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ИКОНОМИЧЕСКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ – ТИРАНА, АЛБАНИЯ

**МИГРАЦИЯ, ЕМИГРАЦИЯ И ТУРИЗЪМ – ЕФЕКТИ ОТ МИГРАЦИЯТА И  
ЕМИГРАЦИЯТА В ТУРИСТИЧЕСКИТЕ СЕЛА НА РЕГИОНА НА КОРЧА**

**MIGRATION, EMIGRATION AND TOURISM – EFFECTS OF MIGRATION AND  
EMIGRATION AT TOURISTIC VILLAGES IN DISTRICT OF KORÇA**

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**Abstract:** Migration have attached many countries in the world, even the third world countries. This has happened even in Albania from years 1990. Remittances from internal migration and emigration are very important to Albania's economy in general as well as to individual households. According to estimates provided by the Bank of Albania, remittances currently account for a significant percentage of Albania's GDP. Conditions in Albania and in Europe may be producing emigrations rate that exceed those of previous periods. There are several dimensions to migratory patterns-Rural to city, geographic direction and foreign versus domestic. Within each of these dimensions are some generally consistent patterns of migration.

Migration and emigration reflects their effects even in tourism sector. This effects are more touchable in many touristic villages in Albania and district of Korça is one of them.

**Key words:** migration, emigration, remittances

***Historical Perspective in Albania***

As all third world Albania has been attached by migration. In the beginning of the 20-th century Albanian population movements were mainly out of the country in some developed countries as Italy, USA, Australia, etc. After the second world war in the period 1945-1990 Albania was characterized by centrally planned population movements within the country, at times very strictly regulated and at other times not so efficiently enforced. The few studies available on population growth and movement in Albania during this time suggest that internal migration in Albania took place more than conventionally thought. Thus, argues that, despite the po-

licies pursued of containing migration to urban centers, internal migration was taking place; approximately one third of the population growth in urban areas during 1960-87 was due to rural-urban migration. Further suggests that rural-rural migration during the same period was just as important as rural-urban migration, with a significant shift of population from northern and southern rural areas to the rural areas adjoining the main cities in the west and along the coast. Internal migration during 1965-71 occurred as a result of economic developments, industrialization, reforms in agriculture and population pressure due to high natural growth rates. Industrialization, job opportunities, climate and population pressure were identified as some of the factors

that influenced that movement. In 1989 also maintains that, at times, migration took place outside the planned parameters; that is to say, people settled without official authorization or registration, whether in the cities or villages. Arguably, the growth of the peri-urban areas of Tirana experienced a fair amount of such 'unofficial' migration. However, considering the way the whole system worked it is equally possible that this was unlikely. Looking at the attraction of Tirana as a major industrial, administrative and cultural centre these flows contributed to the formation of densely populated 'extra-urban'. This is supported by the suggestion that it was administratively easier for Albanians to move into rural areas than to urban centers. A significant number of these people commuted to the capital, and their aim continued to be settlement in the capital itself. In other words, the frenetic recent migration to Tirana – of which more presently – was not without historical precedent and was so nothing that should have been expected. Therefore, much more could have been done to plan a smoother urban growth than has been the case in the last 10-15 years. All this shows a significant movement from the northern and southern, mountainous areas towards the plains along the coast, mainly in the Tirana-Durres-Elbasan triangle. These tendencies are very similar to the pattern of internal migration observed in the last 19 years between the 1989 and 2008. However, the massive spontaneous internal migration that the country would experience in the last decade had already started in 1991. The confusion over the extent of the increases because many recent migrants are not registered, so their precise numbers are unknown. Moreover, the unplanned nature of this migration and settlement has left the new peri-urban areas quite detached from the towns themselves. This, in turn, blurs the distinction between 'urban' and 'rural' and makes the delimitation of Tirana and other major urban centers rather difficult. Starting in 1990, Albania has witnessed one of the great emigrations of recent times; eighteen years la-

ter at least 1,000,000 Albanians, one in three of the population, were living abroad, mainly in Greece and Italy. An equally significant, but less well-documented internal redistribution of the population has taken place over the same time frame. For internal migration this includes the hyper-rapid growth of the main urban axis, coupled with rural depopulation, especially in the mountainous regions of the north and south of the country. For external migration, depopulation is again an important issue; but equally vital are the effects of remittances on the home country, at a variety of levels, together with the prospects for return migration and the developmental impulse that this might bring.

