NSIs and Eurostat database), making Albanians the third largest population of non-EU citizens in the EU (after Turks and Moroccans). If we add estimates of Albanians born in Canada and Australia (about 10,000), and in the United States (about 77,000), the estimate reaches one million (Annex I), which means that about one in four Albanians live outside Albania.

An important role in these statistics is also the change of citizenship. During 2008-2009, 22,800 Albanians received Greek citizenship; in Italy 14,000 Albanian gained citizenship. Thus, along with an

unknown number of unregistered Albanian migrants, the population of Albanians abroad would be even greater than one million.

In Italy almost one quarter of the Albanian population is comprised of children under the age of 15; in Greece about 20 percent and in Germany about 12 percent, totalling about 200,000. .

The Pew Research Organization reports that for 2015, there were 67,000 Albanian asylum seekers ranking Albania as fifth in Europe. (Pew Research Organization, 2015).

In 2017, according to reports from EU member states, the largest group of migrants entering Europe came from Morocco and then from Albania, with 58,900 or 7.1% of the total. Interestingly, about 51% of these individuals have obtained citizenship in Greece and 46% in Italy (ecc.europe.eu 2019).

Albanian sources

Albania has one of the highest rates of emigration in the world, compared to its population, with a number of emigrants around 39 percent of the total population. The recent flow of Albanian migrants consists mainly of four main groups: i) labour migrants; ii) people migrating to join their families abroad; iii) students; and iv) asylum seekers and refugees.

The main causes of emigration for Albanian citizens are still economic, with high unemployment rates (17.3 percent, with a peak of 32.5 percent in the age group 15-29) and poverty (12.5 percent of the population lives below the poverty line).

Until 2000, the figures of Albanian emigrants living abroad were unreliable. . Existing data come from three sources: Albania, destination countries, mainly Greece and Italy, and foreign studies.

In 2000, the Albanian Immigration Department estimated that by 1999, around 800,000 Albanians lived abroad (Barjaba 2000). Most of them, 500,000, were in Greece, 200,000 were in Italy, and 100,000 in other European countries and in North America. These numbers include those with documentation and those without documentation. It is not clear how these data are collected but they are the most cited for this period (1990-99), and were mostly undisputed.

A second source of immigration data is the results of the 2001 Census. From the general population census, it was concluded that around 600,000 Albanians migrated in the years 1989-2001. This figure excludes temporary migrants, leaving for periods of less than 12 months, mainly in Greece.

In 2005, the Government of Albania published revised estimates, where about a million Albanians are said to have migrated and reside abroad. According to this report, migrants represent 30 percent of the total population.

The number of Albanian nationals applying for asylum in EU Member States (11,040 in 2013, 12,295 in 2014) is increasing. These claims are largely rejected / unsuccessful. . Beginning in early 2015, a surge of “economic seekers” left Albania, heading to Germany, the Netherlands and other Western European countries. In total, 53,805 Albanians submitted an asylum application in Germany in 2015. Albania ranks fourth in the number asylum seekers in the European Union during the first quarter of 2015, according to Eurostat data.

Albanian asylum seekers were encouraged by the signs that the German government was revising its migration policies, seeking to attract foreign workers. Many Albanians called themselves “economic asylum seekers” and offered unemployment and poverty as their reasons for leaving Albania in their asylum interviews. Given their perception that Germany was looking for workers, many Albanians adopted the term “economic asylum seeker” to justify their claim for the right to remain in Germany. They may have been persuaded by smugglers to believe this was a viable way to gain settled status in the European Union (Barjaba & Barjaba, 2015).

Studies show that by 2015, around 437,356 eligible Albanian emigrants were resident in Greece and 447,586 in Italy.

Sources from Greece

Data on the number of Albanians in Greece are limited. In 1998, 241,561 Albanian emigrants were registered in Greece, forming 65% of the non-Greek population. This figure excluded many Albanians who had not applied for registration. Meanwhile, Barjaba and King (2005: 12) estimate that by 2001, about 500,000 Albanians with or without documents live in Greece. The Greek census in 2001, included about 443,550 Albanians (Baldë-Edwards 2004), but this figure may be low because, as many Albanians may have been taken to be Greek by the pollsters, not included in the census at all.

In conclusion, given that the overall Greek population is less than 11 million, Albanians are a significant part of the population (5% of the total population).

Sources from Italy

Italian data on Albanian migrants come from several sources - which are often not consistent. First, there are periodic registrations in Italy. According to Italian sources, about 240,400 Albanians were granted a residence permit by the end of 2003. Albanians make up 11 percent of immigrants in Italy, forming one of the largest migrant groups.

In 2001 the Census in Italy generated data that contradicted the previous data. Thus, according to the Census only 173,100 Albanians lived in Italy

Data from demographic annual reports suggest that by the end of 2004 there were 316,700 Albanians living in Italy. As with Greek registration, Italian registration may have been a problem.

So there is a tendency for Albanian migrants not to claim their nationality, especially those who are without residence permits or documents that allow them to live and work legally in their country of settlement.

Sources from Great Britain

The number of Albanians in Great Britain is estimated at about 50,000 by 2005 (Government of Albania 2005), but some official British sources estimate that there are about 100,000. Moreover, it is assumed that this figure refers to the entire Albanian community, which includes Albanians from Kosovo and Macedonia.

Resources from the US

Establishing the number of Albanian emigrants in the United States has also been difficult. First, Albanian communities have claimed that in 1989 around 250,000 Albanians originating from Albania, Kosovo and Macedonia lived in the USA and in 2000 these claims had reached half a million, including the second and third generations (Nazi 2000: 149; Trix 2001: 12). On the other hand, in 2005 the Government of Albania estimated that around 150,000 Albanians lived in the United States, although there is no clear data on the methodology or the time period that this figure corresponds to. The statistics of the Government of Albania are closer to the data provided by the immigration authorities in the United States, which by 2001 reported a total of 113,661 Albanian immigrants (Orgocka 2005: 140). These data do not include students, visa-free immigrants, or those who do not have a regular residence permit.

1.11 Trafficking in Albania: The Dark Part of Migration

Trafficking in people has been a very sensitive issue in Albania. Nevertheless, until the year 2000 there were no specific articles in the Albanian Legislature and the Criminal Code to mention the term “trafficking”.

There are many reasons why people are trafficked. Official sources report that trafficked victims are fooled with promises of work, deceived by false marriages, and can be trafficked by their own family members. People may be at risk of being trafficked because of poverty, lack of information and education, mental health issues, people coming from dysfunctional families, lack of financial support or lack of access to justice, as well as victim stigmatization and discrimination increase the risk for trafficking.

The U S Department of State’s Report on Trafficking in Persons in 2017 reported that: “Albania is a source country, transit country and destination country for men, women and children subject to sexual and forced trafficking. Albanian children are subject to sexual and forced labour internally and externally, especially during the tourist season.

Albanian victims are mostly trafficked to Greece and Italy, the UK, France, Belgium, Norway, Germany and the Netherlands. Trafficking in women and children for sexual exploitation is increasing. The total number of Albanian victims identified and assisted between 2000 and 2004 was 1750.

Young people constitute a significant percentage of Albanian victims trafficked abroad (21.1% in 2003 and 23.6% in 2004). Juveniles accounted for 100% of victims of trafficking for work, begging and delinquency in 2003 and 93.2% in 2004. Roma and Egyptian minorities are very common among all types of Albanian victims. Victims with special physical and mental needs and disabilities represent more than one third of Albanian victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Most Albanian victims are trafficked by persons who are known to them. Transport routes have been mostly illegal, with forged documents or none. In 2003, 33.7% of victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation were re-trafficked. Between 1999 and 2006, IOM assisted 90 Albanian victims trafficked into EU Member States.

1.12 Causes of Albanian migration

In the beginning, most Albanian migrants thought of migration as a temporary response to damaging government policies and economic collapse. Albanian migrants intended to move to find work, earn money elsewhere and return again.

Migration is key to the demographic structure of Albania. Many researchers (Barjaba, 2000; Castaldo et al., 2005; King, 2005; King and Volunteer, 2003; Zezza et al., 2005) note that economic factors are the primary drivers of migration. Although the Albanian economy showed some improvements in recent years, there are still large fluctuations that cause migration waves. This means that it is possible to say that migration will continue to be significant in the demographic formation of the country. This is because migration is perceived to be the best way to cope with the country’s economic conditions.

World Bank’s “Poverty in Albania” report found that 39% of respondents left Albania due to unemployment, 26% due to economic uncertainty, 20% due to low income (total 85% for the economy) and the rest (15 percent) to provide a better future for their children (De Soto et al., 2002, p. 45). Another study with migrant families (Kule et al., 2002) found similar results: 87% largely left for economic reasons, the rest for mainly social and political reasons. Castaldo et al., in their survey measuring living standards

in Albania in relation to the migration process, found that migration is greater among boys and men, and young people. Also, the higher their level of vocational education or training, the greater the chance that they will consider migration. People without jobs consider migrating to find work. Also, escaping rural areas continues to be an important factor in migration.

Lack of freedom in all its dimensions has been one of the other reasons for migration.

Interviews with migrants and future migrants have shown that their country of origin feels to them like living in prison. The research by Nicola Mai revealed that Albanian youth imagine that they can only “find themselves” by emigrating; they imagine that their future self-realization is possible outside Albania. Immigration is viewed as an opportunity to escape a miserable boring life in Albania, characterized by job difficulties (and, after 1990, finding a job), lack of resources and material goods, for lack of leisure time, not having fun and constant control and supervision. For them, emigration represented a political resistance strategy against an extremely authoritarian political culture.

1.13 Albanian Migration, Immediate Response to Economic Conditions

The relationship between migration and poverty has been widely researched. Massey et al. (1993) examined the main theories of migration and each of them links poverty and migration. Low wages, unemployment, and low levels of education are factors associated with rising migration rates. Migration is driven by potential income differentials across countries and by the cost (including probability of success) of migration.

Relative deprivation is another cause of migration. A family that is poorer in relation to other families in the same community has more incentive to migrate. Thus, not only general poverty, but also relative poverty and inequality are ‘push’ factors for migration.

Albania remains one of the poorest countries in Europe, despite its efforts to build the foundation for a market-based economy. Revenues per inhabitant remain among the lowest and according to World Bank surveys, around 25% of the population live in poverty. About 5% of the population face extreme poverty, and are unable to afford even basic needs such as food. (World Bank, 2007).

Among these communities it is possible to identify three broad types of migration. A first category is characterized by internal migration, and includes the North-Eastern areas such as Tropoja, Diber, Kukes, Mirdita, Puka, including Librazhd and Skrapar. In these districts, internal migration exceeds international flows. A second group consists of districts which are destinations for internal migration, but which are also sources of international migration. This group includes Tirana and most of the coastal districts such as Durres, Vlora, Fier and Shkodra, as well as Korça, which is a leading dispatcher of migrants to neighbouring Greece. Finally, there are districts that show high rates of international migration, but lower or negligible flows of internal migration.

1.14 Passing through different stages of Albanian migration

At the beginning of the 1990s socialism in Albania collapsed and was replaced by a capitalist system of social and economic development. Since then about 25% of the Albanian population has migrated to Italy or Greece, following the economic crisis of 1991-1992 and more recent political and social troubles. During the 1990s, migration was spontaneous, unplanned, and mostly irregular and dominated by

young men. The main destinations were Italy and Greece and migrants usually worked in agriculture and construction, with very low salaries.

Migration adjustment schemes and the provision of residence documentation brought a change. First, migrants felt safe, and were no longer afraid of being arrested and deported. Secondly, registration and documentation has given migrants better access to employment, although they remain in relatively low paid jobs; and it has enabled family reunions.

1.15 Characteristics of Albanian Migration

Many researchers consider Albania as a laboratory for studying contemporary migration.

Based on research and studies conducted during the first post-communist decade, Barjaba suggested a 'model of Albanian emigration' in 2000. This model has the following characteristics: migration is intense (a much higher emigration rate than any other country in the eastern bloc); is largely economically driven - a form of 'survival migration'; is often irregular, with many immigrants lacking documentation; is dynamic and fast evolving, especially with regard to new destinations and migration routes.

The fact that Albanian migration is dynamic and has evolved rapidly is evident from the data and statistics of the migrants. Clearly the scale and intensity make Albania's migration quite noticeable. Statistics show that there are few families in Albania that are not affected by migration. The speed and the intensity of migration, especially in 1991 and 1997, gives Albanian migration a character more like that of refugees leaving a country that is at war than conventional migration.

Albanian emigration is characterized by intensity. In the early 1990s, and also after the chaos of 1997, Albanian emigration was very intense. Tens of thousands of immigrants left in a very short period and by the mid-1990s, about 20% of the working-age population had emigrated (King, 2003). Especially in the first three years (1991-1993), the average migration in Albania was six times higher than that of other Balkan countries and four to five times higher than other former communist countries in Europe (Misja 1998, Barjaba 2000). The 2005 statistics from government sources show that the intensity of migration of Albanians has continued in recent years.

Characteristic of the Albanian model is irregular migration versus regular migration. Albanian migrants tend to look on themselves as refugees rather than immigrants. Often to escape border controls from the host countries they illegally cross the mountains and seas. This was especially the case in the early 1990s (Barjaba, 2005).

In 1997, there were 40 irregular Albanian migrants in Greece for every regular migrant, while in Italy this ratio was two irregular Albanian migrants for every regular migrant. The large number of irregular migrants is due to the short-term validity of most permits, bureaucratic obstacles and discrimination or corruption during the process of obtaining documents (Barjaba and King 2005: 13). Recently, due to access to legal channels, and distribution and dissemination of information, Albanian migration is becoming more regular.

As far as migration rates are concerned, according to the Centre for Economic and Social Studies in Albania, 50% of Albanian lecturers, scholars and academics had emigrated between 1990 and 2005, leading to the loss of intellectual resources to the country (Gëdeshi and Black 2006). Around 2000-4000 university students leave Albania each year to study abroad in Italy, Greece, France, Germany, USA, UK and so on. (Glee and Black 2006: 8).

In the early 1990s, Albania was the poorest country in Europe, with one-third of its population under

15 and with few employment opportunities or prospects for the future. High inflation, food shortages, and unemployment spread (Jarvis 2000: 5). Emigration was the only means of survival for many families (King 2003). After the losses caused by the pyramid selling crisis in 1997, migration re-emerged as a survival strategy. King (2005: 141) argues that migration continues to be considered by Albanians as “the most effective way to cope with the catastrophic conditions of the country”.

The economic drivers of Albanian migration are closely related to the turmoil of the political situation in the country. Barjaba and King (2005: 9) argue that the term ‘economic refugee’ is appropriate for the Albanian situation in the 1990s and also in 1997. Even today, due to political instability, many Albanians leave. Changes of government in most cases are accompanied by layoffs, mainly in the public administration, encouraging the flight abroad.

Another motive for emigration, suggested by King (2005: 141), is that of ‘personal liberation and self-expression’. The nature of Albania’s culture during the communist years created a sense of the collective that silenced individual voices (Lubonja 2001). This situation was particularly felt by young people who resented the denial of leisure time and pleasure. Mai (2002) shows that many of these young people “found themselves” in emigration. King (2005) further argues that their emigration was an expression of resistance “to the authoritarian culture of oversight and control, supported by the totalitarian regime, and many who were persecuted politically turned away so as not to return”. In this way, the quest for human rights was another motive that pushed Albanians to migrate to foreign countries.

1.16 Gender selectivity, characteristic of Albanian migration

“The man is known by the immigrant, the woman known from the cradle”

Gender analysis in migration studies has made significant epistemological progress. After a long period of research into the phenomenon of migration, the question of gender and migration is now considered relevant to understanding the ‘migrant experience’.

The Albanian migrant experience is exceptional in three ways. The first is the fact that emigration has been so widespread that almost all classes and households are involved. , Migration, direct or indirect, has become a norm rather than an exception. The second is that, in the rapid evolution of Albanian migration, non-migrants may very quickly decide to become migrants. And third, those who choose international migration may differ from those who choose internal migration. There are studies that show that Albanian migration has been selective... Thus, in the period 1989-2001, of 600,000 migrants 350,000 were men, compared to 250,000 women. Migrants were concentrated in the 18-35 age group. Migrant women and girls were more likely to be married to male migrants, suggesting that they migrated to ‘track’ their husbands in family reunions.

Since migration is a very dynamic process and has implications for many social phenomena, including gender ideologies, in the case of Albania, migration is typically shaped by patriarchal family values. Emigration has been dominated by boys and men, while the migration of women and girls has been limited. Given the 1990s situation, emigration was considered a dangerous, requiring strength and patience. Migration was replaced by the old pre-communist, kurbet or ‘work-to-work’ concept as a ‘masculine’ project where the men supported the family through their precision, sweat and blood. (King and Volunteer, 2003, pp. 17-23).

Women were excluded from Albanian migration at first. In mountainous and rural areas, men and

boys were the first to migrate, followed by women and girls in the next decade of migration. The inclusion of girls and women in the migration process occurred mainly through family reunification with male migrants who had led the way. A trend toward gender balance in migration is evidenced by employment data showing that women and girls are employed in the domestic and care sectors, while boys and men work mainly in construction, agriculture, and production.

According to Curran and Saguy (2001), gender differences can also be analysed in the terms of motives, risks and norms in migration. Studies in Albania have shown that migration is a family project and the decision to migrate was taken and carried out by boys and men, showing once again the dominance of men in family functioning and decision-making.

Nixon (2006) links the migratory movement in Albania with characteristics attributed to gender roles. Thus, boys and men 'became idealized as strong, decisive and profitable', while femininity was increasingly associated with 'family values, care and growth of children...'. Not surprisingly, men dominated migration in the beginning, while girls and women were mainly caring for the family and home in Albania. The higher number of girls and women in recent migration is a sign of the breaking of their traditional roles and greater emancipatory opportunities.

1.17 The Attributes of Albanian Migration in the Framework of Migration Theories

The strong 'push' factors for Albanian emigration are clear. These factors are related to the country's devastated economy; to the large percentage of young people, coupled with high unemployment rates; and the political and financial crises of the 1990s. Poor access to services, lack of opportunity in rural areas, and high levels of poverty are other drivers of migration.

'Pull' factors have also been important in promoting migration. Exposure to television brought about the desire to create a lifestyle like the one seen in the media. Perceived better pay in the west; better living conditions; better opportunities for the children of immigrants in the future; personal development; fascinating images were all factors that attracted migrants to other countries.

