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Submissions

SEEU Review aims to provide an international forum for research, analysis, and debate from a broad range of fields, such as: economics, law, public administration, education, language and linguistics, philosophy, sociology and environmental health sciences. SEEU Review will accept the following types of articles for consideration: research, position papers, white papers, and reviews.

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Sections of the article should follow this order: Cover page, Abstract, Body & References.

All submissions will be requested via an open Call for Papers. The Call may be completely open or based on a specific theme, based on the decision of the Editor-In-Chief of the SEEU Review. To assure the highest standards for the publication, all manuscript submissions will be refereed through a peer review process. Additionally, all manuscripts will be subject to review for plagiarism. The preferred language for manuscripts is English, but submissions in Albanian and Macedonian may be considered under specific requests.

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Manuscripts/research papers should be submitted to the Editor via review@seeu.edu.mk

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Foreword • Hyrje • Предговор

Welcome to the seventh issue of the SEEU Review. In this issue we have a range of contributions from within SEEU and from colleagues working in the region, the majority of the articles linking in to ongoing developments at SEEU or in the Republic of Macedonia. We have tried to be as inclusive as possible in accepting articles from senior established researchers alongside those from younger writers describing some of the interesting work in teaching and learning strategies taking place in SEEU.

We welcome as well the academic collaboration with staff of other universities. SEEU is an open institution, having strong and developing links with other institutions, both in the region and further afield.

Finally we wish to thank our staff for their commitment and dedication. We thank Prof. Dennis Farrington, President of the SEEU Board for his prompt and excellent advice and other SEEU colleagues that have been involved in this issue .

The call for the next issue of the Review will be published of July, with a target date of November/ December 2009 for the eighth issue.



Mirë se erdhët në numrin e shtatë të SEEU Review. Në këtë numër, kemi një varg kontributesh nga brenda UEJL-së dhe nga kolegët që punojnë në rajon, shumica e të cilëve kanë të bëjnë me zhvillimet e fundit në UELJ, por edhe në Maqedoni. Jemi përpjekur që të jemi sa më përfshirës në pranimin e artikujve nga hulumtuesit më me përvojë deri te ata më të rinjtë, duke përshkruar një pjesë të punës interesante në strategjitë e mësimdhënies dhe mësimnxënies, që ndodhin në UEJL.

Ne mirëpresim po ashtu edhe bashkëpunimin akademik me stafin e universiteteve të tjera. UEJL është një institucion i hapur që ka bashkëpunim të mirë me institucionet tjera, si në rajon ashtu edhe më gjerë.

Në fund, duam ta falënderojmë stafin tonë për angazhimin dhe përkushtimin. Falënderojmë Prof. Dennis Farrington, president i Bordit të UEJL-së, për këshillat e tij shtytëse dhe të shkëlqyera, dhe po ashtu

falënderojmë të gjithë kolegët që janë angazhuar për daljen në dritë të këtij numri të revistës shkencore.

Konkursi për numrin e ardhshëm të Revistës do të shpallet në fillim korrikut, ndërsa në Nëntor/Dhjetor 2009 do të publikohet numri i tetë i revistës.



Oва е седмото издание на Научниот магазин на ЈИЕУ - *SEEU Review*. Овој број на магазинот содржи повеќе прилози од ЈИЕУ, како и од колеги кои работаат во регионот, при што поголемиот дел од статиите се поврзани со тековните развојни случувања на ЈИЕУ или во Република Македонија. Се обидовме да вклучиме што е можно повеќе статии од постари докажани истражувачи, како и помлади автори кои опишуваат дел од интересната активност на стратегиите за предавање и учење на ЈИЕУ.

Ние исто така ја поздравуваме академската соработка со кадарот од другите универзитети. ЈИЕУ е отворена институција која има јаки и развојни врски со другите институции во регионот и пошироко.

На крајот, им се заблагодаруваме на нашиот кадар за нивната посветеност и ангажираност. Им се заблагодаруваме на проф. Денис Фарингтон, Претседателот на Одборот на ЈИЕУ за неговите навремени и одлични совети, и на сите колеги кои помогнаа да се издаде овој број на списанието.

Повикот за доставување трудови за следното издание на Научниот магазин ќе се објави на почетокот на јули. Осмото издание на Научниот магазин се очекува да излезе од печат во ноември/ декември 2009 година.

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Lead concentration and δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities in the liver of the frog (*rana ridibunda pall*) in polluted environment

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Abstract

Great achievements of the human kind in the field of science, techniques and technology which are enabling a richer and more secure life in our planet have resulted in serious pollution of the environment. Related to this we should stress that there is enormous pollution of the environment, especially with heavy metals such as lead, cadmium and mercury.

Abstrakt

Arritjet e mëdha të njeriut në fushën e shkencës, teknologjisë dhe teknikave, të cilat kanë bërë të mundur një jetë më të pasur dhe më të sigurt në planetin tokë, ku edhe kanë rezultuar në ndotjen serioze të mjedisit. Në lidhje me këtë, ne duhet të theksojmë se ekziston një ndotje e madhe e mjedisit, veçanërisht me metale të rënda siç janë kadmiumi dhe mercuri.

Абстракт

Големите достигнувања на човековиот род во областа на науката, техниката и технологијата кои обезбедуваат побогат и побезбеден живот на нашата планета резултираа во посериозно загадување на животната средина. Според ова, може да заклучиме дека има огромно загадување на животната средина особено од тешките метали како што се оловото, кадмиумот и живата.

Introduction

Lead (Pb) is a metal of wide use in the industry of automobile batteries, in the production of alkaline lead, industry of colours, production of alloys etc.; even now the production of lead is still growing in a progressive way. According to Klienert (R.1971) for the last 80 years (1890-1970) world wide production of lead for one year increased by eight times, respectively from 0.5 tonnes in 1890 to 3.786 tonnes in 1969. In favour of this affirmation are data from historical monitoring. Lead analyses done in the old ice layers in Greenland, show that the concentration of lead is increased from 0.02 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ in the 17th century up to 0.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ in the 1970's (Murozum and others 1961).

The data of the World Health Organization (WHO 1985), for 1984 shows that in the European Union countries the average annual concentration of lead (Pb) in the air is progressively increasing in the rural environments from (0.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) up to (1.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in the small urban environments and in metropolises (2.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and in some key conjunctions with dense traffic lead concentration is 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (time after time its value is 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

This contemporary pollution is not only present in the accumulation of different toxic materials in the organism, but it has negatively influenced the general health state of humans, flora and fauna. In relation to this, in contrast to early times when toxicology as a science first of all was related to clinics or medicine, respectively work hygiene (clinic and industrial toxicology), unfortunately in contemporary times it has a more ecological character (ecological toxicology). The task of ecological toxicology is to research the harmful effects of the different chemical toxins present in water, air, earth

and etc which do harm not only in an individual aspect but as well in the ecological plan. All these reasons have effected the organization of monitoring systems and which is the main task of eco-toxicology. One aspect of special importance is biological monitoring, which in comparison with physico-chemical monitoring (factor monitoring) has a special advantage because it expresses the cumulative review of actual pollution of one environment. As it is known (Holdgate M.V. 1979; Rozhaja D. 1980), in the frames of biological monitoring special accent is given to the level of accumulation of the different toxic materials (monitoring of accumulation) and different indication through observation of the effects in bio-chemic, pathological, ideological and synecological (monitoring of effects) plan. In the frames of biological monitoring special importance is given to adequate selection of the organs which accumulate toxins (bones in case of poisoning with cadmium, etc) or sensitive specific indicators of different toxic materials (activity of δ -aminolevulinic enzyme in the blood in case of poisoning with lead).

Considering lead (Pb) as a protoplasmatic poison with a wide spectrum of action then is worth mentioning that its pathological action is expressed in all systems of organisms. In the level of cell metabolism lead inhibits the enzymes whose activities depend on the sulphurous groups. Lead reacts in sulphurous groups in a manner that substitutes hydrogen, blocks them and makes them unsuitable for the enzyme, whose activities depend from free sulphurous groups.

One of the most illustrative examples of the effect of lead inhibition is the case of disorder of biosynthesis of the poison and first of all dehydrate enzyme of δ -aminolevulinic acid, which inhibition today is considered as one of the most sensitive indicators of poisoning and is one the causes of anaemic syndrome.

In relation to δ -aminolevulinic acid it is worth mentioning that its inhibition is noted as in the case of professional poisoning (Beretic and others 1977, Prpic-Majic 1972) and in the blood of turtles caught close to the lead smelter near Zvečan (Elezaj I and others 1989), blood of laboratory hens and mice exposed to above mentioned pollution (Elezaj I and others 1989). The activities of δ -aminolevulinic acid are present not only in the blood of the intoxicated animals with lead but as well in the tissue of hepato-pancreas of the snail *Arion ater* (Ireland, 1984); liver, kidney and brain of the rabbit (Scheilla, 1970) and in the liverr and kidneys of urban pigeons (Hutton and Goodman, 1983).

POLLUTED AREA OBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

Our research work has taken place in the naturally polluted area where frogs (*Rana rindibunda*, Pall), hunted near the Metallurgical Combine “Trepça” in Zvečan, district of Mitrovica in Kosovo.

Related to this we should stress that the Metallurgical Combine “Trepça” in Zvečan makes Mitrovica one of the most polluted towns in Europe and maybe even further afield.

Main polluters of the air that come out from the chimneys of this Kosovo giant are: lead dust (66-67%), zinc (8.4%) and sulphates (25%). Beside these other pollutants are present in small amounts, such as arsenic, manganese, cadmium etc.