Albanian migrants working abroad have sent home remittances variously estimated (because of the uncertainty over the volume of unrecorded transfers) to be somewhere between \$300 million and \$1 billion per annum. The remittances sent by one Albanian migrant are equivalent to 2.5 times the sum of the average wages of all members of a family.

### **Chronology of Albanian Migration**

International migration after the fall of the communist regime unfolded in four main episodes:

#### **1. *The 'Embassy Migrants', Summer 1990***

During June–July 1990 around 5,000 Albanians sought refuge in Western embassies in Tirana.

Eventually they were allowed to leave for the West. Italy was the main recipient. The Albanian authorities liberalized the issuing of passports and a small-scale exodus continued. Altogether, from the 'embassy invasion' until early 1991, some 20,000 left.

#### **2. *The Main Mass Exodus, March and August 1991***

Chaos leading up to Albania's first democratic elections (won by the Communists) led to the first 'boat-people' exodus to southern Italy in March 1991; 25,000 migrants were accepted and settled in Italy. A second boat exodus took place in

August, but most of the 20,000 arrivals were repatriated. The Italian authorities argued that whereas the 'first wave' could be treated as refugees fleeing a tense political situation, the 'second wave' arrived after democratic elections and therefore could not be given refugee status. Meanwhile, a larger-scale but no quantified exodus took place to Greece; and clandestine migration continued to Italy. Altogether during 1991–93 an estimated 300,000 Albanians, one in ten of the population, left the country, the vast majority to Greece and Italy.

### 3. *The Pyramid Crisis, Spring 1997*

In the early months of 1997, the collapse of a pyramid scheme for the investment of private

savings (including many emigrants' remittances) led to a period of political and economic turmoil verging on civil war in some parts of the country. This chaos produced another boat exodus to Italy in early spring 1997. Initially 10,600 Albanians were accepted by Italy, but further sea-borne migrations were repulsed, sometimes in tragic circumstances, notably on 29 March 1997, when, as a result of a collision between an Italian coastguard vessel and a boatful of Albanian migrants, 87 people, many of them women and children, lost their lives. As before, larger but unregistered crossings of the Greek border took place. Albanian communities already established by onward migration in other EU countries, such as France, Germany and Belgium, were augmented by new arrivals and the evolving diasporic network spread to the UK.

### 4. *Kosovo Crisis, 1999*

Albania played host to 500,000 ethnic-Albanian Kosovan refugees entering through northern

Albania; some have used Albania as a transit route to seek asylum in other countries, including the UK. The Kosovo refugee crisis destabilized the already fragile economic and demographic situation, especially in northern Albania, and many northern Albanians mixed themselves in with the Ko-

sovo outward migration to other European asylum destinations.

## **Socio-Economic Impact of Migration**

Already in 1995, around a quarter of Albanian families had one or more of their members involved in migration; a third of these had two or more members abroad (Misja and Misja 1995: 225). Migrants were more likely to come from families which were larger than the national average, and generally from rural areas. These figures suggest that it was the most numerous – and thus the economically more vulnerable – families that were first affected by migration. The **scale of remittances**, estimated in the mid-1990s at \$500 million per year – higher if non-recorded transfers are included. As a result emigration has been a major factor in the financial survival of the country since 1990, and in the maintenance and improvement of the livelihood of Albania's population. A tabulation of IMF data on the percentage weight of migrant remittances against exports of goods and services in 1998 places Albania firmly at the top of the list of 30 emigration countries (Visco 2000: 21). The Albanian ratio is 154 percent, followed by Jordan at 43 percent, Bangladesh and Egypt 27 percent, India 21 percent and Morocco 20 percent. A third interesting indicator is provided in a 2002 European Commission discussion document on the migration–development nexus, which puts Albania (along with Mexico and Morocco) amongst those countries which lie in the '**migration band**'. These are countries of low-to-middle income levels (GNP per capita of around \$1,500–1,800) with sustained high emigration which are at present traversing the so-called 'migration hump'. This means that large-scale emigration will continue for some time, but not indefinitely given the generally positive economic indicators. A full analysis of the impacts of migration – both international and internal – on the social and developmental dynamics of Albania would theoretically involve a lengthy and wide-ranging discussion. The extent of this discussion, how