Discrimination and prejudice against Albanians were factors that discouraged emigration, until the outbreak of the socio-political and economic crisis in the country. On the other hand, despite the negative attitudes, the successful model of a neighbour who has been abroad has brought hope and the desire to migrate. Stories shared with acquaintances, family reunions, the opportunity to send money to your home, and poverty reduction are obviously factors that have pushed the Albanian population towards emigration.

1.18 The consequences of emigration to Albanian society

Departing from children

Albania has high migration rates, and migrants are mostly men. Studies on the effects on mental health due to migration are scarce (Toyota, Yeoh, & Ngyen, 2007) and especially for the effects on children staying at home while one or two parents migrate in search of better economic opportunities, often in places more developed or from rural to urban areas within their own country. Most studies focused on the economic impact of migration on children in the country of origin, mainly on education and health

spending. The impact of separation, from at least one parent, on the psychological development and mental health of children is still uncharted.

There are studies that show how parents' migration affects children's education. Absence of parents can bring psychological costs and change the decision-making process within the family, alter family responsibilities and possibly encourage children with migrant parents to spend less time on school-related activities. Children may abandon the learning process or have unsatisfactory results.

Studies that have focused on the impact of migration on school attendance indicate that children may feel abandoned, and make little progress at school. The biggest impact is on girls compared to boys and where parents are absent for relatively long periods of time. Children who were older when their parents emigrated were in greater danger of dropping out of school; and the lower the parent's income level, the higher the probability of disconnection from education, leading to the handing on of poverty through the generations, and increased vulnerability resulting from educational inequalities. Also, it is worth pointing out that father's migration increases the chance that their children will drop out of school; and the most affected are girls, especially those living in rural areas.

Studies show that the migration may also have positive effects on children. Thus, in most cases, the migration of the parents translates into an increase in the well-being of children. As other research has shown, parents' income is mainly used to improve living conditions and to buy long-term goods.

Among the negative effects, it should be noted that the absence of one parent usually causes the deterioration of the relationship of the child with the parent who is at home. The family is the source of support for children when they face a problem and the absence of a parent may cause psychological problems. So there are strong correlations between levels of child depression and absence of parents. Children also show high levels of headache, fatigue and lack of appetite. Parental absence negatively impacts on the child's cognitive-affective growth, education, and development

Separation from the family

In the sociological literature, the transnational family concept is used to describe the experience of families whose members are in at least two different states and communicate from a distance with each other. Migration may have both positive and negative effects. Thus, remittances from the parents have a positive impact on the quality of life, but negatively affect affective relationships.

Meanwhile, studies on the consequences of emigration to the parents left in the country of origin are mostly focused on the delivery of money from children and the way these remittances are managed by older parents (See Rapoport, H., Docquier, F, 2005: 8-10); on the problem of care and the health of older parents, problems caused by the absence of adult children.. Studies have shown that, on the one hand, remittances from emigrant children contribute to better health services for their elderly parents, but on the other hand, parental health can affect the immigration decisions of the children by affecting the attitude to returning (See: Giles, J. Mu, R., 2007: 265-88; Kuhn, R. et al., 2011: 183-209). Other studies have focused on how children's migration affects the mental health of the elderly, indicating that in most cases child migration increases feelings of loneliness and isolation among elderly parents left in the country of origin (Antman, FM, 2010).

Impact on economy

Migration has had a huge impact on the economy. This impact is mainly evaluated through remittance studies, which are incoming and outgoing inflows to / from abroad. Based on estimates by the Central Bank of Albania, the annual flow of remittances including those sent through formal and

informal channels, has increased significantly and in parallel with the growing number of migrants. The remittances of Albanian emigrants culminated in 2007 reaching \$ 1,305 million, from \$ 150 million in 1992 (up 870% over 18 years), representing about 12.5% of GDP (BoA, 2012, p.143). As a result of the recent financial and economic crisis, remittances have declined.

In micro terms, the most important role played by remittances so far has to do with economic survival and poverty alleviation for many Albanian families, especially during the first years of post-socialist transition. De Soto et al (2002) through a qualitative assessment of the phenomenon of poverty, conducted in 2001 in 10 regions of Albania, showed that remittances constitute one of the main factors that make the difference between 'poor' and 'not poor' family. A BB study (2007) showed the existence of a major change in consumption and poverty among households that have emigrant members in comparison to households that have not been affected by migration.

In macro terms, remittances have had a great positive impact on Albania's macroeconomic stability. They helped to consolidate the country's fiscal position and trade deficit. Remittances have strengthened the Albanian currency (Lek) against foreign currencies (Muco et al., 1999; de Zéager et al., 2005).

Stigmatization in host societies

Although the level of community consolidation and organization over the years has changed, many Albanians are still 'irregular' or 'undocumented' immigrants, especially in Greece and Italy, making it difficult for them to integrate.

The social stigmatization of Albanians in Italy and Greece and in some other European countries remains a widespread and rooted phenomenon. The political and media discourse of the 1990s, especially in Greece and Italy, has fuelled discrimination. According to Ferruccio Pastore, the perceptions of the Greek and Italian authorities of Albanian migration as a 'crisis' and a kind of desperate emergency have led to Albanians being portrayed as dangerous migrants coming from a country in crisis. Albanian migration is constantly associated with predictions of bankruptcy.

Above all, Albanians have been stigmatized and associated with criminality and moral degradation, in particular drugs, smuggling, violent behaviour and prostitution, and more generally poverty and misery. The experience of Albanians in Greece and Italy shows that "illegal Albanian emigrant" is a negative term documented and used instead of "the Albanian criminal." In fact, stigmatization functions as a mechanism of social exclusion.

More than 20 years ago, researcher Alfred Sauvy (1980) noted that the structure of the Albanian population was very different from that of all other European countries. This statement is still true, though the characteristics of the country's demography have changed, mainly due to migration. The dynamics of Albania's population and many aspects of demography such as life expectancy, infant mortality, and fertility differ from other countries.

.At a general level, emigration has interrupted the growth of the Albanian population. During the period 1950-90, the Albanian population grew 2-3% per year (from 3.0 percent in the 1950s, 2.7 percent in 1960, 2.3 percent in the 1970s, and 2.0 percent in the 1980s). During the 1990s (1989-2001) the population fell by 113,000 (-0.4 percent per year), due to massive emigration. Studies on birth and death reports suggest that with zero migration (as before 1990), the Albanian population would have increased by 500,000.

Migration has also caused changes in population density. Migration either internal or external caused the population from rural areas to move to large cities or abroad, and increased population density in more developed regions. One of the most worrying consequences of Albanian migration is the

profile of the population. Thus, migration distorts the age profile of Albanians, where there is a decline in the number of young people less than 15 years old (from 33.0 to 29.3 percent during 1989-2001) and an increase in those over 65 years (from 5.3 to 7.5%). An equally important change is the change in the working age population ratio.

Changes in demography are also observed in gender balances. The use of migration as a survival strategy is reflected in the removal of many boys and men, while the family of origin remains girls, women and the elderly.

1.19 The Albanian family in the scope of migration

The family is an important institution in Albania, and usually occupies an essential place in the migration process. Social structures are mainly patriarchal. In almost all cases, the person responsible for remittances and the administration of the entire family budget is the male head of the family. Women may have an important function in managing the material lives of the family, but do not participate in decision-making. Where young people migrate, and send remittances to the family, the dynamics of power and decision making may be disturbed. However, the father is usually the person who decides where and how the income will be spent 'for the benefit of the family'.

There are some regional differences in how the 'family' works. Northern Albania is known for its social and cultural conservatism, reflected in the presence of extended families and the persistence of customary law regulating the family life cycle, including in particular gender relations and extended family relationships.

1.20 European Integrity against Albanian Discrimination

Albanians have always dreamed of Europe. This has been shown by the phenomenon of migration and various sonatas with focus on these topics. Thus, 2012 polls concluded that 86.5% of Albanians would vote in favour of EU integration, the largest percentage compared to aspiring countries for EU integration.

But, irrespective of the great desire to be equal with European citizens, Albanian migrants have been faced with prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination that have hampered their activities and social and economic progress. Perceptions about Albanian emigrants have been largely influenced by media and negative political attitudes.

The negative stereotyping of Albanians led migrants to change their first Albanian names to names typical of the country to which they had migrated to help secure employment, especially in Greece and Italy. According to the literature on Albanian emigrants (Hatziprokopiou 2003, Pratsinakis 2005), changing names was a 'survival' strategy to cope with insecurity and social isolation encountered in hostile environments.

In Greece, the change of names can be understood in the context of the fundamental values of Christianity and the connection to the Greek national identity (Kitromilides 1983, Veremis 1983, 1990). Many Albanians have 'Muslim' names and encounter aggression for this reason.

Greece claimed that "the Albanians were not religious," but they were stigmatized fiercely within a rigid and strict Orthodox society, and so were forced to alienate elements of their identity. It is worth

noting that name change remained limited to their work environment; in their personal relationship, migrants called each other with their Albanian names.

Other “survival” strategies included striving to “make a good impression”. This continued effort to create a culturally and socially accepted image was the focus of interactions with the Greeks.

Stigmatization of Albanians has had a negative effect on household treatment at the institutional level. Many migrants were denied enrolment in kindergartens, or schools, and faced many challenges in employment or in the procedures for obtaining documentation. Despite the fact that migrants fulfilled their obligations, they never had equal rights with the local population. (Hatziprokopiou 2003, Pratsinakis 2005).

The Greek reaction to immigration has been driven largely by media, which have played a decisive role in modifying the images of Albania and Albanians. The media denigrated the Albanians by creating a series of negative stereotypes. Albanian migrants are presented as criminals, poor and backward by nature and destined to be traditional enemies because of their ethnicity and religion. The image for Albanians in Greece was related to cunning, primitiveness, unfaithfulness, and danger (Eickens 1999: 648). The theme of Albanian criminality is obsessively promoted by Greek media, rooted in public opinion. As the police and the courts tend to reflect the society’s general prejudice, Albanians have been disproportionately targeted, leading to a high number of reported arrests and imprisonment.

There are a number of reasons why attitudes towards immigrants have been very negative in Greece. First, Albanians are the largest immigrant group in Greece. Secondly, they also have a younger age profile than other groups of immigrants (de Zäager et al 2005, Glytsos 2005). Thirdly, most Albanian migrants have been boys and men, increasing misperceptions about their creating instability in society.

The main work that Albanians take on in Greece are in agriculture, as farm hands, and with livestock, in horticulture, greenhouses, and in tourism, as cleaners, kitchen staff, waiters, porters, gardeners, maintenance workers etc. In many cases these jobs are unsafe and require little or no qualification. Usually employers benefit from employing cheap migrant labour. For this reason, Albanian emigrants are regarded as incapable or unskilled, despite the fact that most of them are forced to take any work that is offered because of their vulnerable economic situation.

The negativity with which Albanians are perceived by Greek society is evident in terminology used, exclusion and persistent oppression. However, Albanian migrants have made efforts to integrate into society. Learning the Greek language, the development of personal relationships at work or in the neighbourhood, and the upgrading of professional profiles, have influenced Albanians to gradually become a dynamic part of Greek society (Hatziprokopiou 2003, 2006).

Even in Italy, integration for Albanians has been very difficult and discriminatory. As in the Greek case, the Italian response to immigration was prompted by the media through very negative propaganda (King and Mai 2002). In the press Albanians were portrayed as ‘ungrateful, lazy, and violent criminals’ (King et al., 2003). Albania and Albanian images were related to themes of violence, chaos, backwardness, poverty, depression, mass migration, child trafficking, prostitution, and family destruction - anything that implied the opposite of what was perceived as a good society. Despite the connection to criminality, there are no statistics to support this stereotype. Official sources report that Albanians are the group that is less convicted than other migrant groups.

To respond to prejudices and discrimination, Albanian migrants have set up their own organizations as a form of support, development of activities, to meet the needs and to preserve the language and cultural identity. Meanwhile, even Italy has become the first step in the integration of society against high expectations of racism.

1.21 Albanian Immigration, the failure of Mother land myth.

Some of the myths of Albanian emigration in the early 1990s were the myth of the future of children and the immediate return to their homeland. Almost all immigrants interviewed in Greece, Italy and Germany said that the main attraction factors were their desires to “provide better education for their children” and “make some money to meet their basic needs and to return home” (Barjaba, 2002, Barjaba, 1996). Upon reaching one of these goals, most of them planned to return to Albania.

Reality is rather different. Albanian migration researchers have assumed that potential rapid returns will not be the case for Albanian migration. King and Volunteer (2012) have noted that “Return is unlikely to happen to a significant extent for two main reasons. First, when migration a family home abroad is established, there is a need to support family income and build an education and future for children, which will come to an end when they return. Secondly, the Albanian economic environment is not conducive to job seekers or returnees who want to open a business. This hypothesis is confirmed by the fact that despite the early expectations of Albanian emigrants, the country experienced a delay in the return of successful immigrants.

Most of the returned migrants belong to the period following the economic crisis of 2008, where about a third of migrants, especially from Greece, are again settled in Albania, some of whom without the usual pre-crisis savings. Returning Albanian migrants have played an important role in delivering remittances, self-employment, and opening small businesses.

Returnees in Albania were mainly migrants who lost their jobs in the country of destination but also immigrants who came back with a plan to invest in Albania. In general, the flow of successful returnees has been less than those who returned due to difficulties abroad. Returnees are not always those who return at the end of the migration project to invest in their country of origin; on the contrary, they are often highly qualified migrants or indeed whole families who have not found success in the foreign labour market. Returning, they make an attempt to settle back home, but may plan return to the country of emigration.

Returning to Albania for many individuals is an event characterised by insecurity, reintegration problems, and disappointment and complex challenges. The greatest difficulty in returning to the country lies with the children. Many studies have shown that these children due to cultural differences, language problems, difficulties with belonging, face feelings of isolation and exclusion, psychological problems, and schooling difficulties. Children have also faced the experiences of racism and discrimination (Vathi and Duci 2016).

The geographic relocation model for migrants returning to Albania shows they focus on regions with better socio-economic conditions - mostly in Tirana (the city where this research was conducted) (INSTAT & IOM 2014). Studies have shown that migrant return may be positive because of capital investment or behavioural experience and new ideas but may have a negative connotation associated with the idea that return has come as a result of “failure”, maltreatment, retirement or nostalgia. The sustainable character of returning migrants remains questionable, thus posing the assumption that Migration is a persistent dream of Albanians.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Purpose of the study

Research and study on the effects of migration on populations has grown tremendously in recent years, showing that migration affects the individual psychosocial health and well-being. (Kratz, 2018) Studies about migration conducted on the Albanian population have been scarce and only literarily.

This study aims to provide a better contextual understanding of Albanian migration, quality of life, hope and life satisfaction. Interviews and focus groups aim to provide more information about the push and pull factors of migration and to observe other possible variables related to this phenomenon.

2.2 Design of the study

The design of this study includes quantitative and qualitative research, thus providing a deeper understanding of the issues. This study includes focus groups, individual interviews, and questionnaires. Interviews, focus groups and migration questionnaires were constructed based on literary review and background research and pertinent observations from a multidimensional team to focus on the most important issues in rural and urban areas of Albania. The regions studied were Tirana, Vlora, Fier, Lushnja, Korca, Saranda, Lezha, Shkodra, Puka, Pogradec, and Fushë-Arrëz.

2.3 Instruments

2.3.1 Migration Questionnaire

The migration questionnaire is a self-designed questionnaire that was generated on the basis of preliminary assessments, interviews and focus groups. The instrument consists of 31 questions that are structured in 4 main dimensions; demographic data, migration, history and country assessment. The country assessment category is measured with a 4 points Likert scale while other categories have response options of “Yes”, “No”, or “I do not have such experience.” The instrument is reliable by reporting the Cronabach Alpha cut-off of 0.622

2.3.2 Questionnaire on the quality of life of the World Health Organization (brief- version)

The questionnaire created by WHO is an applicable and culturally adaptable instrument to measure the quality of life. This instrument contains 26 short-answer questions and consists of 4 sub-categories: a) Physical Health (includes daily life activities, medical dependence, medical help, energy and fatigue,

pain and discomfort, sleep and rest), b) Psychological Health (positive feelings, negative feelings, self-image, appearance, self-esteem, religious engagement and spirituality, thinking, learning, memory and concentration), c) Social Relationships (personal relationships, social and sexual activity), and d) Environment (financial resources, freedom, physical security, health, quality of life, access to information and skills, transportation, and leisure activities).

The measurement scale is a Likert scale from 1 to 5, (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree) depending on the instrument's questions. This is a reliable tool that measures the quality of life, individual perceptions about culture, value system personal goals and individual concerns. The Cronbach alpha for this instrument is 0.858. (Who, 1996)

2.3.3 Satisfaction with life scale (SPE, Pivot and Diener 2008)

The life satisfaction questionnaire is a short instrument designed to measure cognitive judgments about the pleasure that an individual receives from life. The instrument is made up of 5 questions which are considered to be good measures of suicide attempts and mental health concerns. The response format on this instrument is a Likert scale from 1 to 7, where 5 is the minimum number of points and 35 is the maximum. The neutral score level is 20. Scores below 9 points indicate extreme resentment of life and scores over 31 points show great enjoyment of life. This instrument is reliable and has a high internal consistency reporting Cronbach Alpha of 0.867.

2.3.4 Adult Hope Scale (AHS, Snyder et al 1991)

The questionnaire is designed to measure the level of hope in adults. This instrument was developed by Snyder's Cognitive Model of Hope in 1991. The questionnaire contains 12 questions divided into sections about individuals' plans and objectives. Each sub-scale consists of 4 questions and the remaining 4 questions have complementary goals. The measuring scale of the instrument is a Likert scale with 8 sub divisions where 1 is "absolutely false" and 8 is "absolutely true." High points in this instrument are associated with better performance academically, better mental health, and better physical health. Hopefulness is a strong predictor of individual failure in holistic terms. The Cronbach Alpha for this instrument is 0.726,

2.3.5 Focus Group

In addition to the quantitative method of the study, qualitative analysis was conducted through focus groups and interviews in different cities of Albania to understand, in broader context, the potential factors affecting the comprehensive migration phenomenon. Focus groups were led by a multidimensional team of Mary Ward Loreto Foundation staff, who co-ordinated and recruited participants in predefined areas. The process of organizing the focus groups took place in two main phases.

The first phase involved identifying major issues related to migration, quality of life, level of hope, and life satisfaction in selected communities. After identifying key issues, in line with the focus of the study and literature, focus group questions were drafted.

The second phase was focus group development, moderated by one of the trained team members. Each individual was given the right to speak and given time to participate fully. In total, 9 focus groups were conducted with the participation of 94 individuals, with the average age of 36.7 years old. Focus groups consisted predominantly of men, with 71 male participants and 23 female participants.