The gathered data show that the pollution of the air with lead in the region each year is increasing in a progressive manner. In order to illustrate for example we are giving some data gathered by Dragojevic, according to him concentration of lead in the air of this region during the period of the year 1973/74, is from $2.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (in July) up to $20 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (in October-November). In July 1981 concentration of the lead achieved the value up to $97.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, this amount is many times higher than the amount of lead (1.8 - $4.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in the air in some world metropolises, with heavier industry and more dense traffic than Mitrovica in Kosovo, for example Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Cincinnati etc, which is as result of enormous amounts of a spent gasoline, where lead tetraethyl has been used as an additive.

MATERIALS AND USED METHODS

This research work has taken place in the natural population of frogs (*Rana ridibunda*, Pall), in order to prove the effects of air pollution based on the influence of lead metallurgy in bioaccumulation of δ -aminolevulinic acid in the liver.

The used animals in the experiment were caught in October 1990, near the Combine “Trepça” in Zvečan.

As a control group we used frogs caught near the village Babush near town Lipjan in Kosovo (approximately 45 km air distance with Zveçan).

Scarification of the animals was done on the day of their capture.

DETERMINATION OF LEAD (PB)

Determination of lead concentration has been done according to the method of atomic spectrometry of absorption with flame (ASA) according to Blanusha (Blanusha and Breshki, 1981).

Preparation of samples:

First the frogs were sacrificed, then their livers were removed and dried in filtering paper from the over plus fluid.

Prepared samples have been measured and put in Erlenmeyer, where the same ones have been measured and dried in temperature of 105⁰C for at least 12 hours and after the drying process again have been measured.

After the Erlenmeyer with dried samples were measured, then after they were put in the electric oven for total cremation during 24 hours at 300⁰C, the temperature has been increased gradually. In this phase a special care was given to gradual increasing of the temperature of the electric oven, because if the temperature was increased at once then the samples would have been destroyed. Next day the temperature of the electric oven gradually was increased up to 450⁰C, in which case the samples continued to be cremated for next 24 hours with same temperature in the oven. After the cooling of oven the Erlenmeyer together with samples were measured and at the same time the whitening of samples was done by adding redistilled nitrogen acidity 67% (1 ml. 67% nitric acid per 1 gram dry weight) by heating in a heating tile. When samples were dry and cold again they were put in the oven in 450⁰C for some hours. Then the samples were softened and were carried in standard vessels of 10 ml, which were filled with redistilled water up to the mark and with the add of the redistilled nitrogen acidity in the end the dissolution contained 10% nitric acid. Dissolutions prepared in this manner were absorbed directly in the flames of the atomic absorbing spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer 370 A) and then the absorption of lead (Pb) as noted. Analysed lead concentration has been determined based

on the scaled curved line and calculation in grams of the dry tissue analysed weight.

Calibration has been done with the standard method of adding lead in water.

D-ALA ANALYSES OF LIVER

For analyses of D-ALA in liver approximately 200mg tissue were taken and homogenized through homogenizer (hand homogenizer from glass) during cooling in cold porphyrin-phosphate (1439 ml 0.0666 M KH_2PO_4 and 1000 ml 0.0264 M Na_2HPO_4) pH=6.4 which contains 0.01 M reduced glutathione (GSH). The homogenized sample was transferred in vessels of 10 ml and was filled with porphyrin-phosphate up to the mark. Homogenized sample later was centrifuged in 5000 rotation during 15 minutes. Clear supernatant (0.4 ml) is used for analyses of D-ALA. Activity of D-ALA is calculated through regressive curve line gained through known concentration of synthetic porphobylinogen "sigma".

Precisely 1.0mg PBG is dissolved in 5 ml deionised water (20 μg PBG/ml. Then is prepared series of concentration of PBG in the initial dissolution for analyses (liver 50 μg PBG/5ml).

Regressive curve line had this formula:

$$(D - ALA = 0.00329 + \frac{A}{0.0124}) ..$$

RESEARCH RESULTS

Results of our research work are about the influence of lead (Pb) in liver and the δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities (D-ALA) and presented in table number 1.

From table number 1 it clearly can be seen that lead concentration in the liver of the frogs from polluted environment is at a significantly higher level ($p < 0.01$) compared with the control group (table number 2).

Beside this our results show that the δ -aminolevulinic acid enzyme dehydratase activities in the liver of the frogs from polluted environments is at a significantly higher level ($p < 0.001$) compared with the control group (table number 3)..

Table1. Lead concentration and δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities in the liver of the frog (*Rana ridibunda* Pall) in polluted environment.

Environment	Pb $\mu\text{g/g m.th}$	D-ALA $\mu\text{mol PGB mg/g proteins}$
Polluted (Zveçan)	12.0 ± 7.5 (10)	1.9 ± 0.4 (10)
Not polluted (Babush)	$4.7 \pm 2.6^{**}$ (10)	$3.9 \pm 0.9^{***}$ (10)

Table 2. Lead concentration ($\mu\text{g/g}$ of a dry mass) in the liver of the frog (*Rana ridibunda* Pall.) in polluted environment (Zveçan)

Number	Polluted environment dx^2		Not polluted environment dx^2	
1.	11.8	0.04	4.6	0.01
2.	8.5	12.25	5.06	0.129
3.	12.45	0.20	3.8	0.81
4.	4.23	60.37	7.7	9.0
5.	9.04	8.76	2.98	2.9584
6.	15.5	12.25	2.48	4.9284
7.	16.18	17.47	7.3	6.76
8.	6.67	28.41	3.42	1.6384
9.	30.55	344.1	9.1	19.36

10.	6.84	26.6	0.57	17.0569
	$\bar{X} = 12.0$ ± 7.5	$\sum dx^2 510$	$\bar{X} = 4.7$ ± 2.6	$\sum dx^2 62.651$

Table 3. δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities ($\mu\text{mol PGB mg/g}$ proteins) in the liver of the frog (*Rana ridibunda* Pall) in polluted environment (Zvečan)

Number	Polluted environment dx^2		Not polluted environment dx^2	
1.	2.1	0.0289	4.6	0.5476
2.	1.3	0.3967	4.88	1.0404
3.	1.8	0.0169	4.13	0.0729
4.	2.0	0.0049	4.62	0.05776
5.	2.8	0.7569	2.40	2.1316
6.	1.7	0.04	2.50	1.8496
7.	1.9	0.0009	4.91	1.1025
8.	2.0	0.0049	3.70	0.0256
9.	2.0	0.0049	4.06	0.04
10.	1.7	0.04	2.8	1.21
	$\bar{X} = 1.93$ ± 0.37	$\sum dx^2 1.291$	$\bar{X} = 3.9$ ± 0.97	$\sum dx^2 8.5114$

Conclusions

Based on our research activities about the bioaccumulation of lead (Pb) as heavy metal and δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities in the liver of the frog (*Rana ridibunda* Pall) in polluted environment near Combine “Trepča”, Zvečan is noted the following:

Evident increase of lead in the liver, and

Evident inhibition of the δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase activities

(D-ALA) in the liver of the frog (*Rana ridibunda* Pall)

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Opinions and attitudes of young people in a modern society

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Abstract

In spite of generally worsened economical and social conditions, the opinions and attitudes of young Macedonians show slightly increased optimism. This may be contributed to increased competition in educational system and partially re-established humanistic values and ideals in the visions of young people.

If we compare our society with the French one, the main task which should be solved is providing a way for crucial changes in the system to alleviate the problems of the young people which remain the moving force and the future of a country toward stability, security and prosperity.

Key words: young people, oppinions, problems, attitudes, socie.

Abstrakt

Me gjithë kushtet e përkeqësuar ekonomike dhe sociale përgjithësisht, opinionet dhe sjelljet e të rinjve maqedonas tregojnë një rritje të lehtë optimizmi. Kësaj mund t'i ketë kontribuar gara e rritur në sistemin arsimor dhe pjesërisht rilindja e vlerave humanistike dhe idealeve në vizionet e të rinjve.

Në qoftë se e krahasojmë shoqërinë tonë me atë franceze, detyra jonë kryesore e cila duhet të zgjidhet është trasimi i rrugës për ndryshime të dukshme në sistem, për të lehtësuar problemet e të rinjve, të cilët mbeten forca lëvizëse dhe e ardhmja e një vendi drejt stabilitetit, sigurisë dhe prosperitetit.

Fjalët kyçe: të rinjtë, opinionet, problemet, sjelljet, shoqëria

Апстракт

Покрај општо влошените економски и социјални услови, мислењата и ставовите на младите Македонци покажуваат малку зголемен оптимизам. Ова можеби е резултат на зголемената конкуренција во образовниот систем и делумно повторно воспоставените хуманитарни вредности и идеали во визиите на младите луѓе.

Доколку го споредиме нашето општество со француското општество, главната задача која треба да се реши е да се обезбеди начин за круцијални промени во системот со цел да се ублажат проблемите на младите луѓе кои се движечката сила и иднината на земјава кон стабилност, безбедност и просперитет.

Клучни зборови: млади луѓе, мислења, проблеми, ставови, општество.

Introduction

In 2000, at the start of the new millennium, we conducted research concerning various relevant attitudes and opinions of young people in Macedonia. The results were compared with the results of a similar study realized in France, in 1999. Nine years later, we have repeated the study using the same methodology.