ever, is limited by the available research and documentation, which are still quite sparse, partly due to how recent the mass-migration phenomenon in Albania is and partly also because of its rapidly evolving nature, so that what might have been true in the early or mid-1990s is no longer the case today.

### Migration in Korça Region

Korça region is in south-east of Albania this region is bordered with two foreign countries as Macedonia and Greece. Korça populations moves is done mainly from mountain rural areas to urban centers or from mountain rural areas to low rural areas. This migration of population has come as a result of low economic standard of mountain rural areas, bad infrastructure, bad life conditions. In this areas in years '90 has been destroyed health centers, schools and in some of them cultural centers, cinemas, etc. So life there has become more difficult and a part of people has migrated

in internal areas of the country in urban centers as in Tirana, Durrës, Vlorë and in near towns as Korça, Pogradec, Erseka, Bilisht. Most important flows are from Pogradec (Mokra) and Devolli areas. As a result of populations movements we can see changes in cities and villages. In 1990 about 34% of Korça region's population live in cities and 66% in villages. In 2010 this report has changed to 48% in cities and 52 % in villages. About 41 villages in region now has less than 150 inhabitants. This transformation has becoming rural areas with lower power, low trade services and more difficulties in public services support. From information of population registration in 2007 region of Korça has 47266 less inhabitants as in 1990, even natural growth has been relatively higher. Rural population has declined with over 30% with about 57 500. From rural areas great moves has been from far mountain areas as Gora, Lekas, Moglica, Piskal, Sheqeras, Mokra .

**Table 1. Actual population in region of Korca and forecast until 2015**

Viti	Actual population	Active population
2003	253149	151889
2005	260077	156046
2010	273159	163895
2015	288232	172939

For internal migration from region of Korca to other regions has migrated 27460 people and major destinations are Tirana with 59%, Durrës 15.8%. On the other hand migrant that have come in region of Korca are mainly from Elbasan 8.7% and Berat 4.5%. Major reasons of this moves is living near their family, because they before years '90 were obligated to live in some regions for more reasons (professionally, political reasons, and "where the country needed were"). Migration outside the country from the Korca region are mainly in Greece, USA, Italy, Canada. Migration in USA is created by American lottery or enjoying family because a lot of people from here

have gone in America before 1945. Migration in Canada is created only by Canada lottery. Migration to Greece is usually temporary and is widespread the region, with the majority of the families having one or more members working in Greece. Other interesting patterns of migration are observed is in the Roma community, who migrate as a group, after having decided a group leader. They mostly take up seasonal work, which is a pattern of migration observed amongst Albanians in general, especially when migrating to Greece, and particularly for people living in villages close to the border. Most seasonal work is in agriculture. However, a huge demand for

mainly unskilled labor has been created in Athens, due to the construction of the infrastructure which will support the upcoming Olympic Games in 2004. Those who work seasonally in Greece are not necessarily all unskilled. During the summer holidays many teachers, students and people working in the public sector go to Greece to work for the summer, mainly in agriculture. The earnings of three months' work in Gre-

ece as a manual agricultural laborer are likely to be higher than a year's salary for a village secondary school teacher in Albania. Many who take this option have to support their children at University, which has become close to impossible for families with state salaries, let alone for those who do not have any member of the family employed in the public sector.