2.3.6 Interviews

20 interviews were conducted with an average duration of 60 minutes with individuals who had previously agreed to discuss the topic of the study. The process of selecting individuals was random, taking into account the inclusion of different ages and equal study and participation among the sexes. The interviews were conducted in all selected cities for the study. The participants were asked to participate and the interviews took place in appropriate conditions for interviews. The participants were asked to be audio recorded. 5 chose not to be audio recorded, but did agree to their data and information being used for analysis in the study. Interviews were conducted with 8 women and 12 men, the average age was 34.3 years old. The participants were of different professions and with different levels of education.

The interview questions were open and neutral, encouraging participants to express their experiences and perspectives. The unstructured interviews allowed for a large amount of information since the interviews took the form of an open chat and the interviewer had the opportunity to explore fully. Interviews focused on identifying major immigration issues, driving and attracting factors, identifying issues related to human trafficking, moving modes, country and sectoral assessment, quality of life, and suggestion of possible changes to improve the situation.

3 interviews were conducted with social science specialists to analyze the phenomenon of migration in complexity, specifically with a professor of psychology, Dr. Livia Nano; a professor of political science, Dr. Arlind Qorri; and a professor of sociology, Prof. Dr. Zyhdi Dervishi. The interview with Dr. Livia Nano focused on a deeper understanding of migration experiences and desires, and the current situation's effect on psychological health as well as factors that undermine the positive development of young people in Albania. The interview with Dr. Arlind Qorri aimed at assessing current Albanian politics and an assessment of the role of the political class in this phenomenon, as well as the change of the value system. The interview with Prof. Dr. Zyhdi Dervishi aimed at explaining social factors that influence the promotion of migration tendencies.

2.4 Participants

Recruitment and Criteria

The selection format in quantitative terms is random, where each individual can voluntarily become part of the study by meeting the criteria set. About 1,105 individuals participated in this study, who were given the questionnaire in the printed format as well as online through Google Drive. The inclusion criteria set out to be part of the study were:

- a) be an Albanian citizen,
- b) be able to read and understand the Albanian language,
- c) be between 18 and 65 years of age,
- d) not reporting psychiatric disorders that may interfere with the development of the study,
- e) be a current resident of Albania

According to the World Bank Organization (www.worldbank.org) and Eurostat (ecc.europa.eu), Albania's population for 2017 is 2,873,460 inhabitants. Based on statistical sample size in the Albanian population with a confidence level of 95% and error interval of 3%, the selected sample should be 1,067 individuals. To have this number of participants, around 1,400 were originally distributed, with about 295 questionnaires invalid.

2.5 Procedure, Ethics and Permission

2.5.1 Ethical Principles and Permits

Participants in the study were given clear and verbal explanation of the purpose of the study and gave informed consent that their participation was voluntary and that they would have no consequence in the case of their withdrawal from completing the questionnaire, interview or focus group. Mary Ward Loreto ad-hoc staff provided institutional verbal permits from respective Municipalities and local partner organizations such as QSNN Fushë Arrëz, Atelie Shkodër Youth Center, Discover Puka Group, Kallmet Administrative Unit, Dushaj Administrative Unit, and Museum Historical Lushnjë to use premises to organize the administration of study instruments.

All participants were ensured anonymity and confidentiality of the data. Respondents were informed that the study did not pose any risk as they had the right to ask questions and to not answer questions at their own discretion. In conclusion, this study does not violate ethical principles for data collection.

2.5.2 Procedures

The questionnaire used was a combination of 3 other English questionnaires with relevant focuses. 2 of these questionnaires had free access and 1 needed permission granted for use. For the questionnaire of the World Health Organization for Quality of Life, permission was required for use. After confirming the permit, Mrs. Dolores Campanario, representative of the World Health Organization, sent a guide on how to translate and use the instrument.

The translation of the instruments was conducted by 4 individuals, 2 were English language professors, 1 was a lawyer and 1 was a psychologist. They collaborated to create a final translated version. The translation of the World Health Organization's questionnaire was based on the guidelines that were sent in addition to the use permit.

2.5.3 Limits

The instruments used in this study, although they have an international understanding context, are not specifically geared towards Albanian culture and society. This lack of cultural context can be considered a limit of the study.

2.5.4 Piloting

Instruments were piloted in several areas of Albania, rural and urban, such as Lezha, Tirana Puka, and Lushnja with a sample of (N = 100). Piloting would enable us to evaluate different interventions in the questionnaire. After evaluating and receiving feedback from the participants, changes and improvements were made to the forms (for example, reformulating questions, removing and adding questions). Instruments were reassessed until the formation of a final format.

2.6 Hypotheses

Based on the literature and the preliminary data (not the main study), the following hypotheses have been raised:

- a) Based on the trend of data, high levels of desire to leave the country for developed countries are expected.
- b) High levels of willingness to leave will be associated with negative country ratings, low income level, poor quality of life, and low levels of life satisfaction.
- c) Lack of hope and security will be a significant factor in the desire to leave.
- d) The presence of organized criminal groups of trafficking in human beings will be evidenced most in rural areas compared to urban areas.
- e) Low levels of life satisfaction, and lack of hope will be associated with low level in the quality of life instrument.

CHAPTER III

DATA ANALYSIS

3.1 Demographic analysis

We began by extracting data from the SPSS version, 21 statistical programs and then we analyzed it. We transcribed data from interviews and focus groups and created the variables needed for each instrument. We applied what was the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, which tests the reliability of the instruments used. The fourth instruments had a very high alpha coefficient.

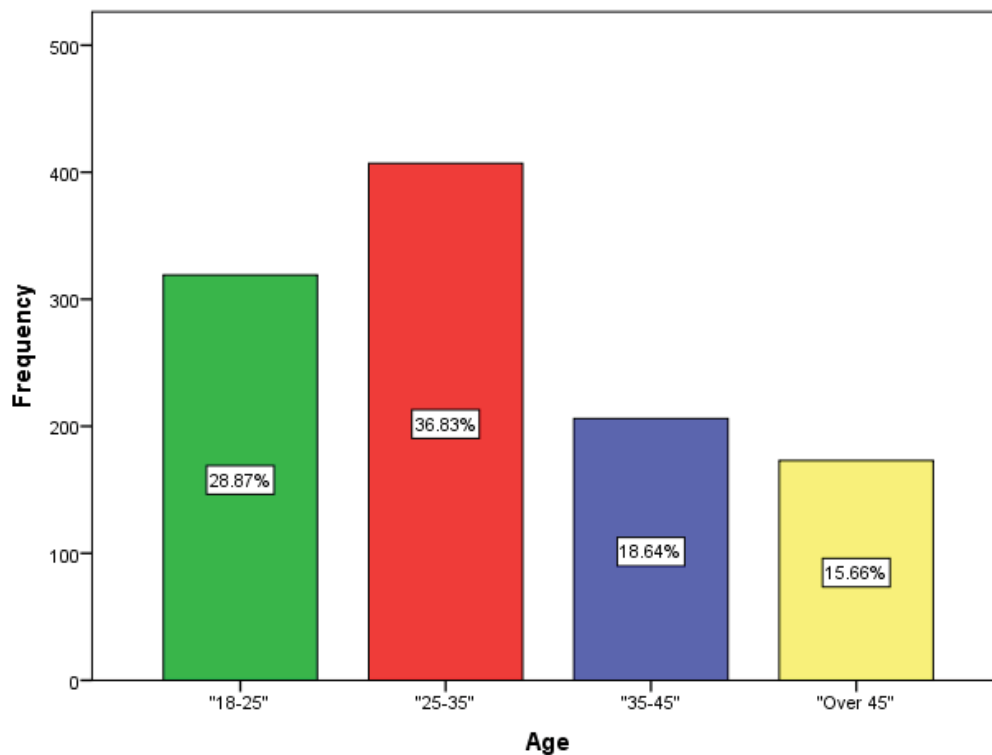


Figure 1: Age

The study included all ages from age 18 to age 65 years (N = 1105 individuals). The results show that: 36.83% (N = 407) were aged 25 to 35: 28.87% (N = 309) were aged 18 to 25 years: 18.64% (N = 206) were aged 35 to 45: 15.66% (N = 173) were aged over 45 years.

The gender distribution in this study is almost equal: 47.33% (N = 523) were boys and men and 52.67% (N = 582) were girls and women.

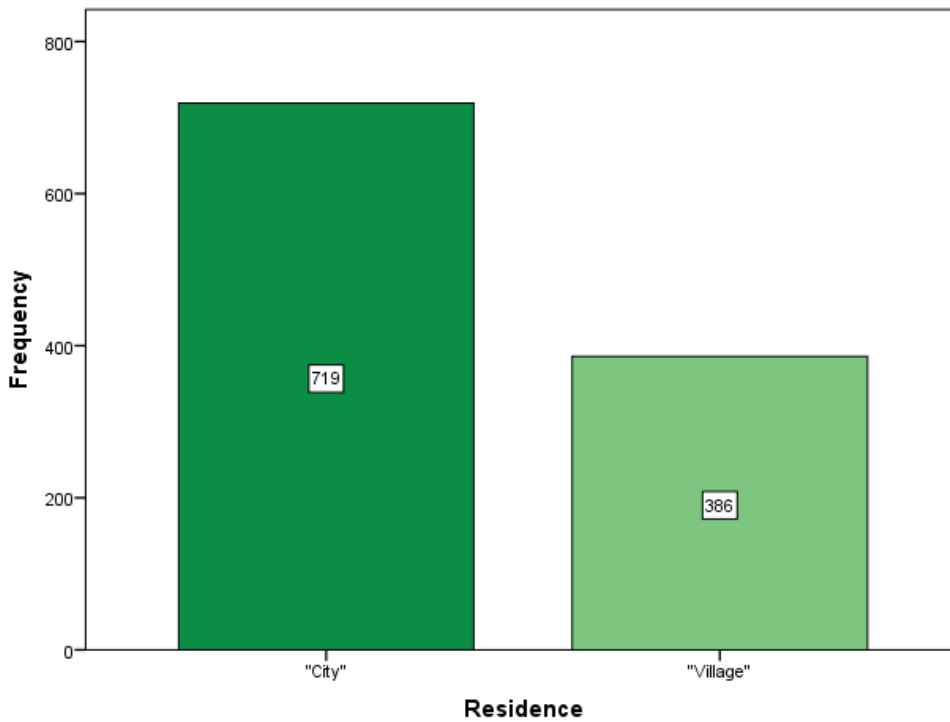


Figure 2: residence

The majority of participants came from urban areas 65.1% (N = 719). A minority 34.9% (N = 386) came from rural areas. Actually, there are 56.6% (N=625) individuals who are experiencing economic instability in their life, 31.8% consider themselves economically stable and solely 9.8% are reporting

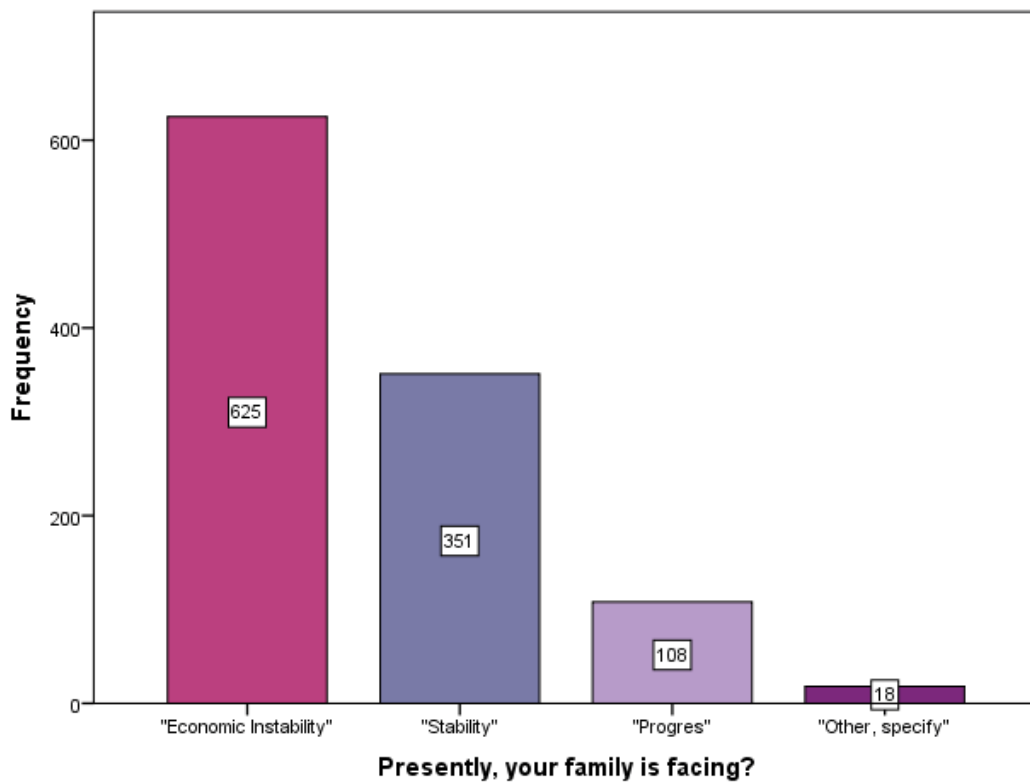


Figure 3: Economic Status

progress in their economic status. In the “other” category, the respondents were required to further assess their status and by the result, it is shown that 1.6% are facing extreme poverty.

Regarding levels of education: 9.2% (N = 102) were educated to primary level: 39.1% (N = 432) to secondary level: 51.7% (N = 571) to higher education level i.e. most of the sample had completed higher education (professional and scientific).

Participants were asked to indicate their profession, based on the list in the questionnaire. These included: social and educational (eg journalist, psychologist, social animator, administration etc.): economic (eg accountant, entrepreneur, private business, economist, etc.): legal (eg consultant, lawyer, lawyer): medical (eg health worker, nurse, physician and health care.): engineering (mechanic, engineer, technician, IT, programming etc.): construction and agronomy (construction, physical work, agronomy, etc.): “other” category The category “other” includes free-lancing professions such as students, individuals working in call centres, agency operators, waiters, bartenders, etc.

The results showed that most people (42.1% (N = 465) classified themselves as “other”): social 16.9% (N = 187): economic 10.0 (N = 111): medical 6.6% = 73): construction 5.5% (N = 61): legal 6.3% (N = 70): engineering 12.5% (N = 138).

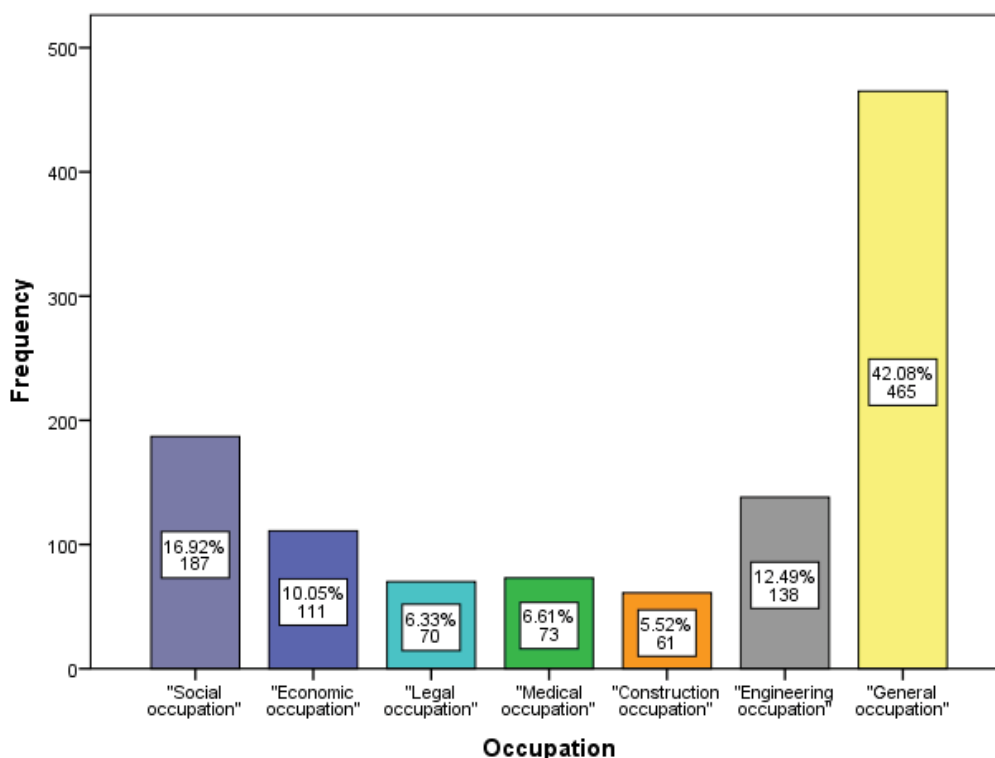


Figure 4: Occupation

The data analysis shows that the bulk of the sample have higher education - 51.7% (N = 571): 39.1% (N = 432) have secondary education and only 9.2% (N = 102) have primary education. Regarding marital status: 49.1% (N = 543) of the sample were single: 47.1% (N = 521) were married: 1.6% (N = 18) were widowed : 2.1% (N = 23) were divorced.

In this study, the incomes were analyzed by dividing into three levels, taking into account the minimum wage and the taxable salary level. To simplify this, monetary values are expressed as US dollars (\$). The level of income refers to household income.

The data shows that 48.6% (N = 537) of households live on less than \$ 250 per month: 43.44% (N =

480) live on less than \$ 250-600 per month. Only 7,964 % (N = 88) have a family income over \$ 600 per month.

The results show that 49.2% (N = 544) are employed and 49.8% (N = 550) are unemployed. Retiree make up 1% (N = 11) of the respondents taking part into study.