This article is concerned with the comparative analysis and discussion of the results obtained in both investigations. The motive of repeating the research was some relevant changes in our society in the last decade. As a country dealing with very long period of transition, we have been faced with an economic crisis (especially in the last years), some political ambivalence, and changes in the educational system, as well as increased interests for culture heritage. Unemployment is still the main problem, the percentage being nearly 35%. The economic power of the people is diminished, and many factories and private businesses are closed.

Secondary education became obligatory, with many reforms in pedagogic methodology and programmes. Religious education was introduced in the

primary school system. Many new private high school and faculties offered strong competition to the state institutions. The culture is changed with antique (archeological findings, reconstruction of history, accentuation of roots etc). People changed some long-lasting traditions, family and social living, ethical values and economic order.

The general educational level is poor, main information is obtained through TV, radio and newspapers. On the other side, the freedom and objectivity of journalism is questionable. There is very small interest in reading books, visiting theatres, classical music performances etc. Friendship has lost importance, and people are generally more depressed, hopeless, and helpless. The consumption of cigarettes, alcohol and drugs is increasing. Public restaurants stay open very late into the night. Despite the economic crisis, most young people are out of their homes every night, spending a lot of time in cafés, discos, without any serious engagement. The number of marriages is decreasing. All these indicators were additional motives for organizing this research.

Sample and methodology

Our poll comprised 325 respondents from Skopje, mean age 18.80 ± 2.78 years, both sexes, pupils from secondary state schools and students. The poll was anonymous and in written form, with answers being circled. The same 12 questions, as in the previous investigation (in 2000), with multiple choice answers were applied. [Pop-Jordanova N., 2000, Gurrey B. et Subtil M.P, 1999] From the methodological point of view, the samples are comparable in number, age, gender and place of living. Answers obtained for both Macedonian samples (2000 and 2009) were compared with the answers obtained for in the 1999 French study.

Results and discussion

To the question: "How do you feel in modern society?" we obtained the answers presented in Table 1:

Table 1. How do you feel in modern society?

Quite good	Not bad	Bad	
5%	40%	55%	Macedonian '09
35%	58%	7%	Macedonian'00
20%	70%	10%	French '99

Answers are more pessimistic in the second research concerning Macedonians. The percentage of the answer “bad” is several times bigger then in the first study.

Unemployment is cited as the most serious problem that young people face in both Macedonian and French polls (Fig. 1). Drugs, money, and alcohol are cited also as very important problems in the first Macedonian research. The second one shows some changes: unemployment is still the biggest problem, followed by drugs and having no money. It is surprising that violence, alcohol and AIDS as perceived problems diminished in percentage terms compared with the first study. In reality, these problems are still very serious, especially unemployment, although all percentages have considerably diminished.

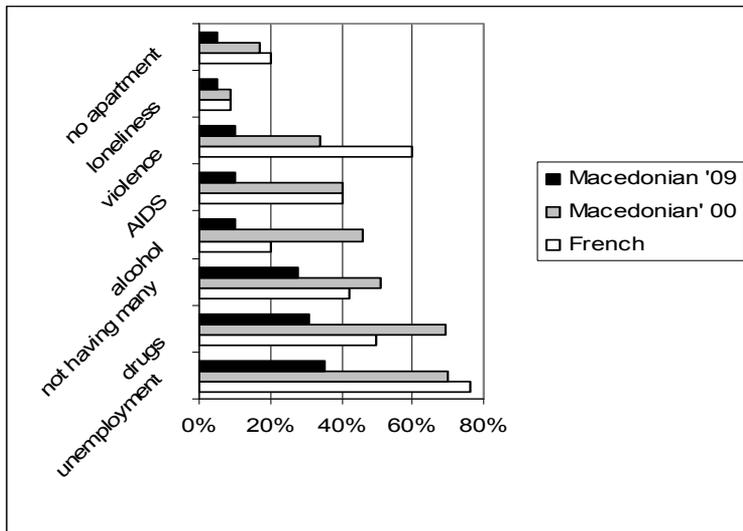


Figure 1: The most serious problems that young people face

The value systems and the ranking of human values are very important for the young population. Figure 2 presents what are the most important values among young people- compared between the three polls (one French and two Macedonian). In the questionnaire, a choice between most important (3), important (2), moderate importance (1) and no importance (0) was demanded. On the figure only values chosen as the most important (3) are displayed.

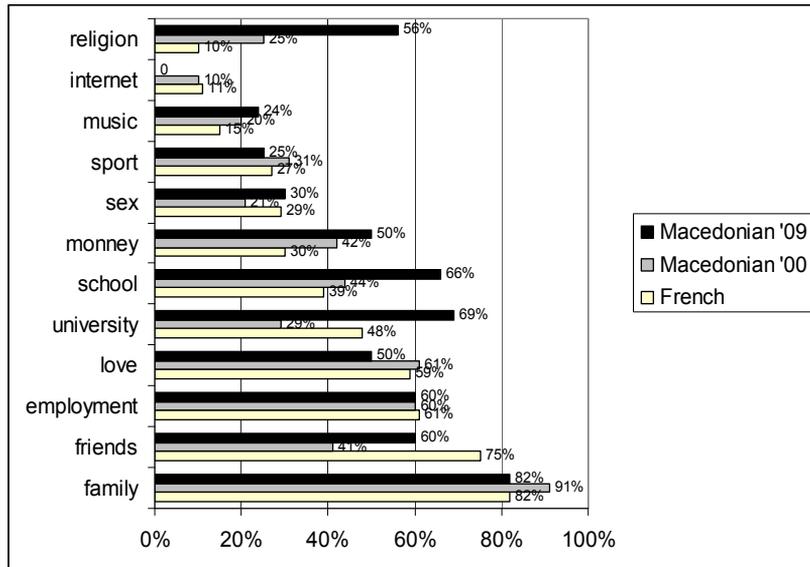


Fig. 2: Values that have the most important place

As can be seen, the family was and stays the most important for young people. In the era of alienation, it is important that young people believe in the family and the support of family members in life. It is very interesting that Macedonian in the second study ranked the university and school very high (69% and 66% respectively); comparable to friends (75%) in the French poll. An interesting finding is that in Macedonians the ranking for religion is doubled (from 25% to 39%), and for internet tripled (from 10 to 30%). A deeper analysis of these changes is needed.

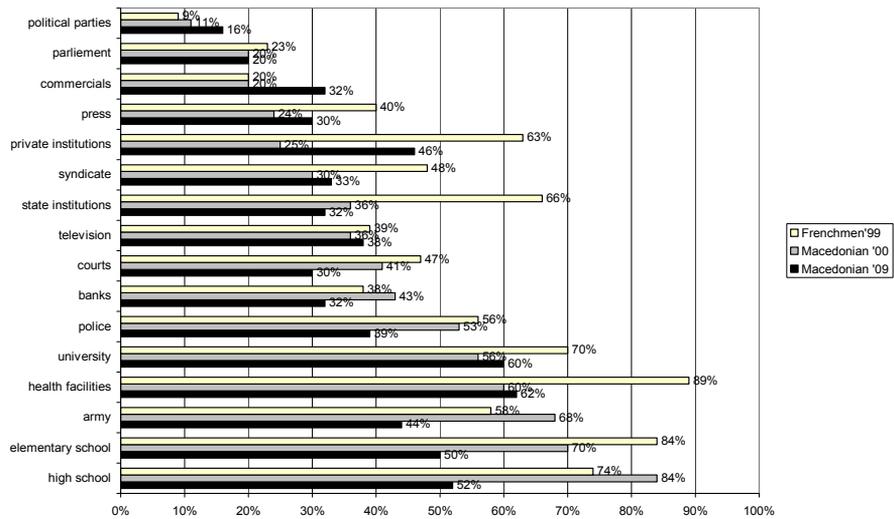


Fig. 3: Trust in institutions

The next question was about the trust in society's institutions (Fig.3). French young people have the greatest trust in the health system, the schools and the university. Apart from here, young people in Macedonia had in the first study the greatest trust in the schools, the army and the health system. The second study showed some changes in trust: health facilities stayed very high in the ranking, together with university, but private institutions appeared to be quite highly rated as well. By contrast, trust in the army, police and courts is going down. In both populations the lowest rating refers to confidence in political parties and parliament.

The security that a young person feels about his future in his/her own country is different. In the first study, Macedonian feel secure only in 24%; in the second study this percent is rising to 43% which gives some optimism. Contrary, French people feel very secure their own country (61%). The feeling of insecurity is related to the phenomenon of brain drain. In the last few years the impression is that brain drain is slowing. The reason could be partially the consequence of difficulties related to obtain visa for abroad.

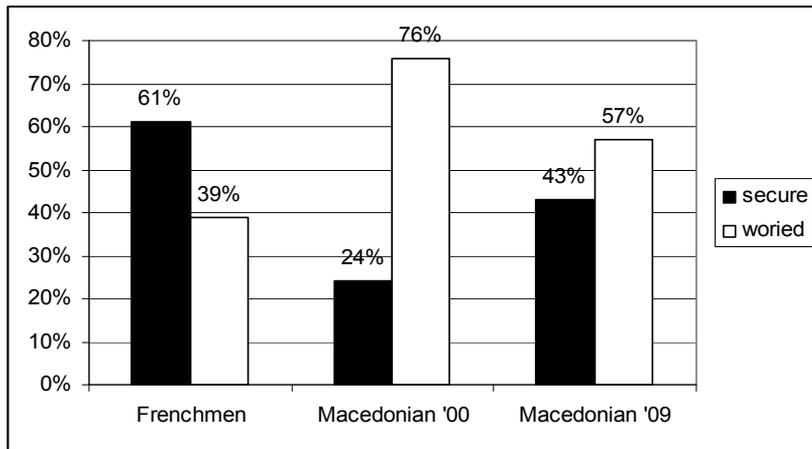


Fig. 4: When you think about future do you feel secure or you are worried?