**Table 2.Registration of population between 2006-2007**

Districts	Population in 2008	Population in 2010	Diference in %
Devolli	43272	41100	-15,3
Kolonja	24781	17161	-30.75
Korca	177127	142909	-19.32
Pogradeci	91802	70471	-1.36
Total	311448	265182	-14.86

In the Korça district, Gore, Lekas, Moglicë and Vithkuq communes are known to have experienced a high rate of emigration and depopulation and were therefore of particular interest.

**Table 3.Registration of rural population between 2005-2006-2007**

Districts	Rural Population 2008	Rural Population 2009	Popullsia rurale 2010
Korce	142422	112420	102624
Devoll	28225	27971	25200
Kolonje	17805	15600	14281
Pogradec	52426	47054	46075
Total	241578	203025	188180

Migration of population from rural areas even migration in general has positive and negative impacts. Remittances has improved livelihood of regions population those are the second spring after agriculture with 20%,relatively they send 2500 €/person in year. The results of researches carried out in the Korça district, where the households list their first use of remittances as follows: first priority is 70 per cent buy goods for daily consumption, 16.7 per cent improve living conditions, for house accommodation (for buying new furniture and key domestic

appliances such as television sets, washing machines and, less often, small electricity generators) and 10 per cent other facilities this involves various small projects. Secondary priorities are to improve living conditions (31.9 %), buy domestic appliances and finance investments in agriculture (12.8%) as well as family ceremonies (12.8%). As a third choice, or so the survey by Gëdeshi and associates (2003a: 45-46) suggests, 20 per cent of the households save the remittances in a bank account. fact, the same survey goes on to suggest

that 17 per cent of the investments in small and medium size enterprises came from money accumulated while abroad. One other positive priorities is different professional profited from returned migrants in other countries and growth of culture in work. In some families, remittances are used to finance and invest in the educational future of children. In the 'residual families', it is invariably women who seem to have the responsibility for the general and the day-to-day supervision of the education of children, reflecting a gendered subdivision of responsibilities within the house hold. Alongside the obvious use of foreign earnings for the purposes listed above, there is a minority of remittances being used to finance small business projects. In total, 370 households out of 1,315, or 28.1 per cent of the sample, receive remittances from abroad, with a higher percentage of 32 per cent in the rural areas compared to 19.1 per cent in the urban areas. Considering investments

outside the agricultural sector, the great majority in both urban (95.1%, ) and rural (95.3%, ) areas do not use the money from remittances to invest in non-farm business. This is confirmed by the fact that approximately 11 per cent of the members of the Chamber of Commerce in Korça who are owners of small businesses are former migrants to Greece. Finally, as an alternative strategy, the renting or leasing of land could be seen as a worthwhile option. However, the control question showed that very few households (4 - all from rural areas) have actually been able to rent land for the remitted money. The overall impression, therefore, is that the great majority, or 92.7 per cent (217), have not used remittances to improve their access to land. To this should be added that the number of households that use such money for improvements of land already in their possession is small; in the rural zones, where it is slightly higher than in urban areas.

**Table 4 Sources of income as a percentage of total monthly household earnings by areas**

	From public sector	From private non-agricultural sector	From private agricultural sector	Unemployment payment	Economic assistance	From migration	Total income
Urban	24	22	12	4	5	33	100
Rural	20	26	11	4	3	36	100

Data for 2006 show that 14 percent of all families in the Korçë region receive social assistance (INSTAT 2002: 19), which is not in accordance with the total of 4 per cent of economic assistance detected in the commune data. Some touristic areas in this region are villages as Voskopoja, Dardha, Vithkuq, Prespa, Pogradec, Gërmenj, Leskovik. Even in those areas we see that the most of population has migrated at the same direction as the other areas. *Voskopoja* is a touristic village 20 km near Korça city, its wellknown for churches and good climate, was a renowned orthodox pilgrimage centre in the XVIII-th century. All that remains of this prestigious past are six churches