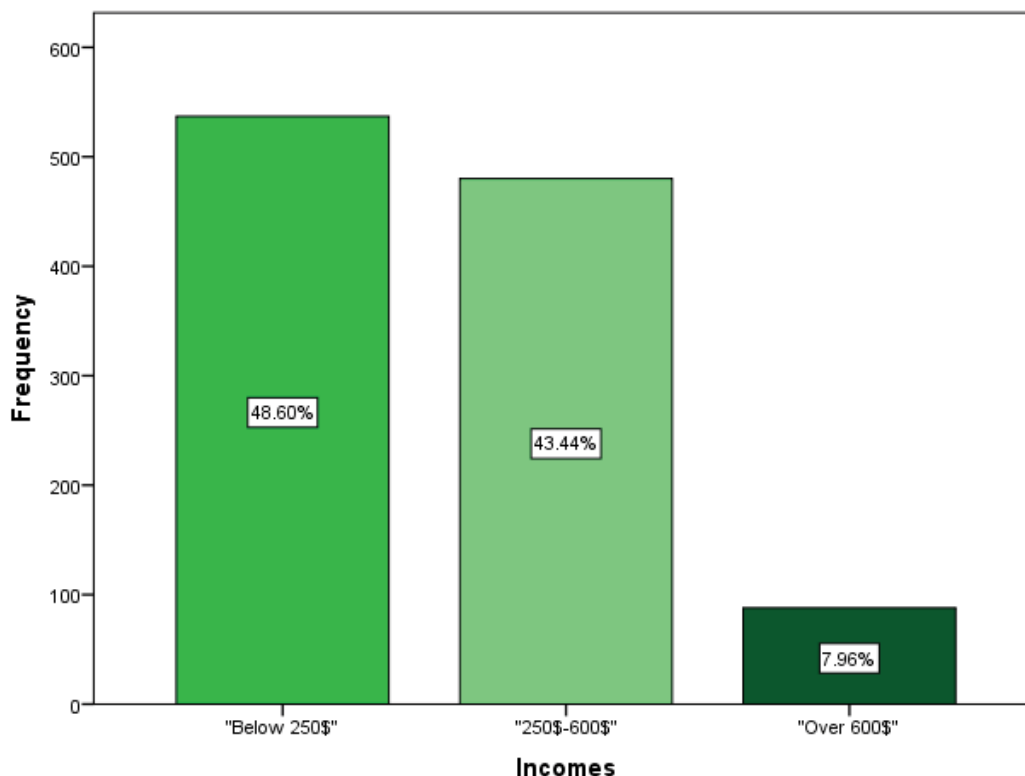


Figure 5: INCOMES

3.2 Descriptive data analysis

Previous Emigration

Participants were asked a series of questions about whether they had previously migrated: different ways of emigration: if they had paid bribes to emigrate: if they had been deported; if they had ever risked life trying to emigrate.

Results showed that 37.92% (N = 419) had emigrated previously and 62.08% (N = 686) had not migrated previously. From 91'-08 illegal migration was most widespread because it was difficult to get a visa. Results show that 46.6% emigrated illegally: 30.7% emigrated with a work contract: others migrated for scholarships and family reunions.

Also, 34.1% (N =142) of persons who previously emigrated had risked their lives trying to cross the border. Focus groups and interviews provided information about the dangers of illegal emigration which included:

The risk of illegal emigration

Not crossing at official border points but followed mountain tracks, back roads and sea crossings, using false documentation and bribing guards at border crossings. The main hazards faced were:

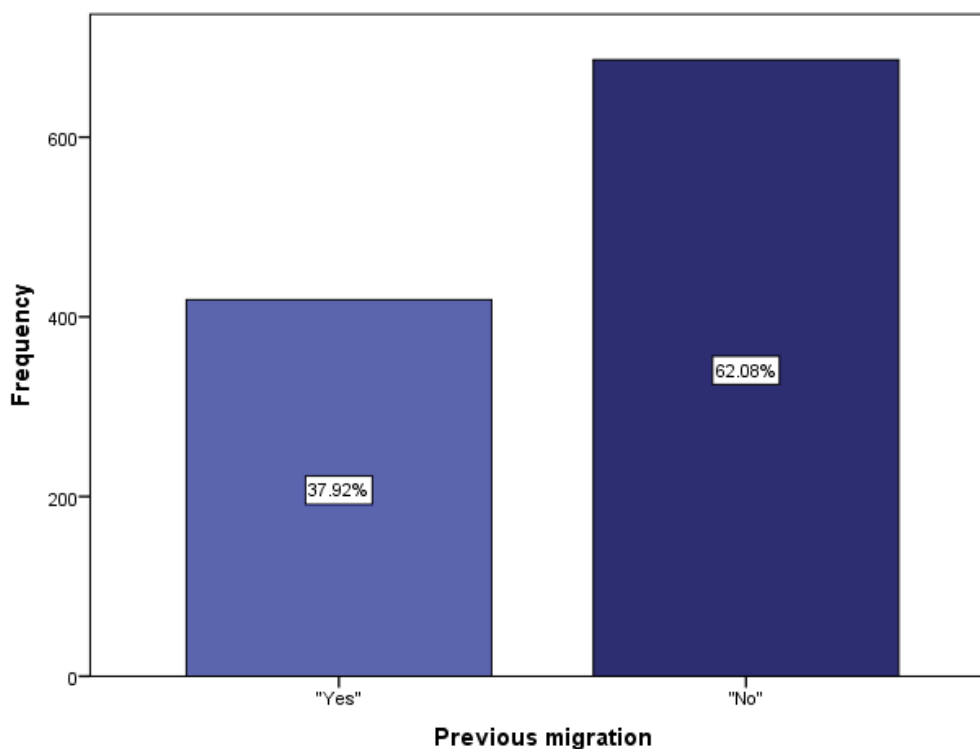


Figure 6: PREVIOUS MIGRATION

- a) climatic conditions where deaths were reported mainly by hypothermia;
- b) weapons attacks by armies of neighbouring countries;
- c) confronting wildlife;
- d) road hazards (eg drowning in the river etc);
- e) arrest by police carrying out inspections of cars where individuals were hiding.
- f) hiding in boats and trucks which are packed to bursting point by traffickers in order to maximize their profits, and who ignore the possible consequences. Overloading causes sluggishness in the speed of the journey, especially when the vehicle or ship has become a police target. Under these conditions, traffickers have forced individuals to jump into the open sea.
- g) Individuals travelling alone, the elderly, and the sick are particularly vulnerable. Women and girls are in danger of sexual exploitation. This form of trafficking has been widespread in South-West Albania.
- h) Bribery or possession of bogus documentation, which although not posing a risk to life, resulted in being arrested and imprisoned. There were consistent reports of criminal gangs providing bogus documentation, with corrupt state institutions turning a blind eye e.g. crossing of the border in trucks, hiding inside the cargo.

3.3 Current Emigration

Currently, in Albania, frequency analysis shows that 83.86% of participants want to leave their country and 16.14% do not want to leave.

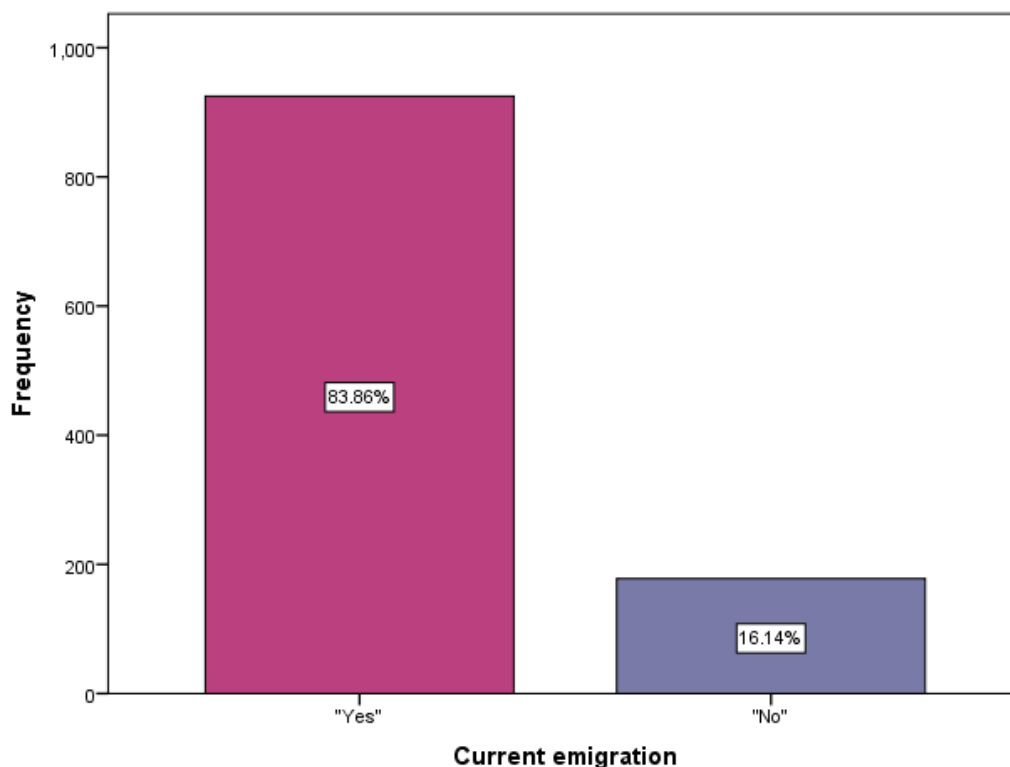


Figure 7: CURRENT MIGRATION

Statistical analyses show that both women and men are equal in their desire to leave. This is unlike traditional forms of emigration.

Table 1: Current emigration

	Yes	No	Total
Men and Boys	442	81	523
Women and girls	483	97	580
Total	925	178	1103

More unmarried people want to leave 51.6% (N = 478), compared with married people 44.9% (N = 416). Married women account for 58.4% (N = 104) of the group who do not want to leave (from the sample of 178 individuals).

Regarding the residence data, there was little difference between people living in urban areas who wanted to leave 86% (N = 617) and rural areas 79.7% (N = 308). Data extracted from the target group of individuals who wants to leave, it shows that 62% of them are facing economic instability, 8.4% of are experiencing progress and only, 27.9% are facing stability. In addition, a positive correlation was found between economic status and the desire to leave $r=.414, p=.000$.

Regarding the level of education and the desire to leave, 9.1% (N = 85) had elementary education, 38.4% (N = 356): had secondary education: 52.3% (N = 484) had higher education.

Both employed and unemployed people want to leave the country, mainly to go to developed countries. Specifically, 47.5% (N = 443) of the people who want to leave are employed and 51.5% (N = 477) are unemployed

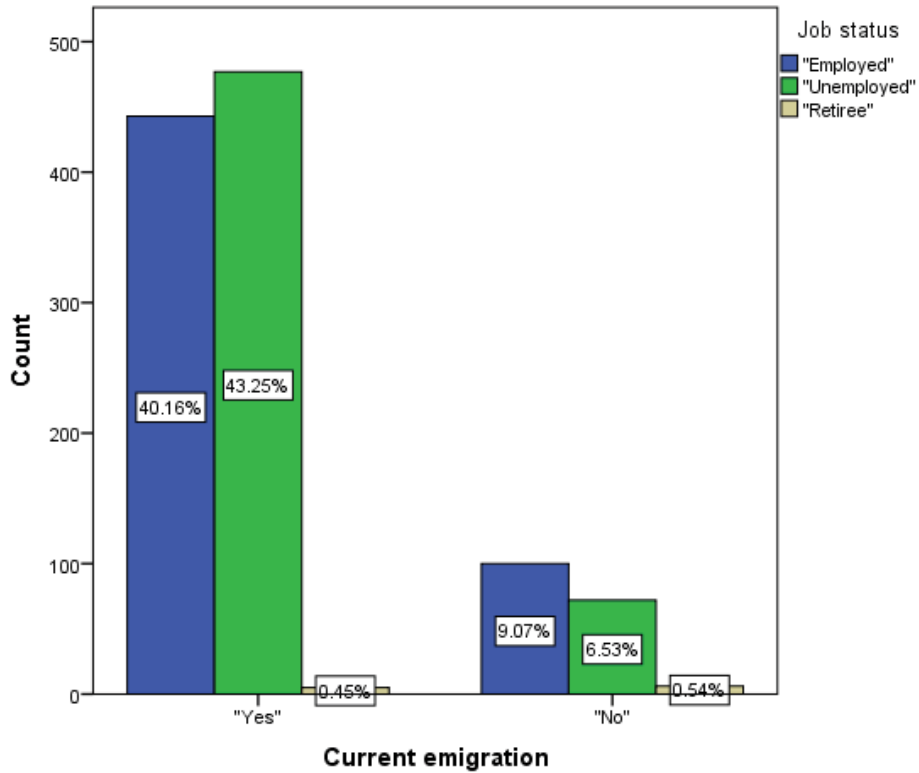


Figure 8: Employment status and emigration

The data in the chart below shows the desire to leave based on the different occupations of the participants. The majority are students who are currently working in 'non-graduate' jobs e.g. as a waitress or in a call centre. Next, come individuals from social professions and these are followed by engineering-focused professions.

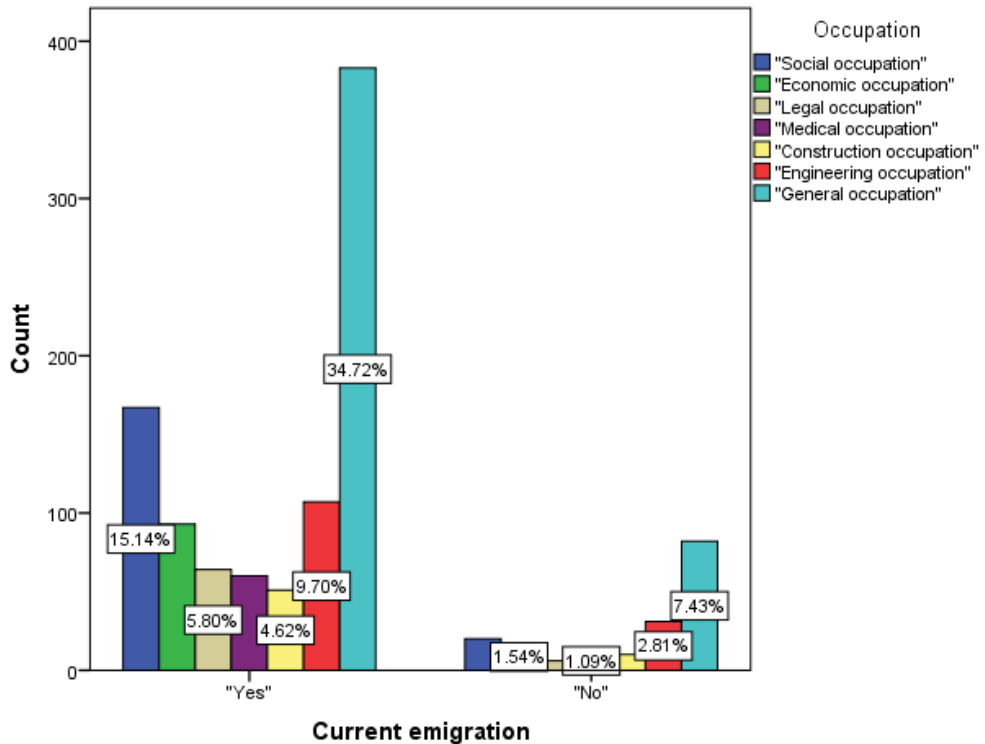


Figure 9: OCCUPATION AND EMIGRATION

Finally, based on income levels, individuals with lower incomes make up the majority of individuals who want to leave. The correlative analysis was performed to look at possible associations but it did not result in any significant correlation. Furthermore, the previous emigration does not affect the actual desire to leave the country. Approximately 89.4% (N=76) who have experienced deportation previously, desire to leave despite legal penalties

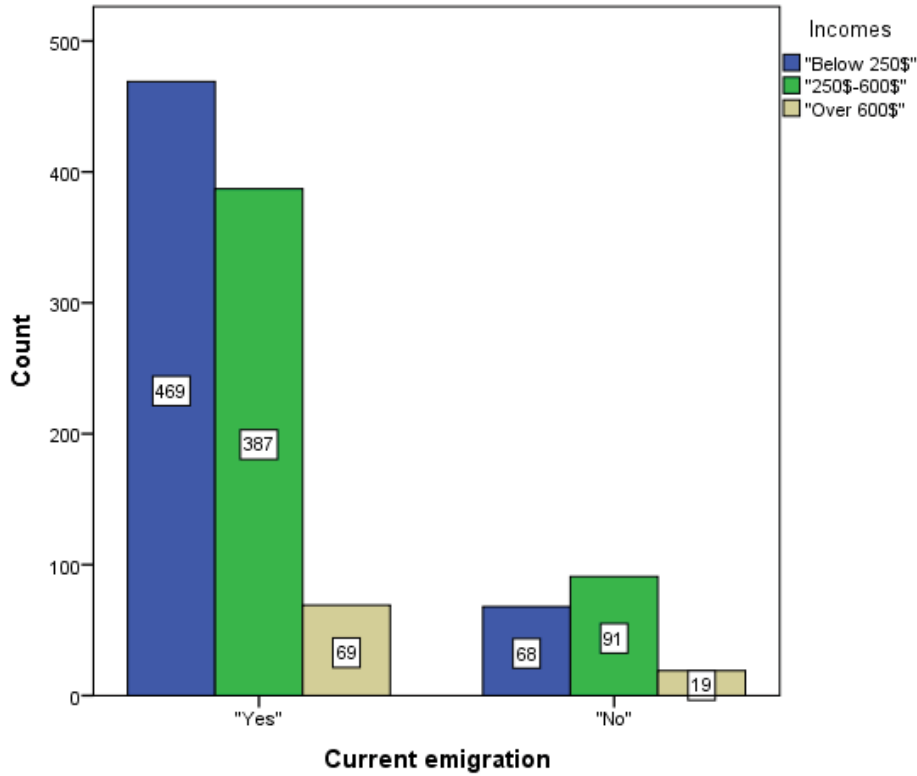


Figure 10: Employment and incomes

3.4 Influencing factors in migration

Participants were asked why they wanted to leave Albania, and they indicated that there are many factors that affect the great desire to emigrate. Around 84.9% (N = 786) wanted to leave for socio-economic reasons, including unemployment, lack of basic services and poor standard of living. It results that 5% (N = 47) wanted a higher level of education that is available in Albania. In addition, 4.8% (N = 45) wanted to leave for political reasons and 2.7% (N = 25) want a more specialized health service. Only, 1.9% (N = 18) have selected “other” and it results that the most prevalent reason for leaving was lack of security for their life.