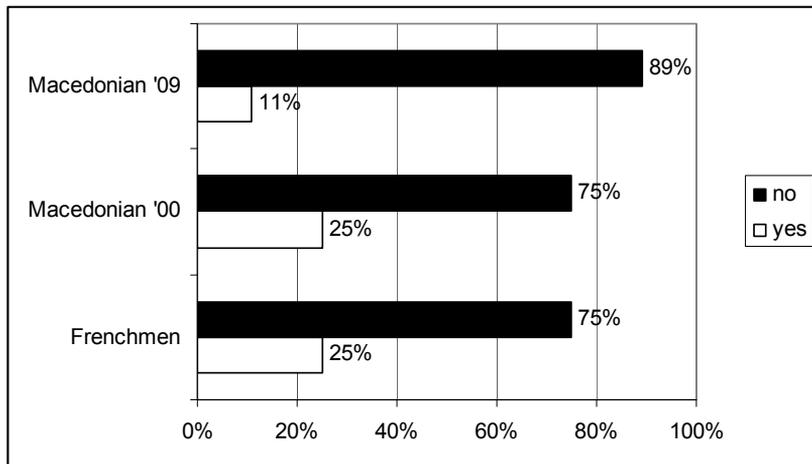


Fig. 5: Do you believe that modern society gives enough opportunities for success, if you come from a family without connections or from a poor one?

Every day we talk about nepotism, corruption and connections. The answers obtained from both samples a decade ago do not differ. Namely, most Macedonian and French young people believed that modern society does not give enough opportunities for success, if one comes from a family without connections or from a poor one. Actually, in both countries the possibilities for the young are not great if their families do not have influence or if they are not rich. Moreover, in the present study a negative change in Macedonians has been registered.

If the ordinary young person has minimum chances to succeed without the support of the family (material, connections) than what would they suggest to be changed? The following question was: Should the society in which they live: a) remain as it is; b) be radically changed; c) undergo crucial reforms or d) have the important areas remain the same and only some segments reformed. (Fig.6)

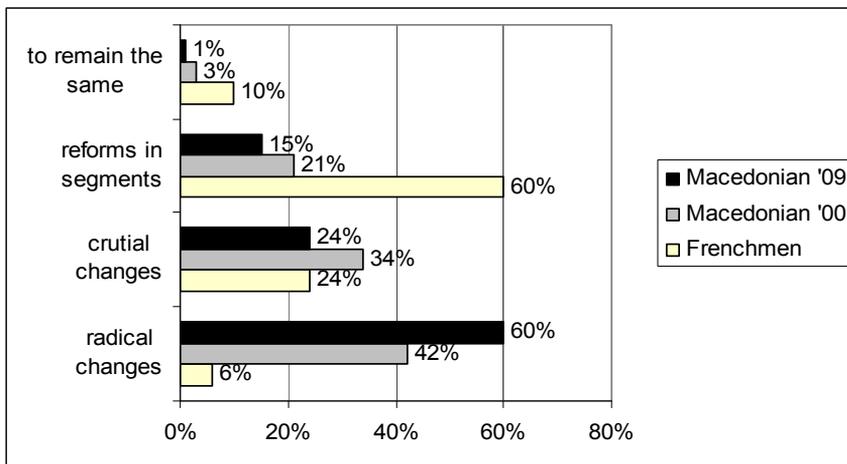


Fig.6: Should there be changes in the society?

60% of Macedonians in the second study proposed radical changes which is impressively different from the answers of French respondents, only 6% of whom proposed radical changes in society. Only 1-3% of Macedonians answered the society should remain as it is.

In the last two decades (period of the transformation of Yugoslavia into independent states and transition to a market economy system) social differences among the young people become especially pronounced.

Practically all respondents in Macedonia answered that the social differences are clearly visible (95%), which is far less than the opinion expressed in French society (the respective score was 60%). The causes for the social fracture between young populations, ranked according to their answers, are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Ranking of the causes for social fracture

	Frenchmen	Macedonian '00	Macedonian '09
Social origin	III	I	I
Employment	I	II	III
Educational level	IV	III	II
Habitation	II	IV	IV

Social origin was and stays the first reason for social fracture in Macedonian youth, while for the French employment is in first place. Educational level in Macedonian rose to second place, while habitation was least important, as opposed to the French who gave habitation the second place. In general, we can conclude that Macedonian young people mainly differ according to their social origin and educational level.

Table 3: What does the educational system offer to you?

	Frenchmen	Macedonian '00	Macedonian '09
To learn a lot	91%	28%	40%
To obtain general culture	82%	35%	35%
To learn a craft	75%	37%	25%

For the French the educational system offers knowledge, general culture and then professional capability. For Macedonians in the second study the ranking is the same, but in a much smaller percentage (Table 3). Still, the comparison of numbers should be considered as conditional, since in the

case of Macedonians questions were put disjunctively, whereas for the French conjunctively.

The following question was: Is it important to be a member of a political party? (Table 4)

There is now widespread recognition that, far from being politically apathetic, young people across Europe are engaged in a wide range of 'political' activities. While turnout at national and European elections among the 18-25 age group may be low, researchers have highlighted diverse and creative new forms of political participation. [Henn, M, 2005, Brooks R.,2008; Wondwosen T., 2009]

During the last decade, the political parties in Macedonia have had a very important impact on society. Consequently, in the second research, 42% of Macedonians answered yes to this question, while 58% answered no. It is obvious that Macedonian young people are very concerned about the importance and the impact of politics in everyday life. In young French these answers were 27% for yes and 73% for no. Previously, political engagement and its interest were not very high amongst both French and Macedonian populations. (Table 4).

Table 4: Is it important to be member of a political party?

	Frenchmen	Macedonian' 00	Macedonian '09
Yes	27%	22%	42%
No	73%	78%	58%

The choice of the profession obviously is a matter of personal initiative; few young people chose the type of school or their profession according to their parent's suggestion, which demonstrates a high degree of emancipation. It is impressive that there is an increased percentage of Macedonians (93%) which confirmed free will in professional orientation (Table 5).

Table 5: Do you choose what will you study/do?

	Frenchmen	Macedonian '00	Macedonian '09
Yes	85%	88%	93%
No	15%	12%	7%

Generally, young people in both countries agree that the society they live in is corrupt, there are big social differences, the problem of aggression and protectionism is rising and unemployment is more accentuated in Macedonia than in the previous period. Chances for buying an apartment are minimal. The basic motivator of modern life is money. Still, the answers are not so pessimistic.

Summary: Comparison of changes 2000/2009 in Macedonian young people

Question	2000 / 2009
How do you feel	Worse
Unemployment	Better
Most important values	Same
Trust in institutions	Worse
Security	Worse
Opportunities	Better
Radical changes	More needed

Social fracture	Same
Educational system	Same
Involvement in politic	More
Choice of study	more freedom

Conclusions

In spite of generally worsened economic and social conditions, the opinions and attitudes of young Macedonians show slightly increased optimism. This may be attributed to increased competition in the educational system and partially to re-established humanistic values and ideals in the visions of young people.

If we compare our society with the French one, the main task which should be solved is providing a way for crucial changes in the system to alleviate the problems of the young people which remain the moving force and the future of a country toward stability, security and prosperity. In this sense, some particular recommendations, which arise from this research, would be: (a) providing work on the basis of genuine principles and not by nepotism and corruption; (b) lowering the social differences among the young people and the loss of perspective, which would also indirectly diminish the challenge of consuming drug, alcohol and other stress-reducing substances; and (c) crucial reforms in the social system to provide a healthier state, by which the brain drain phenomenon would be also minimized so that the intellectual potential would stay for use in its own country.

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Establishing a framework of RISK MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

In a global context, where there is considerable change and uncertainty, the concept of risk management can provide a systematic approach to the handling of multiple risks. Whereas, risks are usually regarded as negative or adverse, some can also have a positive side, leading to opportunities. Any risk management framework should be able to handle both aspects. Many universities now regard risk management as an integral part of good governance and management, with the handling of risk integrated into the framework of general management. With this approach the process can lead to a culture in which stakeholders become risk aware as opposed to risk averse. At its centre, risk assessment can employ a range of qualitative and quantitative techniques, all demanding timely and accurate data. Throughout, risk communication is a key element of the process. To counter any tendency towards excessive bureaucracy, some central direction will be necessary to focus priorities on the upper end of the risk spectrum. For practitioners, there is no shortage of guidance. In addition to several national standards, the new ISO 31000 is planned for launch in mid 2009. Anthony Kimber looks at what is involved in establishing an integrated risk management framework in a university, and importantly the benefits to be gained.