and a monastery. Well preserved externally, the interiors are completely covered with frescoes. Unfortunately, the frescoes have been badly damaged by water infiltration and continue to deteriorate. The most important monuments are :Monastery of Saint Prodhom, Saint Nikolas, Saint Maria, Saint Mehilli, Saint Thanas, Saint De Ilias. In this village the almost population is vlach, 90% of them have migrated in Greece. In this village already 60% of remittances are used for restructuring their houses, 5% investments in agriculture, 20% are investments in touristic sector as hotels, restaurants, bars. Here we see a lot of new houses, hotels, restaurants constructed from people

who have lived before here and live in Korca city or others areas. The problem of touristic sector here is that people there haven't professional skills and needed to be trained so all the staff that works in this sector comes from Korca city. *Vit hkuq* is in southwest of Korca city (26 km), here we have mountainous climate (cold winter, fresh summer). This village has 965 inhabitants (230 families), with three quarters: Grekas, Saraqi, Dukasi. The most important monuments of the village are the churches: Monastery of Saint Peter, Monastery of Saint Nikolas that is reconstructed, Saint Mehilli church, Saint Maria church, Vangelismo church, Sanit Dellia and a build as a new one Saint Nikodhimi church. Even bridges are important as bridge of Zoto at the entrance of village, also a lot of barrels and nature monuments as: Linden of Saint Peter and Oak of Saint Mihal. The inhabitants of *Vithkuq* before have emigrated, even by forming new villages like Mandrica in Bulgaria, Lehova in Greece. Now 40% of the population have migrated in and out of the country. Internal movement are mainly in Korca city and some in Tirana, Vlora, etc. External movements are in direction of Greece or America. In this village tourism is not too much developed there is only one hotel, three restaurants and 16 guest houses. Here we see that this last years there aren't done so much investments by inhabitants even in new houses. Remittances from emigrants are used 50% for houses reconstructs and daily consuming, 30% in agriculture, 15% house accommodation, 5% per cent other facilities this involves various small projects. *Dardha* village is southeast of Korca city (18km), 1350m high. This village has good climate, there we can find hills, mountains, forests, springs all combined in harmony with each other. The most important monuments are church of Athanas and Dirty spring. In this village the major part of the population has migrated in the internal parts of the country as in Tirana, Elbasan, and the other part have gone out of the country almost in Greece and in USA. Now this village is depopulated already is resident 30% of the population. There

are only 3 hotels and some guest houses. Even in this village young people have migrated and touristic sector have problems with finding young and trained staff. *Prespa*. The climate in the Prespa region is temperate-continental, with Mediterranean influence. This climate brings about hot summers with fresh nights and mild winters, which is very favourable for a pleasant and healthy vacation. The climate conditions in the Prespa region constitute an ideal precondition for tourism development throughout the year. If managed in a rational way, the sun, water, wind, land, flora and fauna provide great opportunities for a sustained development of the area. Prepas park is 2,519.1km<sup>2</sup> only 4km<sup>2</sup> are in Albanian part. There are two lake: Macro prespa with a surface of 2594km<sup>2</sup>, Macro Prespa area in Albania belongs to the Korca region and all villages in this area belong to the Liqenas Commune, and the Micro Prespa area belongs to the Devoll District and all the villages of this area belong to the Progër and Q. Bilisht. There is high habitat diversity in the Prespa basin, with a flora of more than 1,500 species. The indigenous fish species are all endemic, while endangered mammals include brown bear *Ursos arctos*, wolf *Canis lupus*, chamois *Rupicapra rupicapra balcanica* and European otter *Lutra lutra*. The area is especially important for waterbirds, notably the largest breeding colony of Dalmatian pelicans *Pelecanus crispus* (listed by IUCN and BirdLife International as Vulnerable) in the world, as well as a substantial number of white pelicans *P. onocrotalus* and pygmy cormorants *Phalacrocorax pygmeus*. The most important elements are Maligrade island, Tren grave, forest of Kallamas. Tourist service is offered in villages of Globoceni and Gorica. There is a hotel only in Liqenas village, offering 10 rooms for tourists and the rest is covered by private houses. In those accommodation facilities, tourists can find traditional food and traditional wine produced by the local people themselves. The tourists coming in this region are mostly from Korea region. The number of tourists visiting the region is at average 1000 visi-