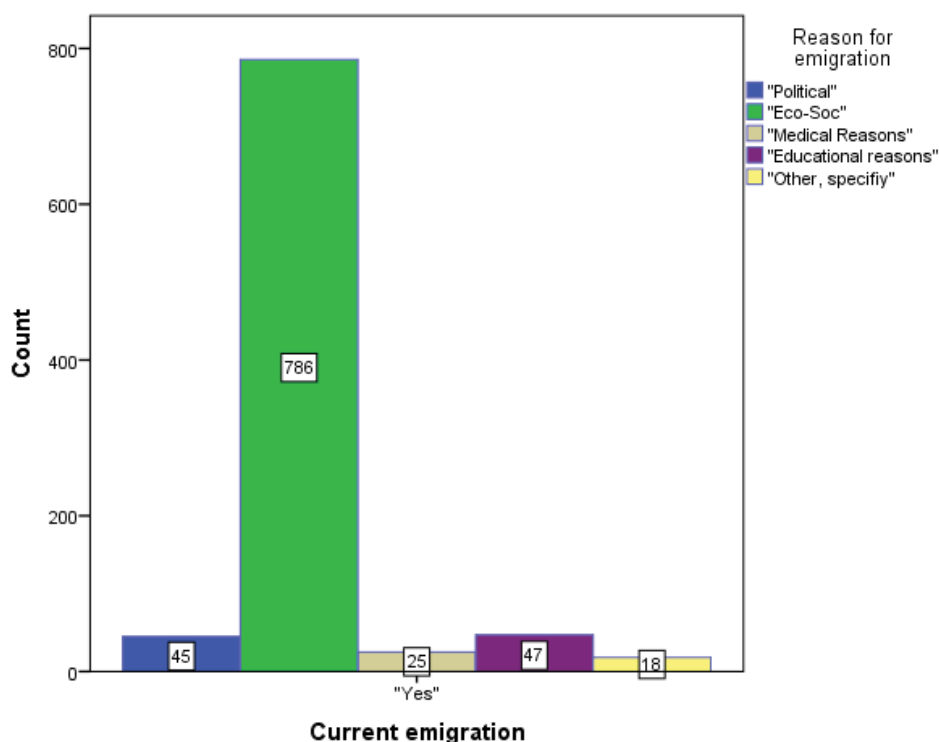


Figure 11: Reasons for Emigration

3.5 Qualitative analysis of current migration

Qualitative analysis of interviews and focus groups is in line with the quantitative analysis. As it shows, 84.9% of Albanians want to leave for socio-economic reasons. People said that it was difficult to get a job because of nepotism, corruption and bureaucracy. Employment is the main problem and respondents provided details of their experiences. Below are detailed, consistent and prevalent responses of focus groups and interviews:

“To ensure a job you have to have either a friend or money, there may be no other” cited from the interviewer in Vlora.

The participants said consistently that to find a job you have to have a friend or you have to pay to get the job you want. Work is considered a privilege which is in the hands of the person who runs the organisation. Clearly, recruitment and appointment into job vacancies are not based on merit and that even in cases when competitions are being held, they are fictitious because the person has been chosen in advance.

Buying a job is a phenomenon that is widespread in both urban and rural areas. The level of payment depends on the position and is estimated to range from a minimum 2000 Euro to over 5000 Euros. For areas like Tirana, Fieri, Vlora, payments are even higher.

Identified problems include bad debts, non-payment, miserable labour conditions, disrespect of employee rights, lack of work safety, non-payment of social security and health or payment on a minimum wage basis. Particularly, in factories and in the oil and mining sector, employees work overtime, with minimal payments and with poor health and safety conditions.

Institutional corruption and poor quality of service are reported to be factors influencing the growing desire to leave. A lack of hope for change, development, justice and a better future are the main reasons for people wanting to leave.

3.6 Country Assessment

Participants in the survey were asked about their assessment of 5 key categories of Albania's services: governance and policy, care and health, justice, education and social services. They were also asked whether they felt safe and secure in Albania. The results were that 48.69% think that Albanian politics has done a very bad job and 28.51% think it has done a bad job. Only 3.8% think Albania has done a good job.

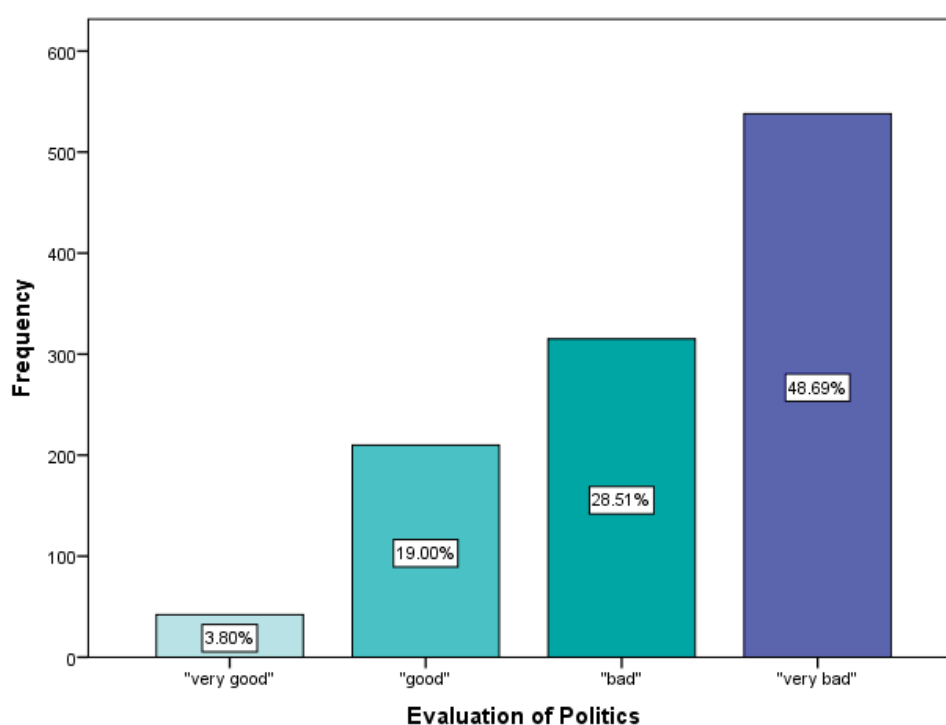


Figure 12: EVALUATION OF POLITICS

They said that policies are incapable of providing long-term solutions and creating development programs and that corruption and the ideology of the political class during the post-communist era have made the state of the country even worse.

The Albanian justice rating goes hand in hand with policy appraisal. About 49.77% of participants believe that justice is in a very bad state and 32.67% assess the state of justice as bad. The following chart is a response from the participants.

Qualitative analysis from focus groups and interviews indicates that Albanian justice is in a miserable state. Lack of law enforcement, high levels of corruption and bad policy-making are the main factors affecting the current justice situation. During the interviews, it was emphasized that only ordinary and poor people were condemned by the justice system. High levels of dissatisfaction from this sector are reported by all participants in interviews and focus groups.

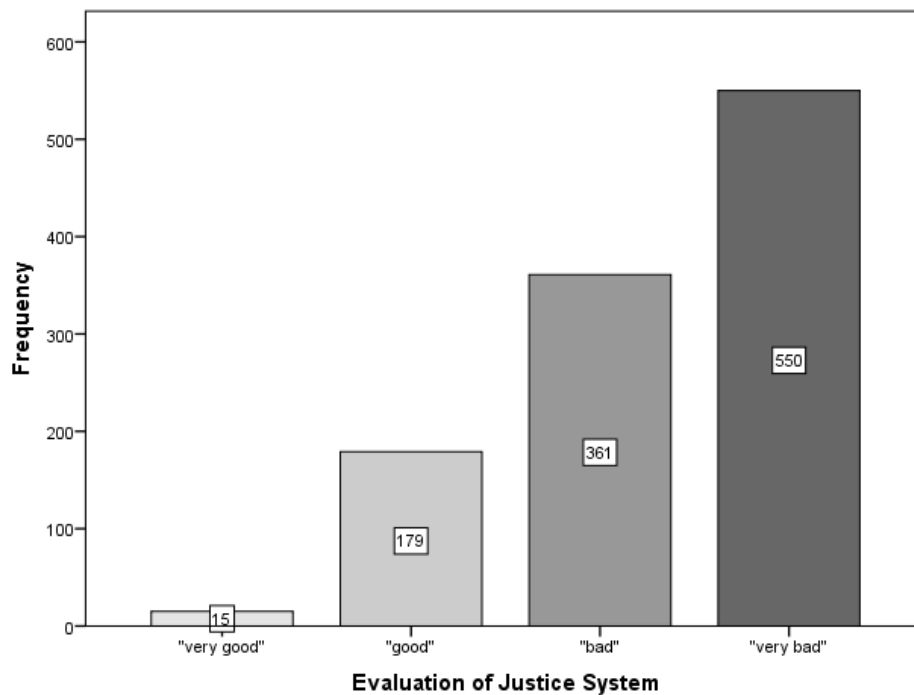


Figure 13: EVALUATION OF JUSTICE SYSTEM

The health assessment is shown in the chart below. 41.76% of respondents think that Albanian health is in very bad condition.

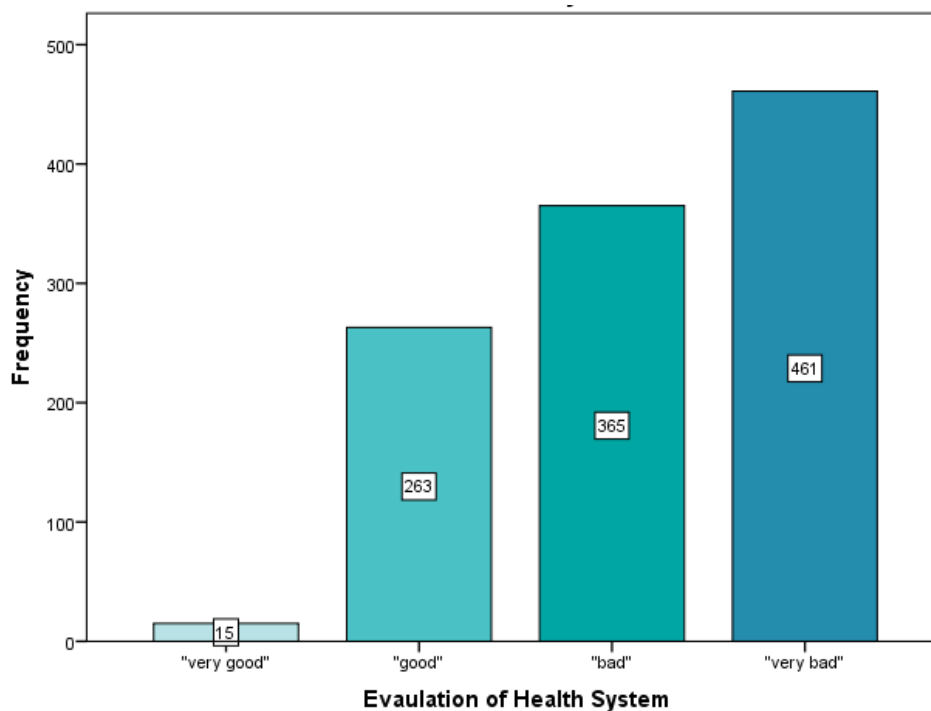


Figure 14: EVALUATION OF HEALTH SYSTEM

The responses of patients tended to be more positive than their relatives. Family members were more critical of bad conditions than patients. They cited a lack of medicines, bribes, doctors arrogance, and the level of skills of doctors and nurses. These negative assessments by families can be related to

other factors that remain to be evaluated.

Opinions of the education system fall into three parts. 34.33% rate education as very bad, 30% evaluate it as bad and 32.88% rate it very well. This topic was examined in detail during interviews and focus groups and they held the same views. Individuals who rated education negatively referred to the miserable infrastructural, curriculum, and general level of teaching. Meanwhile, individuals who rated it positively referred more to their own experience of a specific teacher with his/her level, engagement, or dedication, or a specific school.

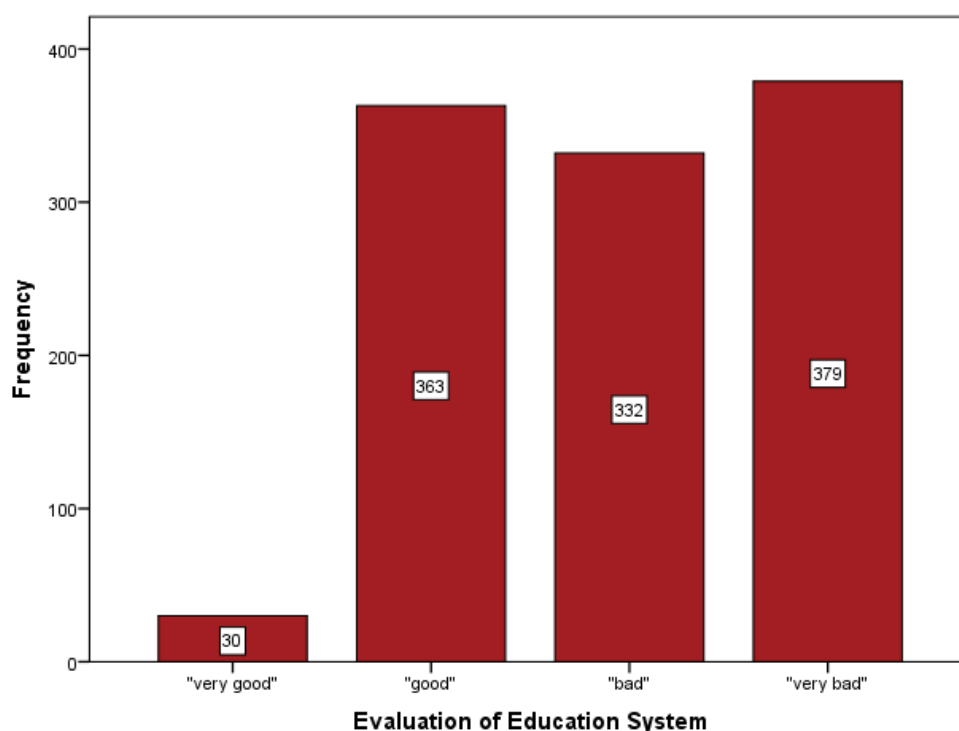


Figure 15: EVALUATION OF EDUCATION SYSTEM

Social Services in Albania were negatively assessed by 71.22% of respondents. Qualitative analysis showed that these services are often denied and service quality is too weak. There is a large level of bureaucracy and militancy in these services.

The chart below demonstrates how Albanians feel insecure in their country regarding their future. The results show alarming levels of insecurity

Specifically, 78.5% do not feel secure in Albania. Asked about the reasons, they reported that this is related to the high levels of non-punishment of criminals (possibly due to corruption in the courts). This figure is influenced by media and media coverage of criminal events at all times. The increase in crime, the failure to find the perpetrators of crimes, and the lack of convictions give rise to an increase in the level of uncertainty. An interviewee said:

"I am agitated by the powerlessness to change this situation, it is absurd how some individuals are holding this country hostage "- interviewed in Pogradec.

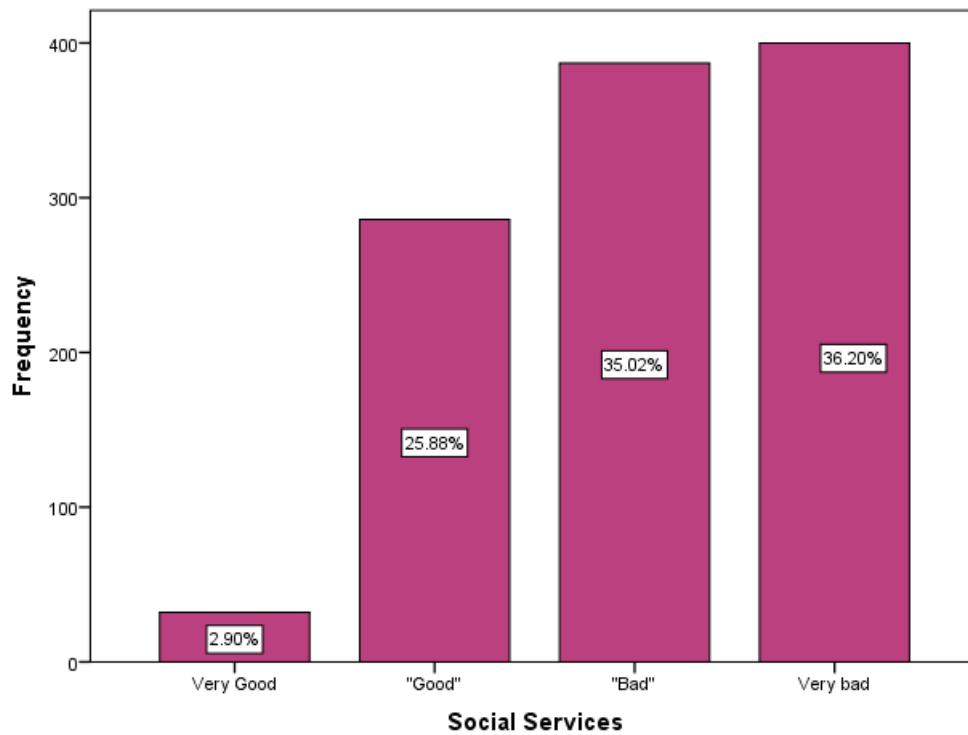


Figure 16: EVALUATION OF SOCIAL SERVICES

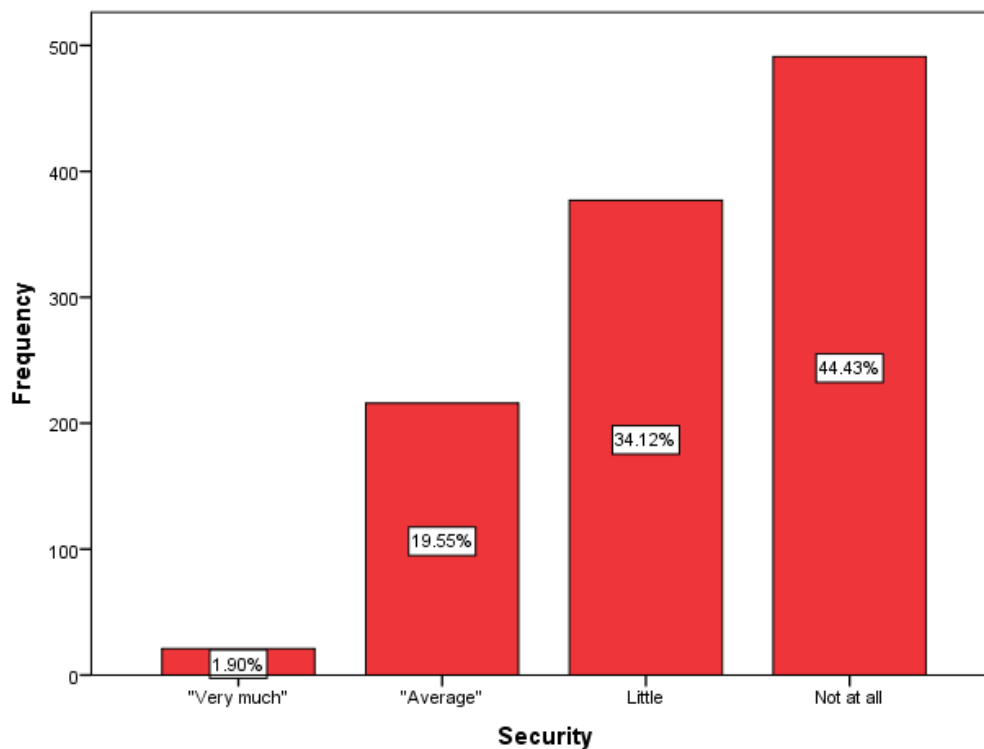


Figure 17: EVALUATION OF SECURITY

3.7 Information about migration.

Participants approached migration in an unsafe way. They focus on methods of illegal migration rather than conditions for residency, finding employment and the way of life and activities they will experience in the country of destination.