Abstrakt

Në një kontekst global, ku ka ndryshim të konsiderueshëm dhe pasiguri, koncepti i menaxhimit të rrezikut mund të sigurojë një qasje sistematike për trajtimin e rreziqeve të shumta. Ndërkohë, rreziqet, zakonisht konsiderohen si negative, por disa mund të kenë, gjithashtu një anë pozitive, që shpie kah mundësitë. Çdo kornizë e menaxhimit të rrezikut duhet të jetë e aftë për të trajtuar dy aspekte. Shumë universitete, tani, sa i përket menaxhimit të rrezikut, si një pjesë e mirë e qeverisjes dhe menaxhimit, kanë filluar me trajtimin e rrezikut të integruar në kornizën e përgjithshëm të menaxhimit. Me këtë qasje, procesi mund të çojë në një kulturë në të cilën palët e interesuara bëhen të vetëdijshëm ndaj rrezikut kundrejt rrezikut të urrejtës. Në qendër të saj, vlerësimi i rrezikut mund të angazhojë një sërë të teknikave sasiore dhe cilësore, duke kërkuar të gjitha të dhënat e sakta dhe në kohë. Gjatë tërë kësaj, rreziku i komunikimit është një element i rëndësishëm i procesit. Për t'u përballur me çdo tendencë drejt burokracisë së tepërt, disa udhëheqës qendror duhet t'i përqendrojnë prioritetet e mësipërme në një fund të mësipërm të spektrit të rrezikut. Për praktikantët, nuk ka mungesë të udhëzimeve. Përveç disa standardeve kombëtare, ISO 31000 i ri, është planifikuar për të nisur nga mesi vitit 2009. Anthony Kimber e sheh atë që është përfshirë në krijimin e një kuadri të integruar të menaxhimit të rrezikut në një universitet dhe me rëndësi të përfitohen beneficione.

Апстракт

Во глобален контекст, онаму каде што постои значителна промена и несигурност, концептот за управување со ризикот може да обезбеди систематски пристап за справување со повеќекратните ризици. Додека, на ризиците се гледа како негативни или неповолни, некои може да имаат и позитивна страна и да водат до одредени можности. Секоја рамка за управување со ризикот треба да може да се справи со двата аспекти. Многу универзитети го сметаат управувањето со ризикот како интегрален дел на доброто управување и менаџментот преку интегрирање на ризикот во рамката на општиот менаџмент. Преку овој пристап процесот може да биде доведен до култура со што засегнатите страни ќе бидат свесни за ризикот и истиот нема да биде одбивен. Централните активности при проценувањето на ризикот можат да вклучат квантитативни и квалитативни техники за кои се потребни навремени и точни податоци. Во целиот процес,

комуникацијата за ризикот е клучен елемент во овој процес . Со цел да се спротиви на било какви тенденции кон претерана бирократија, ќе бидат потребни некои централни насоки за фокусирање на приоритетите на најгорната линија на спектарот на ризикот. За практикантите нема недостаток на инструкции. Дополнително на неколку национални стандарди , новиот стандард ISO 31000 е планиран за средината на 2009 година. Антони Кимбер се осврнува на она што треба да биде вклучено за основање на интегрирана рамка за управување со ризик на универзитетот и неговите важни придобивки .

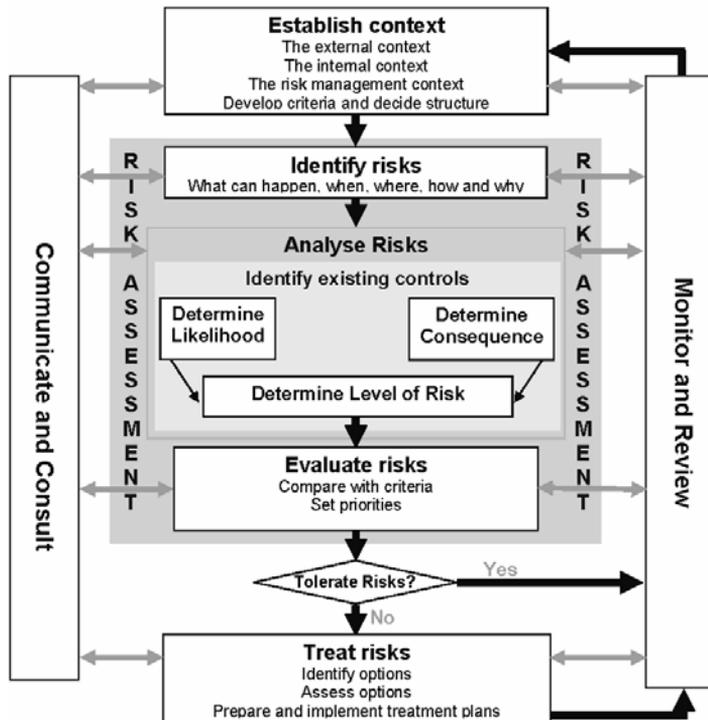
Introduction

A university's ability to flourish in the face of risk and uncertainty is not only an indicator of its capability and resilience, but is a reflection of the quality of its governance and management. With a general increase in global risks (World Economic Forum, 2008), for any organisation, exposure has become greater and more complex. This paper looks at what is involved in the establishment of a risk management framework in a university to help leaders identify, assess and manage all types of risk as an integral part the day to day business.

Standards and Definitions

Risk management has been used widely for over 15 years, often employing the Australian standard ((AS/NZ 4360 Standard, 2004). Many countries now have their own - in UK there is BS31100 (British Standards, 2008) – but in mid 2009, it is expected that a new ISO 31000 (International Standards, 2009) will be introduced to build on existing frameworks. The example below (Figure 1) is a typical model.

Figure 1- The Risk Management Framework



Although risk management incorporates a very full glossary of terms, the key definitions are:

- Risk management involves the whole framework from policy setting, risk assessment and risk treatment to regular review and communication. The new ISO 31000 is expected to define the framework as a “set of components which provide the arrangements for designing, implementing, monitoring, reviewing and continually improving risk management processes”.
- Risk context is explained by ISO 31000 as the “external or internal environment in which the organisation seeks to achieve its objectives”.
- Risk is a combination of probability (also likelihood) and consequence of an event with the potential to impact on the achievement of objects. There is wide variance in the precise definition, but increasing recognition that when managed properly, some risk – particularly financial and technical - can lead to

innovation and opportunity. ISO 31000 suggests that risk is an “effect of uncertainty on objectives”.

- Enterprise risk management is a term used in the business context to describe a process which is enterprise-wide, focused on a wide range of risks designed to enhance stakeholder confidence and to provide better (higher value) results. At the core of this concept is an alignment of risks and strategy.
- Risk assessment is the combined process of analysis and evaluation, to identify, measure (in terms of impact and probability) and consider the consequences under differing assumptions. Assessment can be supported by both qualitative and quantitative tools and techniques.
- Risk treatment is designed to reduce negative risk to “as low as reasonably practicable (ALARP)” by the application of treatment using a series of control measures. For positive risk, there would be exploitation and controlled enhancement.

ISO 31000 is not expected to be prescriptive and should allow risk managers some discretion and flexibility in the application of its recommendations. As an aid to achieving the best results there are likely to be five key criteria: 1. Risk management as an integral element of the university’s governance and management process; 2. Continual improvement using a quality improvement cycle; 3. Comprehensive accountability for all risks affecting an organisation; 4. A reflection of risk in all management decisions; 5. Effective risk communication.

The Context

The environment in which any university seeks to achieve its objectives – for SEEU, the 2009-2012 strategic plan - provides the same context for its risk management. At the strategic level there will be many factors leading to risks, such as international, national, regional, political, constitutional, regulatory, academic, security, financial, and cultural. At the local level, there will be a focus on the organisational context with factors ranging from structure, nature of the university, location, to how it operates, its ethos and values. It will be important to identify all the stakeholders who may affect, of be affected by risk management decisions, because each will have differing concerns, opinions and a need for transparency.

The Risks.

Foresight on risks will come through careful “horizon scanning” (UK Cabinet Office, 2009) to identify global risks. A scan would draw on strategic level research to identify risks associated with the sort of risks which make the headlines: financial crisis, climate change, natural disaster, international terrorism, water and power supplies, pandemic disease, crime and regulatory change. At the local level, there will be issues such as funding, the potential for industrial action, impacts of local politics, technology failures, health and safety, environment, security threats, project failures, individual action for litigation, fraud and theft. This list adds up to a rather daunting catalogue of risk¹. As a result, some organisations limit their risk register to the top most significant, with a focus on those with a potential for: harming individuals (such as pandemic disease); causing serious damage (fire, flood or technical failure) to infrastructure (such as IT systems, high value projects or intellectual property); financial loss (such as failure to achieve levels of income or loss of interest on investments); damage to the University's reputation (such as incidents involving students or serious or litigation). Risk management has traditionally been concerned with unexpected adverse and negative events², which can prevent the achievement of objectives, but, there are now arguments for it to consider risk with the potential for positive affects and opportunities³.

The Objectives

Risk management should not be viewed as hampering innovation and development, but as a way to balance risk with reward. The broad aims should be to:

- Integrate an effective risk management framework into the university's general management framework;
- Foster an environment where all staff assume responsibility for managing risks;
- Encourage a culture, where individuals are risk aware rather than risk averse.
- The specific objectives of risk management might be to:

¹ Also known as “Risk Profile”

² “Downside risk” = likelihood of loss or failure, often in financial or project planning.

³ “Upside risk” = likelihood of gain as above.

- Provide direct support to strategic planning to achieve objectives;
- Enhance the university's governance and corporate management processes;
- Enable the university to effectively discharge any statutory and legislative financial responsibilities;
- Provide a practical and useable framework, with a definition of risk appetite to enable stakeholders to assess risks;
- Encourage leaders to identify business opportunities that will benefit the University without exposing it to unacceptable risk levels;
- Protect the university from the losses associated with litigation;
- Safeguard the university's resources: people, finance, property and reputation.

Risk Management – What is involved?