tors per year. Ligenas, a mainly Slavic speaking area the migration of ethnic minorities, especially when that migration is covered by bilateral agreements between neighboring countries regarding minorities. Such is the case of the Macedonian minority in the Prespa area. Influenced by the bilateral agreement of the governments of Albania and Macedonia and the geographical proximity between the two countries, many members of this community shuttle daily between their villages and the villages of Macedonia on the other side of the border. Macedonia is one of the few countries that allows visa-free movement of Albanian citizens in general, but the procedures for this ethnic minority, especially those entering the country for work, are much more flexible and accessible. However, many would prefer to work elsewhere, as the wages in Macedonia are not very satisfactory. Prespa, is the commune where most people have invested their remittances in improvement of land. Similarly, in the rural part of the sample 8.7 per cent have used remittances to purchase farm equipment, or repair their house.

## Conclusion

Migration in tourism have negative and positive impacts. Positive impacts are remittances that comes from emigrants, which we re used for small investments in tourism sector, repairing houses that can be used not only for habitants but also for tourists. All this remittances has improved standard of life even in touristic areas and this will bring improvement in tourism products and services. Negative impacts of migration is the depopulation of the turistic areas so touristic sector needed to be supported by people that live in nearer cities. Almost all touristic villages in district of Korea are characterized by old resident population so the government have to do much work to attract in those areas young people that will be needed to work in touristic sector. Local government must inform the population about the importance of tourism and

positive impacts of this sector. All together public and private sector have to do much work to encourage economic development and new investments in this areas. Remittances can be looked upon as the payment that the source country receives in exchange for lending its human resources. However, the relationship between economic development and inflow of remittances is ambiguous and research in this field has pointed out that remittance flows can have both a positive and a negative impact on the recipient country (Ramamurthy 2003: 63). Nevertheless, those working in this area of research suggest that remittances clearly do raise income levels and recognize their role in alleviating poverty. Macro-data indicate that remittances are indeed critical to Albania, but as is almost invariably the case, national account statistics are difficult to link to micro level patterns and behavior. It has been pointed out in previous research that recipients of remittances are often men. Based on the result from this study, and given that the assumption that the household head is male holds, this finding is confirmed. In urban areas the household head receives remittances to a higher extent than in rural areas, which is probably because there are more rural than urban household heads who have themselves left for work abroad. Only the immediate family gets a share of the remittances. In general families receiving remittances in urban areas wait longer than their rural counterparts before the first transfer of money which can be due to seasonal migration being more common in rural areas. Remittances are to a considerable extent sent on an irregular basis. In the majority of cases remittances are sent back through informal channels. The small number of transfers through formal channels is principally made on behalf of urban citizens. Remittances are in the first place used for daily needs. The second priority of the families is generally housing while the third highest priority use of remittances, other than investments in building or repairing the house, differs across urban and rural households: the former in



vest in schooling while rural households reduce debt or save or invest their remittances. It was further shown that interviewees in rural areas claim that they use the remittances in the first place for daily needs, but since relatively few answered that the remittances have enabled them to buy clothes and food there are reasons to believe that the priority rankings may not stand up to scrutiny if checked against actual behavior. The fact that remittances are used only to a relatively small extent to pay off debts indicates that people do not incur debt in order to pay for the cost of migration. Conversely, this implies that families who can not afford the costs of migration are likely to stay in Albania. Especially in rural areas, remittances are used for investments in agriculture which may lead to higher productivity in the agricultural sector. As regards housing investments, there are more re-

cipients who use the remittances to repair or build a house than use the money to buy a house. As assessed by household characteristics, it is difficult to distinguish between remittance-receiving and non-receiving households. Thus, while the exterior condition of a dwelling may well serve to distinguish the receiving household from the non-receiving one, thereby indicating that remittances are associated with those better off, the opposite result received in analysing interior standard and access to consumer durables suggests that an association between access to remittances and material well-being is ambiguous at best. Put differently, the data do not fully support the hypothesis that remittances would help to establish the dividing line between poor and non-poor households.

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