Information about migration is largely is mainly found through on online searches, or by asking contacts who live outside Albania. Interest has increased in employment and recruitment agencies that operate through payments. Respondents told us that these agencies offer both real and fictitious/ fraudulent work contracts.

Albanians report having average access to information about migration. Urban areas have more information than rural areas. The age group that has the most access to information is between 18 and 35 years old. There are no differences in the information available to women and men.

3.8 Level of satisfaction with life

Albanians are perceived to be significantly less satisfied with the life that is perceived by people from many other countries.

Table 2: Satisfaction With Life

	Descriptive Data			
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Satisfaction with life	1085	5.00	35.00	18.6719
Valid	1085			

The table shows that all participants report an average of $M = 18.67$ where the average rating for the satisfaction level is from 20 to 24. Dissatisfaction with life in Albania is also evidenced by qualitative data analysis where participants reported that they felt tired and unhappy with the activity of everyday life. One interviewee in Fushë-Arrëz, who had previously lived in Germany, said that for him a higher wage would not improve his satisfaction in life.

3.9 Level hope

As mentioned in the methodology, the level of hope in this instrument has two subscales that are Agency that refer to the individual's goals and the desire to follow and the Pathway that refers to the possible ways of solutions. Data analysis shows that participants report average levels of hope.

Table 3: Level of hope

Descriptive Data				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Pathways	1080	4.00	32.00	24.4046
Agency	1091	4.00	32.00	24.4995
Hope	1072	8.00	64.00	48.8722
Valid	1072			

Referring to the cognitive model of hope, it is clearly seen that participants have a mediocre level of hope as to the pathways subscale and their goals in life. At the level of total hope, the champion has an average score of $M = 48.8$ from the maximum score of 64.

3.10 Quality of life

Table 4: quality of life

Descriptive Data			
	No. of respondent	Mean	Index
Psychological domain	1100	68.6242	67.37
Social domain	1102	67.5060	69.88
Physical domain	1099	64.3848	70.06
Environment domain	1101	48.1517	70.05
Quality of life	1096	62.1665	74.26
Valid	1096		

The above table shows the rapporteurs' opinions on the quality of life measured through a World Health Organization questionnaire that measures mental health, social relationships, physical health and environmental assessment. Initially, this instrument does not have a comparative index and consequently, the index created by the researcher is used through a meta-analysis (Koochi, 2017). The index used refers to developed countries.

Compared to developed countries, Albanians rank below the average in the physical health variable that measures sleep, energy, and physical pain. The average is $M = 64.3$ when the physical health index is at 70.6. Specifically, average levels of sleep satisfaction and being energetic in daily life are reported. In line with expectations, high levels of pain felt and high use of medicines in daily life are reported at 33.4%.

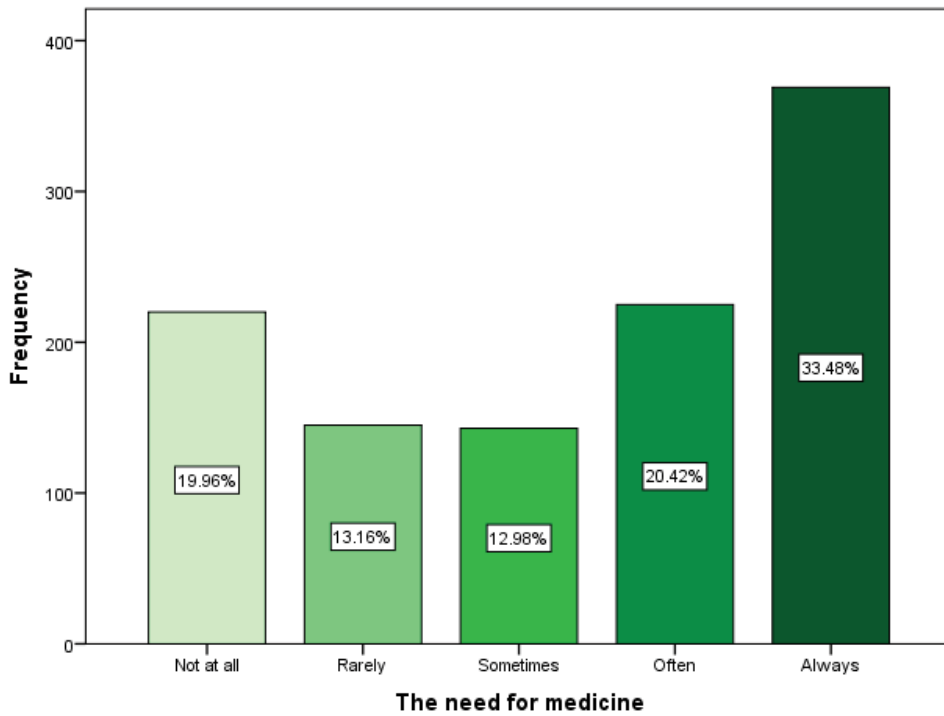


Figure 18: need for medicine

Regarding psychological health, respondents are easily positioned above the average according to the index presented. The average reported by the sample is $M = 68.6242$ meanwhile the index is at the rate of 67.37. Psychological health measures feelings, thoughts, appearance, and self-esteem. More specific information shows that Albanians try to enjoy life at mid-levels meanwhile they report to be comfortable with their physical appearance, feel comfortable with their lives and above all are happy

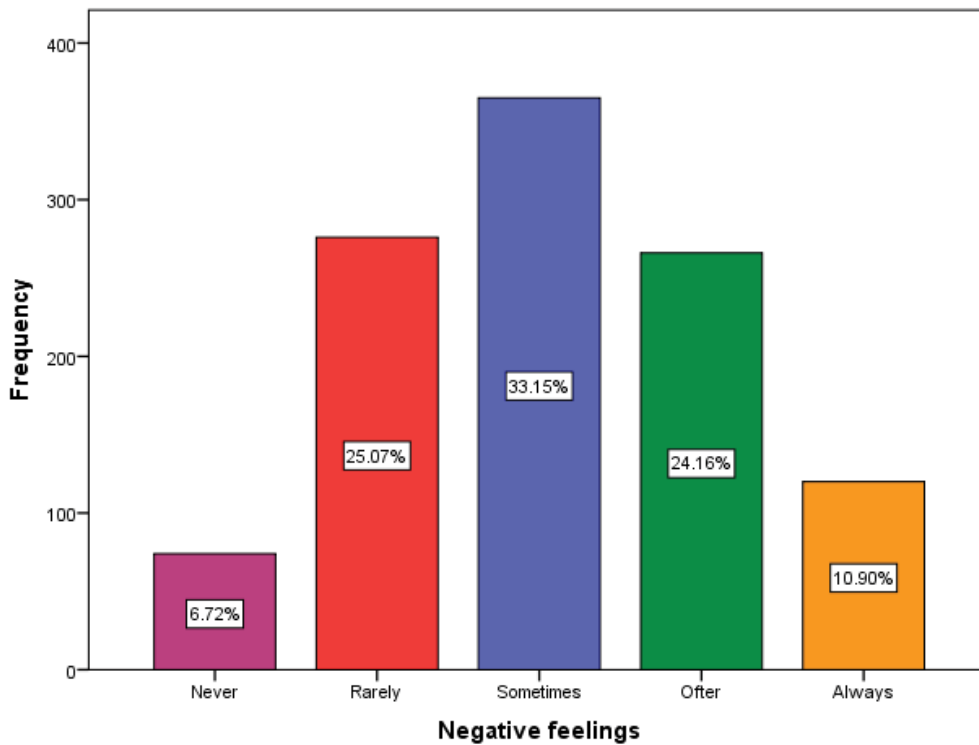


Figure 19: negative feelings

with themselves. On the other hand, nearly 33% of the sample reports that they sometimes feel anxiety, anger, despair, and depression, 26% feel often and 10% feel alive.

In relation to social relations, participants report lower levels than the index respectively $M = 67.5$ and 69.8 . Social relations refer to friendly relationships, support from friends, and sexual pleasure. The results show that the participants are satisfied with the support that they receive at an above average level, are very satisfied with their sex life and friendly relationships.

The surrounding environment assessment includes assessment of safety, home, finances, services, access to information, leisure activities, how healthy the surrounding environment and transportation. The index for developed countries is 70.05 , while the average of participants is $M = 48.1$ which reports high levels of dissatisfaction from these services. Participants report insufficient income to meet their needs and low and under-average opportunities to carry out the desired leisure activities. Moreover, they value the surrounding environment as unhealthy, and their living conditions and access to information are considered average and below average. Regarding the necessary services, high levels of discontent among the participants are reported. In this line goes also the transport service where high levels of dissatisfaction are again reported.

Lastly, the level of quality of life measured by the world's quality of life's quality of life is at $M = 62.1665$ when the index of developed countries is 74.26 . (Koochi, 2017) This shows that the quality of life is significantly lower in Albania by placing emphasis on the issues expressed during interviews and focus groups.

3.11 Obstacles to emigration

Asked about the main actors who play an obstructive role in leaving the Albanians, participants responded by pointing out that the lack of legitimate documentation is the main obstacle. This indicates

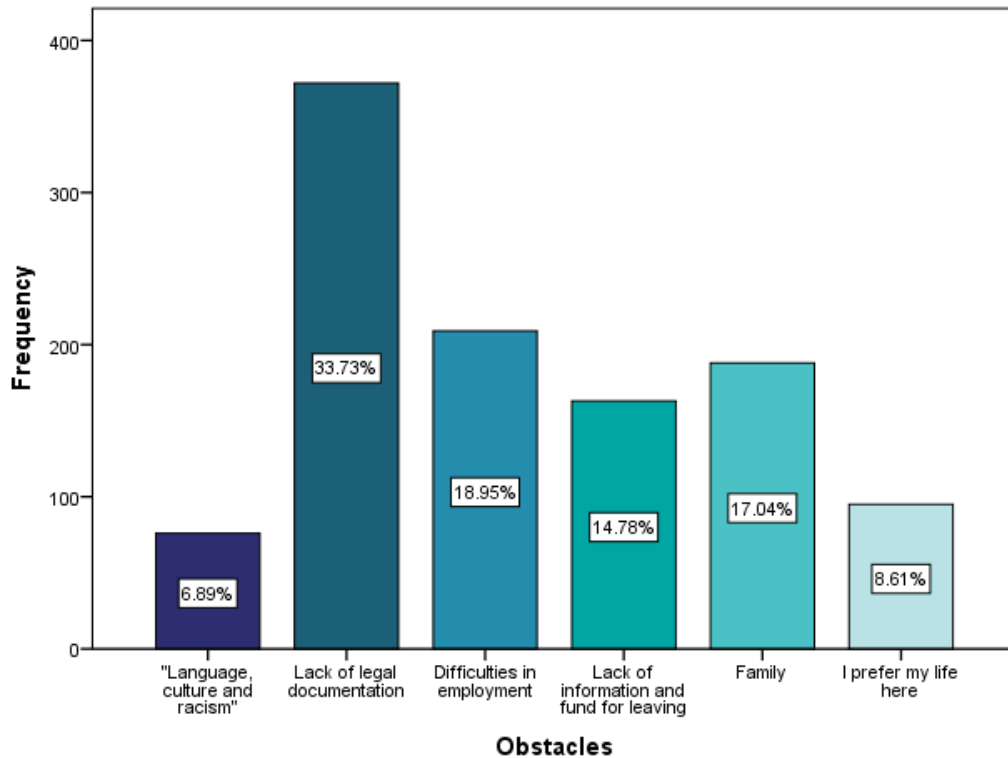


Figure 20: Obstacles for emigration

a desire to move away from illegal immigration. Then there is the difficulty in employment, the lack of a job contract to provide documentation, and then the family is ranked as a barrier to immigration development. Lack of funds and information also constitutes an important obstacle to immigration.

In interviews and focus groups, it is clear that participants do not prefer to emigrate illegally because they consider it difficult to stay there and fear possible deportation. Regarding the language variation and the racial prejudice they may feel, they say it is a less important factor because prejudices are rare given the experience of individuals living outside and language can be learned easily.

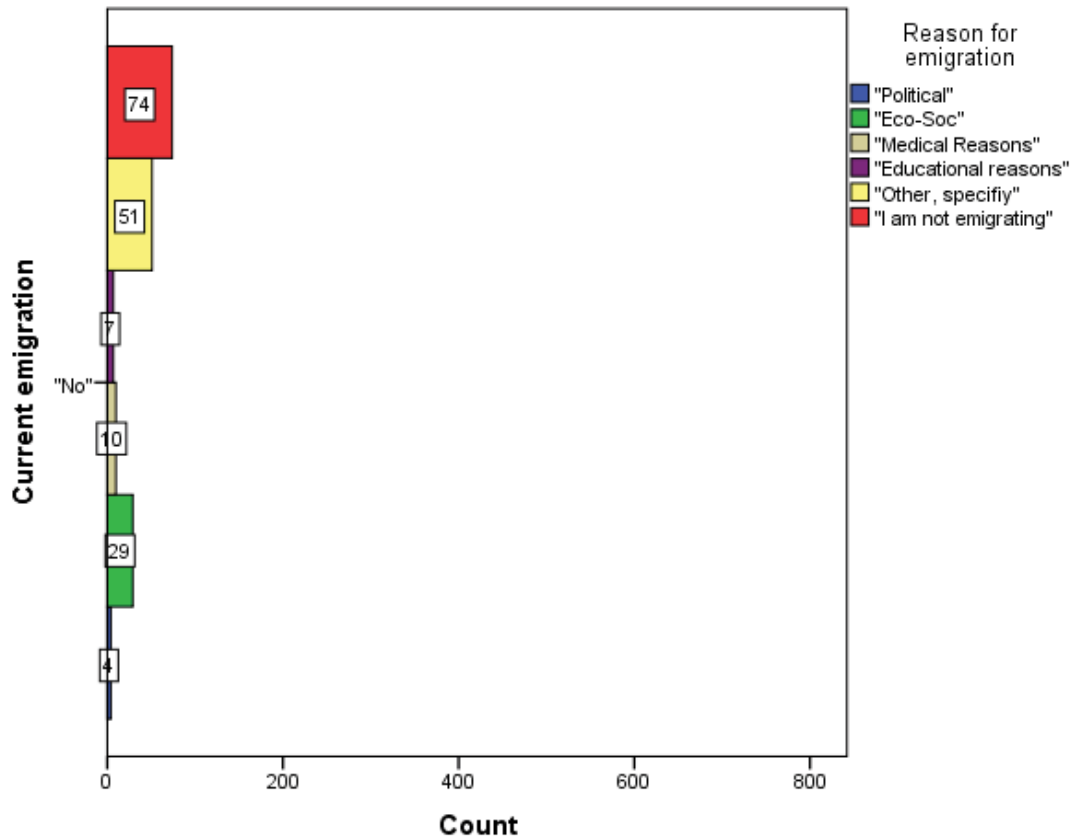


Figure 21: reason against migration

Regarding individuals who do not want to emigrate, about 36.7% (N = 65) prefer the lives they make here, 24.8% (N = 44) are hindered by the family to escape. Other factors are the difficulty in employment and the lack of legitimate documentation that is considered a barrier. From the group they do not want to leave, individuals who are experiencing progress and economic stability, for the most part, have said they like lifestyles doing it here and therefore do not like to migrate.

3.12 Impact of social networks

The analysis of the impact of social networks on the development of the desire for emigration plays an important role in this study. Data points out that more than half of the population, specifically 52.5%, are influenced/lured by posts that others make on social networks.

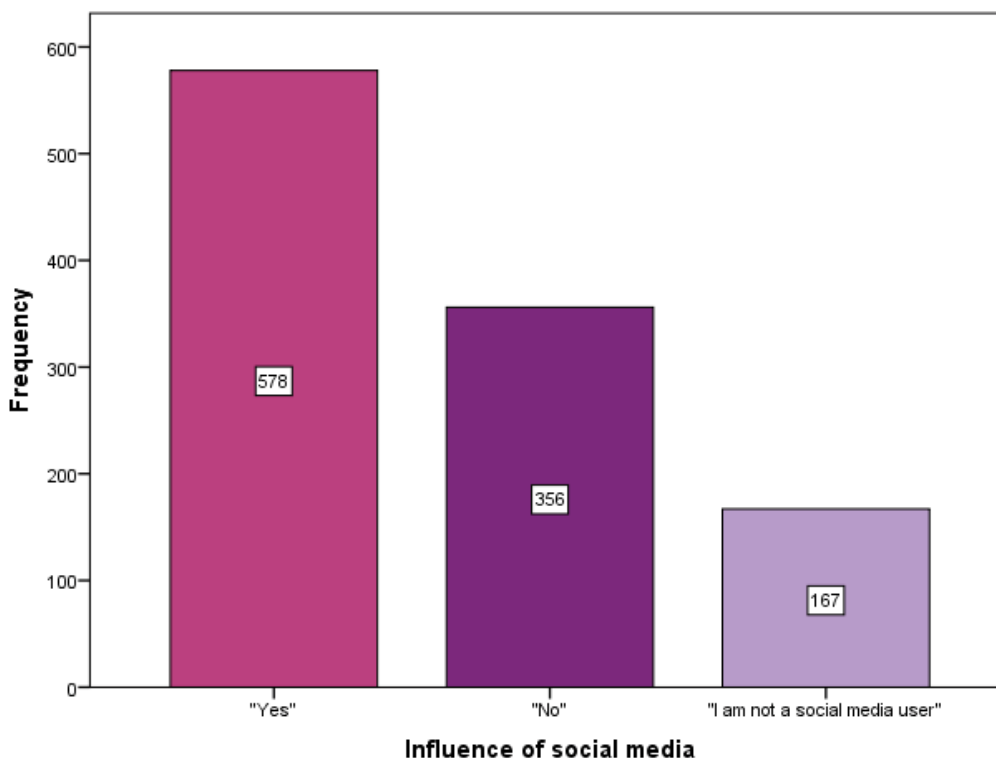


Figure 22: Social media

It is also reported that 48% of individuals who are lured wish to leave Albania. Interviews and focus groups show that on average they are seduced because they think posting on social networks does not represent holistically-lived reality anyway has an impact. The correlation between social networks and the desire for emigration is poor towards the average but positive $r = .335$, $p = .000$.