The Board should provide overall guidance in the form of an overarching risk policy to set the structure and the processes involved. There will be a need for some central control to avoid excess bureaucracy and multiplication of effort. Acting on the Board's authority, the Audit and Risk Management Committee (ARMC) should ensure that the risk policy, the handling structure and the necessary processes are promulgated. The ARMC should also define the responsibilities of stakeholders and the documents to be used for risk assessment. The broad division of responsibility within the university should be as below.

- The Board, supported by the Audit and Risk Management Committee, has responsibility for setting policy and overseeing risk management within the university. It also sets the risk appetite taking into account the severity of the residual risk and the relative strategic importance of the activity.
- The Rector's Council will direct the implementation of risk policy as set by the Board. The Council will own high level strategic risks.
- The Deans, Heads of Academic and Administrative Departments are responsible for encouraging good risk management practice within their departments and for nominating risk owners for all local risks.

Within the Rectorate, consideration should be given to establishing a central office which provides a focus for risk. This could be aligned with the internal audit function, where existing auditors could act as “risk champions” for the university and are already part of the ARMC. At faculty and department level there should be nominated risk owners to provide the focus for Heads and Deans in their own business areas. Some university wide practices should be established, including periodic facilitated risk assessment workshops, the monitoring and reporting of significant risks using standard report forms. Opportunities should be taken to avoid handling risk matters in silos in which expertise is channelled or focused. There are some measures which help. First, there should be a communication process which links all the risk owners within the faculties and departments to a risk centre in the Rectorate, but also allows communication across the structure to enable transparency. “Cross cutting” working groups drawn from across the University structure should be formed to handle the risk assessment. This would enable a broad view to be taken of the spectrum of risks. Thirdly, periodic cross-university risk management training should be planned to cover subjects such as risk assessments, legislative requirements, health and safety, risk-awareness and good practice. Some examples of the last, drawn widely from experience in the UK (HEFCE, 2005) indicate some key requirements of the framework, which could be used as benchmarks.

- A strategic focus, with high level leadership “buy in”.
- A risk policy covering structure and process, which directs risk management embedded within the governance and management processes.
- An alignment of risk management with strategic objectives, which are responsive to changes to mission, organisation and structure.
- The adoption of a balanced scorecard incorporating risk.
- Ownership and monitoring of significant risks.
- A balanced portfolio of exposure, with risk balanced against anticipated reward.
- Regular high level monitoring and review on a constructive, "no-blame" basis.
- A consideration of those risks arising from working with or employing other organisations.
- Clear lines of communication for those risks, which rise in either probability or consequence.
- Contingency planning to cope with critical threats and hazards to ensure emergency handling and business continuity.
- Effective risk communication between all stakeholders.

The Risk Management – The Framework.

Risk management incorporates a series of steps. First, the framework should be set into context and an overarching policy developed. A SEEU draft policy has been circulated. A risk scan will start to identify the risk profile of the university. This will need a methodical approach and might start with an analysis of threats and opportunities, as part of a broader management approach (Dealtry, 1994). The risk profile will be structured into strategic and local categories of risk covering political, physical, financial, human, legal, and technological areas. There should be some consideration of relevant ethical and moral issues. The scan will identify the nature of each risk, its source, what it threatens and its broad severity. As a subset of this work, the ARMC would provide guidance on the “risk appetite”⁴, which would be endorsed by the Board.

Secondly, risk assessment is the analysis and evaluation to identify and measure the “what, why and how” of each of the hazards and threats. A favoured way of handling assessments is by small working groups of experts drawn from a mix of business areas. Benchmarking – a comparison of risk scores with data drawn from case studies - can play an important part. For straightforward categories of risk, SWOT analysis (Dealtry, 1994) and the use of questionnaires, surveys, interviews, checks and inspections can be used. But, for more complex risks, a range of tools, models and techniques (Vose, 2008) may be used, such as:

- constraints and assumptions analysis, to test constraints and assumptions;
- force field analysis, to identify positive (opportunities) and negative (threat) influences which impact on the achievement of objectives;
- Bayesian networks (probabilistic consequence models);
- quantitative models such as fault, decision or event trees and monte-carlo statistical simulations;
- fuzzy logic.

The assessments should result in a matrix score for likelihood and consequence, which can be evaluated against pre-established criteria. Until ISO 31000 appears, AS/NZ: 4360:2004 continues to be valuable guidance on the development of matrix tables, but users should note the importance of tailoring the provided templates to suit local requirements. Two example models are below.

⁴ Amount of risk, to which an organisation is prepared to be exposed, or tolerate.

Figure 2 – Example (Scale of 5X5 = 25) Risk Matrix.

Likelihood			Consequence		
Level	Descriptor	Example detail description	Level	Descriptor	Example detail description
A	Almost certain	Is expected to occur in most circumstances	1	Insignificant	No injuries, low financial loss
B	Likely	Will probably occur in most circumstances	2	Minor	First aid treatment, on-site release immediately contained, medium financial loss
C	Possible	Might occur some time	3	Moderate	Medical treatment required, on-site release contained with outside assistance, high financial loss
D	Unlikely	Could occur some time	4	Major	Extensive injuries, loss of production capability, off-site release with no detrimental effects, major financial loss
E	Rare	May occur only in exceptional circumstances	5	Catastrophic	Death, toxic release off-site with detrimental effect, huge financial loss

Qualitative Risk Analysis Matrix - Level of Risk					
Likelihood	Consequences				
	Insignificant 1	Minor 2	Moderate 3	Major 4	Catastrophic 5
A (almost certain)	H	H	E	E	E
B (likely)	M	H	H	E	E
C (possible)	L	M	H	E	E
D (unlikely)	L	L	M	H	E
E (rare)	L	L	M	H	H

Previously agreed and set risk appetite should be applied to the matrix to provide university wide guidance on the level of risk which can be tolerated. In the matrix below (Figure 3) the dotted box in the upper right corner indicates risk levels in levels A or B, which would not be tolerated and should be referred to the Board. The remaining risks in Levels C, D or E remain the responsibility of the risk owner, but require to be closely monitored. Setting these levels will require wide consultation, high level decisions and may change over time.

Figure 3. Example (Scale of 10X10 = 100) Risk Matrix.

RISK SCORING MATRIX		IMPACT									
		LOW		MEDIUM			HIGH				
		Minimal	Minor	Significant	Substantial		Critical				
LIKELIHOOD		Negligible	Some	Limited	Substantial	Critical					
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
HIGH	Certain/Inevitable	10									
	Almost Certain	9		C							
	High Likelihood	8									
MEDIUM	Significant	7									
	Fairly Likely	6		D			C				
	Even Chance	5									
LOW	Not Very Likely	4									
	Unlikely	3		E			D				C
	Very Unlikely/Remote Chance	2									
	Almost Certain Not To Occur	1									

The risks are then allocated to risk owners, which may involve some central direction and coordination. While the focus will be on negative risks, any “upsides”, particularly from projects and financial developments should be identified to ensure consideration of that component. It might be helpful to look at an example of this. Suppose the student input into a particular part of the university is lower than forecast. That might be regarded as a risk with a range of negative consequences, but there may also be some positive ones. For instance, there will be a reduction of consumption of resources. But importantly, there may well be opportunities to adjust the programme to better reflect market demand elsewhere. It is these types of opportunities which the process should identify.

Thirdly, risks assessed as threats would be subject to risk treatment by selecting one of the following options: Acceptance, (recognising that residual risk must be taken), Avoidance (risk elimination), Transfer, (passing responsibility to another stakeholder) or Mitigation, (through resourced control measures to reduce probability and consequence). Those risks, which are considered to lead to opportunities, can be handled in an integrated process alongside negative risks, either to be exploited or enhanced for benefit. As an example: For a project which may provide a good level of reward, but has risk attached, any decisions to increase investment in it might be justified, if the risk controls are also increased.

Fourthly, there would be monitor and review of the whole process, including any change which might affect it. Review should be concurrent with audit of the general governance and management processes and designed to provide assurance about effectiveness.

Lastly, there is continual communication and consultation with all stakeholders to ensure that all interested parties are both informed and consulted where necessary about developments. Each stage of the risk management process should be transparent to all. The SEEU website and Review should be exploited for publishing debate about improvements to approach and process. The key means of communication is the risk register, for which there is now widespread good practice. For scrutiny at senior level there are some good examples, designed to reveal at a glance the status of key risks using traffic light coding: Red (Risk exposure remains high and needs attention). Amber/Yellow, (Performance is adequate and subject to active risk management). Green, (Performance is satisfactory and any risk is being well managed).

In the register, separate sections can be created to categorise risks into : Higher (strategic) to reflect global risks for Board level consideration; Lower

(local) to reflect those risks affecting the faculty or operational level; Project Risks reflecting timelines, targets, costs and other key factors applied to discreet projects. Importantly, risk registers, like the matrices, can be designed to meet local requirements. An extract from one example is below.

Figure 4 – Typical Risk Register Extract.

Risk No.	Risks	Gross Risk ⁵		Current Controls	Net Risk		Is Net Risk ⁶ Acceptable? Y/N	Additional ⁷ controls / planned actions	Assigned Owner and Timescale
		I ⁸	P		I	P			
1	Failure to raise sufficient grant income	5	5	Formal encouragement of grant applications	4	5	NO	Action plan needed to cover future bids	Pro Rector Finance Ongoing
2	Failure to recruit retain and motivate staff	3	4	Active promotions policies Reasonable response to retention issues Human resources strategy	3	3	YES	Effective implementation of Board policy. Additional payments Needs quarterly review	Dean / Head of Department Ongoing
3	Pandemic	3	2	University's health and safety policy Policies and procedures are in place to ensure compliance	3	2	YES	Needs quarterly review with Health Authorities.	All staff Ongoing

Finally, one of the key outputs of the process is to inform related concepts which aid resilience.

⁵ Gross Risk: Impact and Probability using a 25 scale.

⁶ Net Risk: Impact and Probability using a 25 scale.

⁷ This could also include Target Risk Score of Impact and Probability.

⁸ Impact and probability scores.

Related Concepts – Resilience Measures

Other concepts, which are directly linked to risk management, include resilience measures (UK Resilience, 2009) designed to counter or handle the negative physical risk which the assessment process has identified, such as:

- For Emergencies or Disasters: Emergency (or Disaster Recovery) Planning (EP or DRP) (UK Resilience, 2009), which is designed to provide guidance to stakeholders for the handling of major events which might disrupt core business. Aide Memoires can be developed to cover the fundamentals.
- For Disruptive Events: Business Continuity Planning and Management (BCM and BCP) (Chartered Management Institute, 2009), which is now widely adopted as a high priority across all business sectors, particularly where critical infrastructure is involved. Business Continuity is defined as "a holistic management process that identifies potential impacts that threaten an organisation and provides a framework for building resilience with the capability for an effective response that safeguards the interests of its key stakeholders and reputation". A BCP would assist the university to recover quickly and resume close to normal activities as soon as possible after an emergency.

These key plans should provide a toolbox of guidance, from which to draw for a variety of scenarios. They could be communicated to stakeholders in the form of "aide memoires" or abbreviated checklists and available through the SEEU website. They might include:

- University wide Business Continuity guide;
- Crisis and Emergency Management guide;
- Student campus aide-memoire;
- Emergency arrangements for off-site university locations;
- Staff and student emergency contact details;
- Plans which identify vital and choke points for key services;
- Details of emergency communication and transport arrangements.

What is the link between Governance and Risk Management?

It is worth looking at the direct relevance of risk management to governance. The definition of governance varies between universities, but

three disciplines are widely regarded as being integral: strategic decision making, usually incorporating considerations of performance and results; stewardship, implying protection of stakeholders' interests; compliance, embracing regulation, audit and control. In all these disciplines, risk should be a key consideration. As an illustration of this, here are some examples.

Decisions should not just be taken from the perspective of performance or outcome, but there must be a consideration of risk as it impacts on the achievement of results. Risk management can directly support both the decision making and performance assessment processes as illustrated in the two examples which follow. First, there are two support models in widespread use, - Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) and Balanced Scorecards (Kaplan & Norton, 1996) - which lend themselves to incorporating risk factors. As an aid to integration, KPIs should include Key Risk Indicators (KRIs) alongside general performance ones. Balanced scorecards share many characteristics with the risk management process and should also include KRIs as a key factor. Secondly, at Board level, there will be periodic decisions about development projects, which should be subject to formal risk management as a way of introducing rigour, objectivity and consistency into what can be a typically subjective process. After project approval, a risk management plan (Chapman & Ward, 2003) should be developed to handle the risks identified during the project proposal. There is an important relationship between project risk and the development strategy, because risk can change as the project progresses. A project initially assessed as low risk can quickly escalate to high risk if there are changes in parameters. Project management is an area where it is important to balance the "upside and downside" of risks to optimise benefit.

Protection is required from a range of risks. Here are just three examples. First, there are legal risks (Jarvis, 2005), which should be carefully considered as they have the potential for serious strategic consequence. This type of risk does not arise in a vacuum, but normally from an operational failure or breach of regulation. An example might be a personnel issue, which involves grievance about wrongful dismissal, harassment or discrimination. This would suggest that personnel policies should be reviewed periodically by an expert in employment law and that pre-emptive risk measures, such as insurance, are taken as control measures. Another example might be litigation arising from a serious breach of Health and Safety legislation of the sort covered in the SEEU Review (Shaqiri, 2008). Secondly, there is the protection of funds. The global financial crisis has resulted in fundamental questions about the handling of the three main categories of financial risk (Crouhy, 2006): credit, market and operational.

University governance should involve a broad understanding of each category and the fact that each needs a different but related set of handling skills. With so much systemic failure in the global system, there is now wide debate about the application of models such as Value-at-risk. The previous implicit trust in models and emerging high levels of organisational and process failure suggests that there is a need for a radical reform of the whole financial system. Strategic risks affecting income or investment demand careful consideration and analysis by governing boards. Thirdly, IT systems are fundamental to the operation of the university and should be carefully protected. Systems will be exposed to a series of risks (Blokdiik, Engle & Brewster, 2008), such as technical failure, insecurity, loss of access, data compromise, viruses and cyber-attack. All these should be risk assessed and managed in the same way as for other key business areas.

Compliance incorporates internal and external audit, which in many universities is now directly linked to risk management. ISO 31000 is expected to recommend that any risk management process should be subject to regular review to ensure effectiveness. Governance should therefore include an overview of the key elements of the framework – policy, structure and process – to ensure that it remains fit for purpose. On the Board's behalf, the ARMC will monitor the risk profile, which will dictate the strategic risks on the risk register. Changes will need to be highlighted for the Board and aspects, such as controls, communicated throughout. Where opportunities present themselves, these will need detailed consideration to enable board decisions to be taken. The risk register will provide evidence which can be used to target both the internal and external elements of the internal and external audit programme.

What are the Benefits?

Risk management does not just contribute to good governance. From the scrutiny of several university websites in USA, Australia and UK (HEFCE, 2005), a sample of benefits are listed as below. Risk management can contribute to:

- compliance with legislation;
- achievement of more effective governance and in turn improve results;
- achievement of successful change management;
- identification of opportunities;

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- place all activities in the context of strategy and risk;
- reassure stakeholders by reducing the likelihood of surprises;
- effective use of resources;
- focus the audit programme;
- avoidance of litigation;
- successful project management;
- contingency plan;
- communication between stakeholders;
- greater awareness of the benefits of safe risk-taking.

Conclusion

In many universities, risk management has been adopted and is now synonymous with good governance and management. It should be seen as integral part of and not an adjunct to general management. It is not a separate exercise to meet regulatory requirements and must be an ongoing cyclical process, not an event. There is no shortage of guidance and by mid 2009, the new ISO 31000 is expected to be widely adopted. For success, there are some fundamental requirements, including top level ownership, a clear policy, a defined structure, an effective process and good communication between all stakeholders. The more stakeholders become risk aware, then the better they will be prepared to manage risk with negative consequences and exploit those leading to opportunities. If related concepts, such as Business Continuity Management, are adopted then any university will be more resilient. Finally, there will be potential for identifying lessons from the risk management process to provide good practice for the benefit of all those teaching and studying the subject in the Faculties and Departments.

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Analysing the Environment's Impact on the Sorting Algorithms on the Numerical Arrays

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Abstract

Sorting is still considered one of the fundamental problems while studying algorithms in computer sciences. Beside the fact that so far have been standardised some popular sorting methods, starting from BubbleSort to LibrarySort, research in this field has a reasonable permanent rising tendency, because it influences the advancement of performances of existing applications.

Machine performances (memory capacity and CPU speed) and different compilers in use, are among the factors which considerably influence the execution speed of the algorithms. Through testing of different existing sorting algorithms, in our case one-dimensional numerical arrays, has been studied and stated the influence of the above mentioned factors.

Keywords: sorting algorithms, integers, computers, compilers.

Abstrakt

Sortimi ende konsiderohet si një ndër problemet fundamentale gjatë studimit të algoritmeve në fushën e shkencave kompjuterike. Edhe pse deri më tani janë standardizuar një sërë metodash të njohura për sortim, duke filluar nga BubbleSort deri të LibrarySort, hulumtimet në këtë fushë kanë një tendencë permanente rritjeje përshkak se ndikojnë mjaft në performasat e aplikacioneve ekzistuese.

Performansat e makinës (kapaciteti i memorjes dhe shpejtësia e CPU) dhe kompajlerët e ndryshëm në shfrytëzim janë disa nga faktorët të cilët ndikojnë në kohën e ekzekutimit të algoritmeve. Përmes testimit të disa algoritmeve ekzistuese, në rastin konkret në vektorë një dimensional, janë studiuar dhe paraqitur ndikimi i faktorëve të sipër përmendur.

Апстракт

Сортирањето се рачуна како еден од фундаменталните проблеми при проучување на алгоритмите во компјутерските науки. Иако што досега се стандардизирани низа методи за сортирање, почнувајќи од Бубле Сорт до ЛибрариСорт, проучувањата во оваа поле имаат перманентна тенденција на пораст бидејќи влијаат доста во перформансите на постоечките апликации.

Перформансите на машината (капацитетот на меморијата и брзината на ЦПУ) и различитите компјалери, се неколку од факторите кои влијаат на времето на екуеуција на алгоритмите. Преку тестирање на постоечките алгоритми, во конкретниот случај во еднодимензионални вектори, се проучувани и претставени влијанијата на горенаведените фактори.

Introduction

There are several good reasons for studying sorting algorithms. They are of practical use because sorting is used very often. A simple example, having the entries in telephone books ordered alphabetically makes them very easy to use.

How to alphabetize a list of words? Sort a list of numbers? In computer science and mathematics, a sorting algorithm is an algorithm that puts elements of a list in a certain order¹. The most-used orders are numerical order and lexicographical order. Numerical order— a sequence according to number, presents sorting items (or people) identified by the number from lowest to highest and vice versa.