3.13 Correlation Table

The correlation table shows that the desire to leave correlates negatively with all variables of the country's assessment. The increase in the country's political, social, educational, and health-related assessment is accompanied by a reduction in the desire to leave and the country's assessment of one's variance is associated with growing desire to move away. On the other hand, as seen from the table, the variables of the country's assessment correlate positively to each other, otherwise, the increase of the assessment in one dimension is accompanied by growth and in other dimensions.

Table 5: Correlations

Variabli	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Dëshira për largim	1	-.399**	-.373**	-.484**	-.346**	-.388**
2. Politika		1	.571**	.647**	.492**	.514**
3. Shëndetësia			1	.587**	.626**	.626**
4. Drejtësia				1	.572**	.585**
5. Arsimi					1	.623**
6. Sh.Sociale						1

Collected data show that individuals prefer to encourage emigration rather than prevent it. So 42.1% would encourage him and only 26.5 would stop him, meanwhile, the rest is undecided.

Asked about whether they migrate, think of a possible return, the participants are divided into three main groups where 30.6 % will not be returned and 30.5% will be returned. Most of them belong to the group who are undecided with 38.9%.

3.14 Trafficking in human beings.

Interviews and focus groups also place emphasis on another element such as trafficking in human beings and the actual forms of functioning of this phenomenon. Trafficking in human beings although many fighting continues to be functional in many areas of Albania, mainly in rural and urban areas. The information obtained from interviews and focus groups shows that the most prevalent form of trafficking is desirable and versatile. Large population outflows and complete abandonment of villages are reported, including Kallmet village in Lezha area, Iballë village in Puka area, and other villages.

The primary form of trafficking is hiding in the truck or vehicles used for the carriage of goods. Individuals hide in the cargo and rarely find places to hide close to the wheels of the vehicle. In a few cases, individuals have endangered their lives. The preferred destination is the English state and consequently, the payments for this country are higher compared to other countries. Payments have increased considerably and have become unaffordable by individuals. About 2012, payments were around £ 5,000 to £ 7,000, while today, around 2019, payments are reported to be up to £ 15,000, seeing the growing trend for this service.

People most inclined to travel are young ages 18 to 30 who have the right physicality to cope with the journey. Women and girls rarely prefer this way to travel. Constant reports indicate that traffickers refuse to take families with children to be trafficked regardless of the payment they can afford.

Another widespread form of trafficking is the fictitious labour contracts offered to individuals. The contracts do not contain the promised work and working conditions. Individuals face heavy work and in inappropriate conditions. In some cases, individuals have committed and work illegally.

A phenomenon, always worrying, is the trafficking of women and children with or without their desire. The organized groups target individuals who are the most vulnerable, vulnerable and in bad economic conditions. Women and girls who are victims of trafficking are forced to work as sex workers and in most cases are raped by these groups.

Another form of trafficking is the use of children for domestic begging. Children from different cities are forced by groups of traffickers and a part of their families to beg and to steal. This phenomenon that is present in the streets of Albania poses a risk to these children.

Another recent phenomenon is the presence of sex workers in urban areas of Albania. As reported, young girls in the absence of a job, work as sex workers preferring not to return to their hometown. Deep rural areas are most affected by this phenomenon. A derivative form of sex work is trafficking that occurs online. The girl and the woman work online in the online sex groups in exchange for payments.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSIONS

The Migration Study in Albania is a research focusing on the incidence, causes and general situation affecting the decision to leave or stay in the country. The sample of this study consists of individuals of different ages and different areas of Albania. Variety in professions, social status, geographical area, age, income, education and equal gender representation increases the overall sampling power and generalization of results.

The studied variables relate to current migration, influencing factors, and overall quality of life. Statistic analyses were developed for the above variables and other demographic variables. Mostly, the analyses used in the study are crosstabulation, frequency, correlations, and descriptive analyses.

The history of the Albanian people is characterized by the phenomenon of migration and the desire to for more diversity, whether political, social or economic. Professor Dr. Zyhdi Dervishi, who has widely studied migration in Albania, claims that research has shown that the history of the Albanian people resembles in many ways the history of Armenians and Israelis. Similar to how at present, more Israelis live outside of Israel than within, fewer Albanians live within Albania than abroad. Figures show that about 7 to 8 million Albanians live abroad. Albanians have emigrated to escape the pressure of different occupiers and after World War II, many Albanians migrated for economic reasons.

The issue of Albanian migration is the subject of discussions and debates in many areas. In his book on immigration Professor Dervishi analyzes Albanian migration to Italy, finding that after emigrating, Albanians set their eyes back towards Albania, but when they are in Albania they look again toward emigration. In this respect, Albanian immigrants have a troubled conscience that is modified, altered, and reformulated with much worry and an idealistic cross-sea view.

Dr. Arlind Qori says that without mass migration in Albania, social revolution would take place every year. This is because in peripheral countries such as Albania, capitalism fails to provide jobs. The unemployment phenomenon is enormous and jobs are badly paid. The fact that there is a “release valve”, which is migration for economic reasons, gives some stability to the socioeconomic system.

Findings represent illegal immigration as the most widespread form of emigration from 1991-2008. This period coincides with the great exodus of Albanians. The data showed high figures, where 1 in 5 Albanian individuals lived abroad, mainly in Greece and Italy. (King and Volunteer, 2003).

According to Professor Dervishi, the high rate of illegal migration relates to the inability of Albanians to migrate in other ways. Even under the current conditions, many Albanians are forced to emigrate illegally because of large restrictive measures.

Dr. Qori said the highest rates of illegal migration are found in rural areas where there is extreme poverty of money and opportunity and people will risk for a chance at a better life.

The main cause for emigration is mainly related to socio-economic factors, reflecting a collapse of society. Individuals who are experiencing economic instability and have relatively low family income, namely the state’s minimum wage, are more inclined to leave than individuals who are experiencing

stability or economic progress. Moreover, this connection is also evidenced by the correlation found. The top two factors influencing migration are security and socio-economic factors. (Mcauliffe & Koser, 2017, King and Volunteer 2003, Guatan 2006)

Many researches have studied the impact of poverty on the decision to migrate, which has shown that economic insecurity acts as a pressing factor. Macroeconomic theories point out that differences in demand and job supply, wage differentials or low incomes make individuals leave (Zezza, Carletto & Davis, 2005).

Studies have shown that the link between poverty and migration is clearly evidenced in Albania. To Albania and Albanians, emigration has been characterized and continues to be considered as a strategy for economic survival. Migration for economic reasons and in response to poverty is widespread in cities outside of Tirana and in rural areas where access to education, unemployment and hardship are greater. (Castaldo, Litchfield & Reilly, 2005).

One of the main reasons associated with rising unemployment is the transformation of the economy, from a centralized economy to a market economy. In various reports, Albania ranks as a poor country, with a significant proportion of the population living with minimal income or in extreme poverty, justifying high migratory rates or the desire to emigrate (Heaver & Israel, 2012).

According to Dr. Qori, economic difficulties are related to the level of income; for many, this is a big problem. Individuals who are unemployed for a long time and have no other source of income struggle. The work many people do before emigrating is an unstable job. Even the Albanians who have an average salary have no assurance of what will happen to them in two months. This causes social anxiety and insecurity that leads individuals to aspire for what they perceive as more opportunity and a better life. This proves that the socio-economic factor is most influential and effective in deciding to emigrate. Albania is not affected by civil war and the phenomenon of blood feud is very small in certain areas, leaving only the economic factor as an explanation for the massive migration of people. Simply, people want work and there are no jobs or people want better jobs and there is no such work. Even for individuals who find work in their field, there is a deep gap in pay and working conditions between Albania and an advanced EU country. Rationally, from the point of view of the individual, it is easy to understand why they leave at the first moment of opportunity.

Dr. Livia Nano emphasizes that the socio-economic factor, composed of two components, is clearly one of the factors that drives Albanians to migrate. Prices continue to rise and wages do not rise with them, making everyday life difficult. The disproportion between prices and wages increases economic instability and struggle. The social aspect is also present. Many people experience very stressful lives, and in the absence of an alternative, people explore the possibility of leaving.

According to Professor Dervishi, young people are heavily influenced and pushed to emigrate due to economic struggle. Starting a life from scratch requires investment that is not guaranteed on an Albanian wage but abroad there is more economic guarantee. If individuals work hard and do well at their jobs, they are not at risk of unemployment; in Albania there is no such situation. Due to nepotism, political division, and corruption, even skilled individuals can be terminated from employment without cause, creating a lack of psychological, economic, political and social security which increases people's desire to leave Albania.

Despite the fact that most of the sample is in high school (51.7%), they still want to leave. Previous research shows that despite qualifications, outgoing Albanians are inclined to work in sectors that require little qualifications. (King and Volunteer, 2003)

Dr. Arlind Qori points out that the first and second wave of immigration have been waves of unskilled

workers; people who did not go to university and integrated into the western workforce into unskilled jobs or jobs that require little qualification. The wave of recent years is of skilled workers, such as students, doctors and engineers. This is because of the huge imbalance in Albania between the number of people who are educated and professionally equipped and the economic capacity and the labor markets ability to accommodate for them. The deeper the gap, the more people will go abroad.

Dr. Qori also points out that intellectual resources and potential are a major export of Albania. If migration continues at these rates, the intellectual impoverishment of society will certainly occur. In order to analyze the link between high school and migration, western job requirements need to be seen, as Albanians flee to western job opportunities. Germany, for example, has not been affected by the crisis and needs base level workers experienced in engineering, information technology and medicine.

Dr. Livia Nano strongly supports the findings of the study, hence the link between the desire to leave and the level of education. Changing the type of migration is becoming more and more evident, especially in terms of changing the target group of migrant people. Qualified people, people with high school educations and people who are employed have all begun to think seriously about migration as an option. Before, people who were unemployed and had no prospects for a job, viewed migration as an alternative. This group continues to be a target group for migration in addition to a new target group. This new group of people have good jobs and/or have qualifications, but they lack hope. Migration proves to be an alternative for them as well.

Continuing the analysis, Dr. Nano points out that the issue of high school students who want to migrate should be analyzed in several ways. One should explore whether individuals are employed and look at their ability to leave. Perhaps a qualified person may think that relocating takes little investment or time. This type of thinking leads to many questions regarding profession choice and qualification. Qualified young people believe they will find a skilled job abroad, meaning that in Albania, there is a negative association and people do not feel appreciated in relation to their jobs. Another issue is that of payment. Individuals may think that their salary is small and that migrants in other countries receive larger salaries. Other people recognize that they are not qualified for those high paying jobs abroad, and look to other opportunities. These opportunities are not highly qualified and decrease the quality of life, but the risk is worth taking to many for the chance as a better quality of life and a better future for their children.

Professor Dervishi claims that while foreigners abroad seek more common work, they have more economic, social and psychological guarantees. More than looking for a good job, individuals need psychological security and serenity. If there is no hierarchy of values and there is anarchy in society, the individual feels like a small boat in the troubled sea. Since the Albanian people are living in a real period of anarchy, tired of this situation, people are forced to leave Albania, both boys and girls, either with higher education or without education at all.

Thus, Prof. Dr. Dervishi links the migration of Albanians not only with economic issues, but also with injustices and above all with the dissolution of the societal value system. In Albania, honest and correct people who serve the country are not valued, even insulted or humiliated in various forms. This overthrow of the value system is the biggest hit for the Albanian people.

Dr. Nano claims that many individuals want to leave, meaning they do not find self-belonging in Albania. The lack of self is linked to many economic and social values. What is important to an individual and is considered a strong value may not be related to the values of the country, which increases the predispositions to leave.

According to Dr. Nano, in Albania there is a code of values with internal contradictions in this stage of social development. The willingness to corrupt and be corrupt is a product of social relationships. The easiest way to survive is to follow the formal rule, as the formal rule is not adapted to society and is still independent from it. This comes from bad policies, and the incorrect structuring of the economy. There is a gap between formal values and real values, as long as formal values are not the product of society. If we compare systems, it is shown that some things have changed while other things have not. By changing the economic structure, change in the value system usually follows. During socialism, for example, it was forbidden to enrich the law. The horizon of economic benefit was very narrow and society had to find other mechanisms, such as giving importance to social status. One of the professions that enjoyed a higher social status was that of teachers. They were considered respectable figures. Because economic gain was prohibited, society's respect was required and valuable. Once the economic structure is transformed, it is possible to benefit and to re-assimilate.

Dr. Arlind Qori analyzes the effects on each system. From his point of view, and according to the findings of the study, education is less affected than health or the judiciary. First, the judiciary is completely separated from the society, where the prosecutor and the judges are completely foreign bodies. Medicine concerns people's lives and consequently, the patient is often more lenient to pay and consequently the system is corrupted.

In regards to education, there is not as much room for corruption as there is in other sectors. In education there is room for people who are passionate about their work. The teacher is always a moral figure and it is more difficult to accept the gap between "do as I say, but do not do as I do." On the other hand, there is a desire for Albanians to be educated abroad. First, in an advanced country, education is better than in a less developed country. The second is the priori assumption that the more credentials and diplomas achieved abroad, the more successful and smart the individual. This assumption is proving incorrect as waves of students returning to Albania after studying abroad are not so different from those graduating in Albania.

Dr Livia Nano claims that leaving for overseas education can be a reason to leave lawfully. The individual, while studying in the area they choose, integrate into society and pursue work. In Albania, the quality of education is not good, not just at the university level but at all levels. Thus, individuals with financial potential usually consider the opportunity to be educated abroad.

According to Professor Dervishi, the school system of Albania has a terrible degradation, starting with pre-school education. Educational reform in Albania should start from the beginning and should not be done by applying some template model. The highest achievements of foreign countries need to adapt appropriately to the conditions and circumstances of the country. Students are also misled into the study paths they choose.

In addition to assessing education, the sample has negatively assessed country, politics, social services, health, and in particular, justice. The ratings are negatively correlated with the desire to leave, so the greater the desire to leave, the lower the ratings for the country. In support, the environmental variable in the quality of life instrument complies with country estimates, reporting a high level of dissatisfaction compared to the overall index. This indicates a significant lack of service and quality. Moreover, the satisfaction Albanians draw from life is below average.

As far as health is concerned, there are no guarantees in Albania and these subjects have been very badly rated. The health and pharmaceutical system, according to Prof. Dervishes, has many defects. For example, many elderly individuals find that they have managed to overcome health problems only by interventions and services found abroad. Even if they wanted to stay in Albania, they would not survive.

It is unjustifiable in present day that the health system of Albania is in the state that it is in.

The study has shown that the vast majority of participants rated political policy negatively and the analysis has shown a negative correlation between politics and the desire to migrate. The political system is being dismantled and the prolongation of the political crisis will bring about decomposition of the system, which opens the door for new political and social forces to change things for the benefit of society. When the political system is impenetrable, there is little opportunity to make change. Only disruption from inside the system can spark effective change. Due to the lack of a fair political system, society is indifferent to dissolution. The political party legitimacy crisis is a sign of the system's disintegration and this process creates the possibility of creating a new structure according to Dr. Qori.

Meanwhile, Professor Dervishi argues that Albania has no policy, as an anarchic country has no policy. Albania needs radical, visionary solution and leadership to bring a rapid change of the situation. If according to Faik Konica, more than 20 million Albanians could live in Albania with the resources and have a country more advanced than Switzerland, the fact that the population consists of 2-3 million Albanians living in poverty and struggling is indicative that the country lacks organization and a vision. To counter this situation, it is necessary to establish a national council of intellectuals who have no direct connection with power but to build a strategic plan for solving problems. Political parties should work within this plan.

According to Dr. Nano, the political climate affects decision making to stay or move. Politics is responsible for creating an atmosphere of hope and hence indirectly responsible for migration, as its responsibility is to lead and organize the country in many areas. The issue of migration, to a certain extent, is quite normal. For example, many Germans go and work in Switzerland because salaries are better. But, the situation shows that Albanians do not move from Albania to Italy, Greece or Germany only because salaries are higher. It is not just an economic matter, it is also a matter of perspective. It is not a purely economic pay gap issue, but a lack of hope that makes individuals pessimistic for the future and pushes them to move.

Gender

Current findings show that 83.86% of the study participants are willing to leave the country. Also, no differences were found in relation to gender or rural or urban housing areas. This shows a change in the current form of migration, creating a major disconnect from traditional forms.

Albanian migration is a unique phenomenon in terms of dynamic development. Just as characteristics of rapid rhythms and irregular migration, migration serves as an interesting lens for study and gender impact. At its beginnings Albanian migration was a franchise of young men and boys aspiring for a better life in a foreign country. The traditional form of girls' migration has been through family reunions, but not as a prime initiator (Stecklov et al., 2010).

Generally, according to Albanian migration studies, until the 2000s, migration was mostly male. Over time, with a stabilization of immigrants in the destination country, they started to attract girls, wives, sisters and more. The women, however, went as family members, they did not go only as immigrants. Professor Dervishi agrees with the results of the study and reiterates the recent tendency for girls to emigrate by themselves, seeking a better life on their own.

According to Dr. Arlind Qori, Albanian society is in a gradual process of gender emancipation. Patriarchy is breaking apart and killing and persistent violence are signs of a panic and crisis of the system. In the past, illegal immigration only took unsafe means, like sneaking onto a truck or a speedboat. This physical safety risk tended to keep girls from participating. Now, both legal and illegal cases of emigration

are physically safe, giving women another pathway to migrate. The other impact associated with the separation from traditional forms of migration is that if a particular occupation or type of student migrates, the gender variable does not change. These changes are not only related to the emancipation of women in society but are also related to the outdated perspective that to illegally migrate is to put yourself in physical danger for your life.

Dr. Nano explains that the change in migration trends of men and women is related to the strengthening and empowerment of women and girls in our society, who have begun to perceive themselves differently, have assumed different roles, feel more independent and are making decisions to move and to create a better future for themselves. Despite the fact that there are still women and girls who are dependent and do not want to leave, there is a percentage of others who take the initiative themselves and are autonomous, bringing balance to the migration gender variable.

Psychological Variables

In terms of psychological aspects, participants rank on average compared to developed countries and near the average for social variation but not for physical variation. This shows that Albanians do not live healthily, reporting high levels of pain, which is associated with high levels of need for medications in daily life and increased negative feelings such as anxiety, anger and depression.

Against study data, experts argue that psychological situations are more problematic than what is being reported. This is related to the fact that in most cases, self-report attempts to show a perfect and better reality. Self-report also focuses more on physical health than psychological health. Dr. Livia Nano points out that many mental health disorders are as a result of the situation, lack of hope, lack of perspective, lack of sight of the light at the end of the tunnel, coupled with serious psychological problems. If we do not invest in young people positively, we will end up needing to address mental health problems or disorders further down the road. This is more costly for society, and more painful for the individual and their family.

Albania is characterized as perceiving young people as a problem or a potential problem. We need to completely change the perception of and approach to young people and begin to consider them as needing support for development. This kind of perception should not be shared by only one individual, a target group or a group of professionals. This is a perception that needs to be widely shared. Theoretically and practically it is necessary to create a common vision of what the young people are to society. Emancipated societies show caution to the younger generation, while transition societies do not seem to have the luxury to worry about what will happen in 10 or 20 years. Sharing a common vision of what the youth are and how society should consider them is the first step in their positive development. Once the key individuals of a society believe this, it continues to the most concrete steps for implementing strategies.

According to Prof. Dervish, the current crisis is the worst crisis experienced by the Albanian people, at least since the 20th century. The spirit of idealism has become dim and even despired.

For Dr. Arlind Qorin, if people, especially the most vital people, the most prepared people of society want to escape, then this is a sign of despair. Hope perhaps lies with those who have not yet fled from Albania, who are forced to work in their profession, and can serve as catalysts of awareness and as organizers of others like themselves. In our society there are many base level jobs which do not require university degrees. Many youth, with or without university degrees, are left with these jobs as the best prospect for them professionally. From the point of view of the social structure, this individual can raise the cultural level and expectations for other people. This resembles the stories of teachers who were sent

to work at a remote school. This was a difficult adjustment for the teacher, but it was very good news for the village, because the village would have the influence of a teacher who otherwise would not come and work in that village. A well-educated man in an under-qualified work environment will convey his ideas to others. These individuals have the potential to be transformed into promoters of social transformation. The mass of people who are radically dissatisfied, but also have intellectual capacity, have high demands and great dissatisfaction, enable the creation of effective strategies.

Psychological problems are related to the perception of happiness. The ruling ideology sees happiness in terms of the individual. For individuals, consumption is related to happiness. In a poor society, where there is little opportunity for consumption, you are less happy. You are less able to buy things, cannot travel, etc. If we look at happiness more collectively, built on the relationships between people, not only material but also spiritual enrichment, then there is a wider window of opportunity. Investing in subjective relationships increases optimism, as people look at how powerful they are together. Even migrants returning to Albania talk with a kind of nostalgia for social relations they do not find in the places they go. Relationships are the power that gives collectivity through the possibility of transformation. This kind of optimism is found when societies are in situations of increasing political activism.

Social Media

Another influential element is social media which has been found to have an impact for encouraging migration. Individuals are influenced and seduced to emigrate by seeing the lives of other individuals. Social media represents an exaggerated version of reality, creating a seductive image for the individual who does not find that image in the country where he or she lives. In this way, social media turns into an initiator for migration. On the other hand, primarily well-educated individuals use social media to be informed and to find opportunities. (Dekker and Engsbjergsen 2012) (Hidayati, 2018)

Nano points out that there have been some positive changes in Albania regarding the expression of free thought, which proves that people are not moving for freedom of speech, but mainly for reasons related to their well-being. While the welfare standard has increased, people's expectations for standards are not being met. This is very much related to globalization and the incredibly wide access to the internet. Today, thanks to the internet and to social networks, young people know far more about what a "good life" is and what it looks like to live in a context different from their own. This is like a virtual reality for them, highlighting the stark differences between what they see online and what their current life is like. This contradiction drives individuals to seek something more. In the past, internet use was not nearly as vast as it is today. People migrated for survival and because of economic issues. Now, it is far more complicated. This distortion of reality and comparison between countries and circumstances creates enormous tension. The economy, the political situation, and shortages create tension. Internal tension that the individual is perhaps not able to articulate and internal pressure, due to exposure to social networks and a combination of other factors, make it enticing to consider leaving the country instead of staying.

According to Prof. Dr. Zyhdi Dervishi, young people today are more dependent on the internet and social networks than their parents. Most social networks encourage young people to escape, as they cultivate a sense of personal and collective freedom. These networks inclusive, inviting, but also form criminalization models.

Professor Qori states that social networks have more influence than television. Albanians have watched the West through TV and are lured in by advertisements and movies where everything looks beautiful, people are prosperous, happy, and the cities are beautiful. TV is slightly less deceptive because

people can understand that what is presented is not reality. For example, actors play fictional characters, but if you see someone that's looks like you living a different reality, the fiction becomes more credible.

Apart from the factors that push Albanians towards migration, the study also identifies the main stumbling blocks faced. These are mostly related to a lack of regular documentation. Dr. Arlind Qori argues that when young people migrate, they leave with the goal of formally integrating into the labor market. Legal formality, either in language skills or in skills examination for a certain position, are of great importance. A lack of regular documentation does not easily enable integration into society.

According to Professor Dervishi, Albanians, since they do not have regular documents, are forced to work illegally. In this position, people will seek to succeed, whether legally or illegally. The lack of documentation increases the predisposition to be part of the trafficking networks.

Another obstructive factor is the family. Dr. Nano explains that in Albania, family is very important and family members are closely linked to each other. Care for the older generation is perceived and inherited as a responsibility of children to their parents. In comparison to how other generations have grown, the younger generation does not have the strongest sense of attachment and sense of responsibility or care for their parents. Apart from passing on traditional values of care, today the family can also serve as a tool for migration. Parents may believe that their child's best chance for a better future can only be found abroad.

Dr. Qori asserts that the Albanian family is between traditional and modern. Families and tribal ties are very strong and the family institution has a major socializing and supportive economic role. Family is very tight-knit and a source of security. Emigration requires those close family ties to be broken. There is a difference between being educated abroad with the prospect of returning to your country and going somewhere to work hoping to start a new life, adapt to a new society and consequently slowly lose ties with their family of origin. Another factor is the existence of the opinion, especially in small towns, that the boy should stay with his parents and cannot abandon them. This is a great deal of pressure, from family and social circles.

Professor Dervishi gives a different view, asserting that the impact of the family on the lives of individuals is getting very weak. According to him, the Albanian family today is traumatized and parents find it very difficult to convince their children not to migrate. The strong influence of the family regarding immigration has in fact been very big before, but today the Albanian family has little impact on the lives of children. Lack of hope and perspective for the future reduces the chances of a family's ability to persuade youth to stay in Albania.

CHAPTER V

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. To include in political practice the intellectual elite of the country to ensure right and high level thinking. This will ground the action, ensuing from political decision making, in solid ideas which will benefit the future of Albania.
2. To design mechanisms for providing support for young people and returnee migrants. Ensuring these returnees are given grant support, tax relief, provision of legal, economic and social assistance to facilitate the reintegration process and to prevent future massive migration.
3. Establish public forums and debates for building visionary strategies which will lead to concrete steps to support youth and society. The focus of the forums is to review the policies undertaken over the years to highlight their weaknesses and strengths.
4. Enhance education reforms and foster a general education for the entire population to induce an objective understanding of the situation. This is with the aim of bringing about reflective thinking which will provide solutions for the obvious crisis faced by Albania today.
5. To initiate a Labour Market Survey in parallel with public and private university degrees to balance demand with supply. In this way, young people are directed and profiled towards vocational trainings.
6. To improve infrastructures for service delivery and establish contact with Albanian emigrants to absorb new investment, ideas and technology. To provide a legal facilitation for investors to enable them to open a business by offering this necessary support.
7. To draft strictly implemented policies that will increase the enforceability of the law and eliminate the phenomenon of impunity – laissez faire in relation to the law in Albania.
8. To change the economic structure by orienting capital investment towards products that generate profit and employment.

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ANNEX

Sesioni I					
Pyetësi mbi emigrimin					
-					
1	Mosha	18-25	25-35	35-45	Mbi 45
2	Gjinia	Djalë/Burrë	Vajzë/Grua		
3	Vendbanimi				
4	Statusi civil	Beqar/e	I/e martuar	I/e ve	I/e divorcuar
5	Niveli arsimor	Fillor	I mesëm	I lartë	
6	Profesioni				
7	Punësimi aktual				
8	Sa të ardhura keni?	Më pak se 250 \$	250\$ deri ne 600\$	Mbi 600\$	

Sesioni II						
1	A keni emigruar më parë ?	Po	Jo			
2	Në vendin ku keni emigruar, keni kërkuar azil ?	Po	Jo	Nuk kam pasur informacion		
3	Cila ka qënë mënyrë në të cilën keni emigruar ?	a. Ilegalisht	b. Kontratë pune	c. Bursë studimi	d. Bashkim me familjen	e. Nuk kam emigruar
4	A ka qene i sakte informacioni qe keni marre paraprakisht, nga njerezit qe kane mundesuar migrimin/ udhëtimin?	Po	Jo	Nuk kam eksperience të tillë		
5	A keni paguar dikë për tju transportuar në shtetin që doni të emigroni?	Po	Jo	Nuk kam eksperience të tillë		
6	Sa ka qënë shuma që keni paguar ose do paguani për të emigruar?	_____				
7	A jeni deportuar ndonjëherë ?	Po	Jo	Nuk kam eksperience të tillë		
8	A ndikoheni/ josheni nga postimet në rrjetet sociale që bëjnë të tjerët nga vendet jashtë Shqipërisë?	Po	Jo	Nuk jam përdorues/e i/e rrjeteve sociale		
9	Nëse keni emigruar, a keni rrezikuar ndonjëherë jetën?	Po	Jo	Nuk kam emigruar		

Sesioni III							
1	1.A keni menduar që të emigroni nga vendi ?	Po	Jo				
2	Cilat janë arsyet që ju shtojnë drejt emigrimit ?	a. Arsye politike	b. Arsye socio-ekonomike	c. Arsye shëndetësore	d. Arsye edukimi	Tjetër specifikoni,	
3	Cfarë e pengon emigrimin tuaj?	a. Gjuha dhe kultura e ndryshme dhe paragjykimet raciale	b. mungesa e dokumentacionit te ligjshem	c. Vështirsia në punësim	d. Mungesa e informacionit dhe fondeve per tu larguar	e. Familja	f. Me pëlqen jeta ketu
4	Sa të kënaqur jeni me jetesën në vendin tuaj ?	a. Shumë i kënaqur	b. I/e kënaqur	c. Pak i /e kënaqur	d. Aspak i /e kënaqur		
5	Në këto momente , familja jote është duke është duke u përballur me	a.	b.Stabilitet	c. Progres	d. Tjeter (specifikoni)		
6	Nëse do të keni mundësi, do ta ndaloni apo do ta inkurajoni emigrimin?	a. Do ta ndaloja	b. Do ta inkuroja	c. I/e pavendosur			
7	Krahasur me vendin tuaj, vendi ku dëshironi që të emigroni, ka :	a.cilësi më të lartë të jetës	b. mundësi më të mëdha punësimi	c.mirëqenie më të lartë	d. respektim më të madh të të drejtave të njeriut	e. Të gjitha	
8	Nëse emigroni, a e mendoni mundësinë e rikthimit?	Po	Jo	Nuk e di			

Sesioni IV					
1	Si e vlerësoni politikën e vendit tuaj?	Shumë mirë	Mirë	Keq	Shumë keq
2	Si e vlerësoni shëndetësinë e vendit tuaj?	Shumë mirë	Mirë	Keq	Shumë keq
3	Si e vlerësoni drejtësinë e vendit tuaj?	Shumë mirë	Mirë	Keq	Shumë keq
4	Si e vlerësoni arsimin e vendit tuaj?	Shumë mirë	Mirë	Keq	Shumë keq
5	Si i vlerësoni shërbimet sociale në vendin tuaj?	Shumë mirë	Mirë	Keq	Shumë keq
7	A ndiheni të sigurt për të ardhmen tuaj në Shqipëri	Shumë	Mesatarisht	Pak	Shumë pak

Shkalla e cilësisë së jetës nga Organizata Botërore e Shëndetësisë						
Nr.	Pohimet	Shumë e varfër	E varfër	As mirë as keq	Mirë	Shumë mirë
1	Si do ta vlerësoni cilësinë tuaj të jetesës?	1	2	3	4	5
		Shumë i pakënaqur	I pakënaqur	As i kënaqur as i pakënaqur	I kënaqur	Shumë i kënaqur
2	Sa të kënaqur jeni me shëndetin tuaj?	1	2	3	4	5
		Aspak	Pak	Mesatarisht	Disi	Shumë
3	Deri në ç'masë mendoni se dhimbja fizike ju ndalon që të bëni gjërat që ju duhet të bëni?	5	4	3	2	1
4	Sa të nevojshme i keni ilaçet në jetën e përditshme?	5	4	3	2	1
5	Sa e shijoni jetën?	1	2	3	4	5
6	Sa kuptim ka jeta për ju?	1	2	3	4	5
		Aspak	Pak	Mesatarisht	Disi	Shumë
7	Sa të aftë jeni ju të përqëndrohëni në detyrat e jetës së përditshme?	1	2	3	4	5
8	Sa të sigurt ndiheni në jetën e përditshme?	1	2	3	4	5
9	Sa i shëndetshëm është mjedisi përreth?	1	2	3	4	5
		Aspak	Pak	Mesatarisht	Disi	Shumë
10	Sa energjik /e ndiheni në jetën e përditshme?	1	2	3	4	5
11	A jeni rahat me paraqitjen fizike që keni?	1	2	3	4	5
12	A keni mjaftueshëm para për të plotësuar nevojat tuaja?	1	2	3	4	5
13	Sa të aksesueshëm e keni informacionin që ju nevojitet në jetën e përditshme?	1	2	3	4	5
14	Deri në ç'masë keni mundësi për të bërë aktivitetet që doni në kohën e lirë?	1	2	3	4	5
		Shumë e keq	Keq	As mirë as keq	Mirë	Shumë mirë
15	Sa të mira i keni aftësitë ndërvepruese?	1	2	3	4	5
		Aspak	Pak	Mesatarisht	Disi	Shumë
16	Sa të kënaqur jeni me gjumin?	1	2	3	4	5
17	Sa të kënaqur jeni me performancën tuaj në jetën e përditshme?	1	2	3	4	5
18	Sa të kënaqur jeni me kapacitetin tuaj për punë?	1	2	3	4	5

19	Sa të kënaqur jeni me veten tuaj?	1	2	3	4	5
20	Sa të kënaqur jeni ju me marrdhëniet personale?	1	2	3	4	5
21	Sa të kënaqur jeni ju me jetën tuaj seksuale?	1	2	3	4	5
22	Sa të kënaqur jeni ju me mbeshitetjen që merrni nga miqtë tuaj?	1	2	3	4	5
23	Sa të kënaqur jeni ju me kushtet e jetës suaj?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Sa të kënaqur jeni me aksesin në shërbimet që ju nevojiten ?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Sa të kënaqur jeni me shërbimin e transportit?	1	2	3	4	5
		Kurrë	Rrallë	Ndonjëherë	Shpesh	Gjithmonë
26	Sa shpesh keni ndjesi negative si ankth, zemërim, dëshpërim dhe depresion?	1	2	3	4	5

Shkalla e Kënaqësisë nga Jeta								
Nr.	Pohimet	Aspak dakort	Jo dakort	Disi jo dakort	As jo dakort as dakort	Disi dakort	Dakort	Shumë dakort
1	Në shumë mënyra, jeta ime i afrohet ideale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Kushtet e jetës sime janë të shkëlqyera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Unë jam i/e kënaqur me jetën time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Deri tani, unë kam gjerat e rëndësishme të cilat kam dashur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Nëse do të jetoja përsëri, nuk do t'i ndryshoja pothuajse asgjë jetës që bëj	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Shkalla për matjen e nivelit Shpresës									
Nr.	Pohimet	Absolutisht e pavërtet	Shumë e pavërtet	Disi e pavërtet	Pak e pavërtet	Pak e vërtet	Disi e vërtet	Shumë e vërtet	Absolutisht e vërtet
1	Mund të mendoj shumë mënyra për të dalë nga situata	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2	Unë vendosmërisht i ndjek qëllimet e mia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3	Ndihem i/e lodhur në pjesën më të madhe të kohës	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4	Ka shumë rrugëzgjdhje për problemet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5	Më mundin lehtësisht në një argument	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
6	Mendoj shumë mënyra për të arritur gjërat që janë të rëndësishme për mua	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7	Shqetësohem për shëndetin tim	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8	Edhe kur të tjerët dekurajohen, unë mendoj se mund të gjej një zgjidhje për problemin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	Eksperiencat e shkuara më kanë përgatitur mirë të ardhmen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	Kam qenë shumë i/e sukseshëm /me në jetë	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
11	Zakonisht, unë shqetësohem për gjërat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
12	I arrij qëllimet që i vendos vetës	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

WHOQOL-BREF



PROGRAMME ON MENTAL HEALTH
WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
GENEVA

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	Equations for computing domain scores	Raw score	Transformed scores*	
			4-20	0-100
Domain 1	$(6-Q3) + (6-Q4) + Q10 + Q15 + Q16 + Q17 + Q18$ $\square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square$	=		
Domain 2	$Q5 + Q6 + Q7 + Q11 + Q19 + (6-Q26)$ $\square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square$	=		
Domain 3	$Q20 + Q21 + Q22$ $\square + \square + \square$	=		
Domain 4	$Q8 + Q9 + Q12 + Q13 + Q14 + Q23 + Q24 + Q25$ $\square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square + \square$	=		

* Please see Table 4 on page 10 of the manual, for converting raw scores to transformed scores.

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Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

- 7 - Strongly agree
- 6 - Agree
- 5 - Slightly agree
- 4 - Neither agree nor disagree
- 3 - Slightly disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly disagree

_____ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

_____ The conditions of my life are excellent.

_____ I am satisfied with my life.

_____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

_____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

- 31 - 35 Extremely satisfied
- 26 - 30 Satisfied
- 21 - 25 Slightly satisfied
- 20 Neutral
- 15 - 19 Slightly dissatisfied
- 10 - 14 Dissatisfied
- 5 - 9 Extremely dissatisfied