Sorting is a fundamental operation in computer science, many programs use it as an intermediate step, and as a result a large number of good sorting algorithms have been developed. Which algorithm is best for a given application depends on—among other factors the number of items to be sorted, the extent to which the items are already somewhat sorted, the kind of storage device to be used, etc.

One of the most important aspects of an algorithm is how fast it is. The exact speed of an algorithm depends on where the algorithm is run, as well as the exact details of its implementation.

1. The testing environment

From time to time people ask the ageless question: Which sorting algorithm is the fastest? The speed of sorting can depend quite heavily on the environment where the sorting is done, the type of items that are sorted and the distribution of these items.

In this study we will only concentrate on sorting items, one-dimensional arrays with integers, using comparison sorting algorithms. We wanted to see how does different

- hardware (computers) and
- software (compilers)

influences the speed.

The test was done at six, more used, comparison sorting algorithms:

1. Bubble Sort, Selection Sort and Insertion Sort (member of the family with quadratic complexity $O(N^2)$), and

¹ Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest, and Clifford Stein. *Introduction to Algorithms*, Second Edition. MIT Press and McGraw-Hill, 2001.

2. Merge Sort, Heap Sort and Quick Sort (members of the family with linear-logarithmic complexity $O(N\log N)$).

The tests were run in computers (three) with different characteristics, running Windows XP:

1. Intel(R) CPU 550kHz, RAM 128MB (comp 1),
2. Celeron, CPU 550MHz, RAM 526MB (comp 2), and
3. Intel(R) Core Duo CPU 1.83GHz, RAM 1GB (comp 3).

The program was compiled using

1. Microsoft Visual Studio 2005(C++) and
2. CodeBlocks.

In order to test the speed of the different sorting algorithms I made a C++ program which runs each algorithm several times for randomly-generated arrays. Different array sizes were used, 1000, 10000, 15000, 25000, 30000, 40000, 50000, 60000, 75000, 90000 and 100000 items (integers) randomly-generated.

Each testcase with each sorting algorithm was run several times, every time with different random data.

2. How to read the comparisons/assignments tables

Besides a bar chart, each testcase includes a table of numbers. This table presents the amount of time performed by the sorting algorithm in average during the sorting of input arrays. Each bar in the charts expresses the time taken by the sorting algorithm, in average, to sort the array once, in seconds.

Tab.1 and Tab. 2 presents the run time results obtained from sorting the one dimensional arrays with different size, with Bubble Sort algorithm, at computers and with compilers mentioned above.

Num. of elements	Run time(s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Bubble Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.023	0.016	0.011
10000	2.707	0.938	0.87
15000	5.521	1.953	1.587
25000	13.84	8.078	4.432
30000	19.331	8.344	6.317
40000	34.129	14.828	11.307
50000	53.888	24.39	17.391
60000	79.177	39.875	25.104
75000	131.709	57.985	39.172
90000	204.454	87.485	56.291
100000	259.93	109.375	69.516

Tab. 1

Num. of elements	Run time(s)-CodeBlocks for Bubble Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.027	0	0.015
10000	3.274	1.203	1.01
15000	5.758	2.427	1.656
25000	15.963	6.375	4.38
30000	22.98	9.203	6.257
40000	41.316	16.375	11.182
50000	64.914	26.109	17.505
60000	94.459	38.109	25.213
75000	153.918	60.188	39.412
90000	239.027	87.094	56.802
100000	300.973	108.219	70.078

Tab. 2

The chart in Fig. 1 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for Bubble Sort.

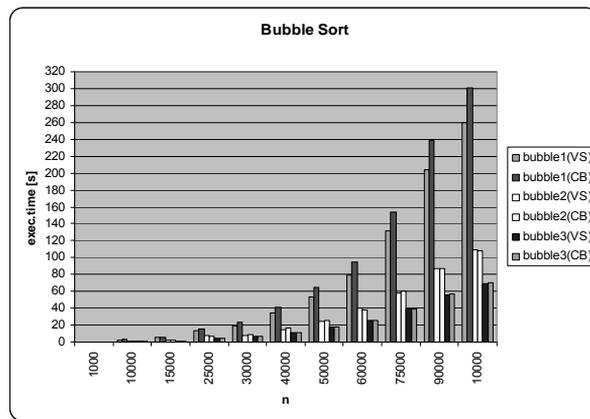


Fig.1. Sorting speeds of BubbleSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

Tab.3 and Tab.4 presents the sorting speed results obtained from sorting with Selection Sort algorithm, for all three computers and both compilers.

Num. of elements	Run time (s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Selection Sort			Num. of elements	Run time (s)-CodeBlocks for Selection Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3		Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.02	0.015	0.01	1000	0.043	0.016	0.016
10000	2.457	0.812	0.708	10000	2.37	1.094	0.066
15000	5.131	3.172	1.485	15000	5.14	2.188	1.629
25000	12.621	5.469	4.093	25000	14.224	5.969	4.232
30000	17.929	7.475	5.922	30000	19.872	8.594	5.813
40000	30.764	13.738	10.646	40000	34.953	15.219	10.125
50000	47.305	22.343	15.552	50000	53.113	25.188	15.479
60000	67.544	34.219	21.911	60000	74.781	35.797	21.714
75000	109.44	54.391	32.687	75000	119.219	55.187	32.427
90000	167.03	78.157	45.052	90000	184.175	77.688	44.76
100000	212.639	96.578	54.162	100000	231.769	95.469	53.791

Tab. 3

Tab. 4

Fig. 2 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for Selection Sort.

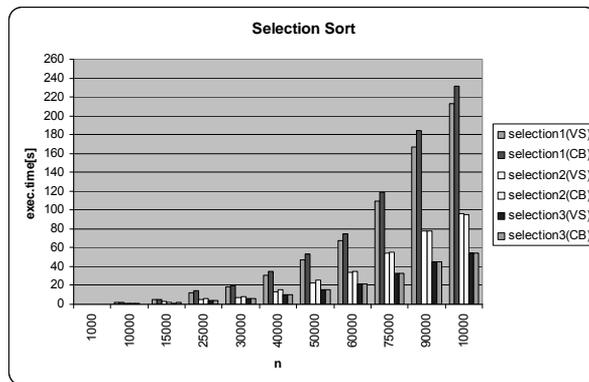


Fig. 2. Sorting speeds of arrays using SelectionSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

Tab. 5 and Tab. 6 presents the sorting speed results obtained from sorting with Insertion Sort algorithm.

Num. of elements	Run time (s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Insertion Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.01	0	0.005
10000	0.721	0.25	0.187
15000	1.629	0.438	0.385
25000	4.279	1.407	1.009
30000	6.252	1.796	1.636
40000	10.953	3.234	2.771
50000	17.245	5.547	4.312
60000	25.123	9.031	6.25
75000	40.225	16.141	9.677
90000	61.392	25.797	14.005
100000	77.852	38.313	17.302

Tab. 5

Num. of elements	Run time (s)- CodeBlocks for Insertion Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.013	0	0.005
10000	0.771	0.531	0.187
15000	1.739	0.797	0.437
25000	4.927	2.25	1.229
30000	7.127	3.25	1.781
40000	12.578	5.875	3.172
50000	19.832	9.375	4.964
60000	28.761	14.281	7.146
75000	44.991	22.594	11.187
90000	68.218	33.594	16.079
100000	87.456	42	19.886

Tab. 6

Fig. 3 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for Insertion Sort.

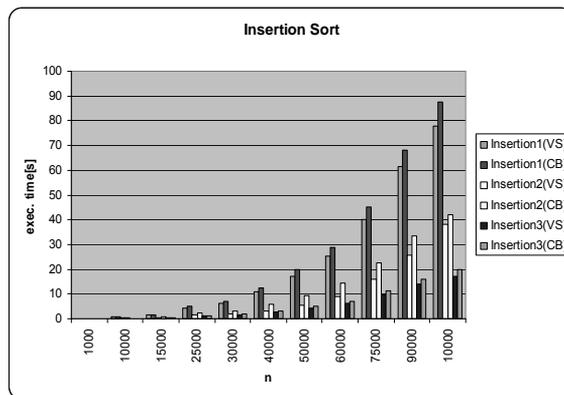


Fig. 3. Sorting speeds of arrays using InsertionSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

Tab. 7 and Tab. 8 presents the sorting speed results obtained from sorting with Merge Sort algorithm.

Num. of elements	Run time (s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Merge Sort			Num. of elements	Run time (s)- CodeBlocks for Merge Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3		Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	1.589	0.013	0.021	1000	0.046	0.02	0.005
10000	19.294	0.781	0.189	10000	0.526	0.143	0.036
15000	28.704	1.203	0.344	15000	0.792	0.48	0.063
25000	44.347	1.688	0.614	25000	1.308	0.651	0.104
30000	51.734	2.094	0.682	30000	1.562	0.975	0.12
40000	73.656	2.974	1.02	40000	2.411	0.925	0.146
50000	82.115	3.807	1.219	50000	2.661	0.978	0.157
60000	99.837	4.807	1.453	60000	3.182	1.145	0.177
75000	124.866	5.75	1.776	75000	3.959	1.706	0.172
90000	149.014	6.786	2.026	90000	4.786	2.023	0.214
100000	164.373	7.844	2.198	100000	5.313	2.16	0.235

Tab. 7

Tab. 8

Fig. 4 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for Merge Sort.

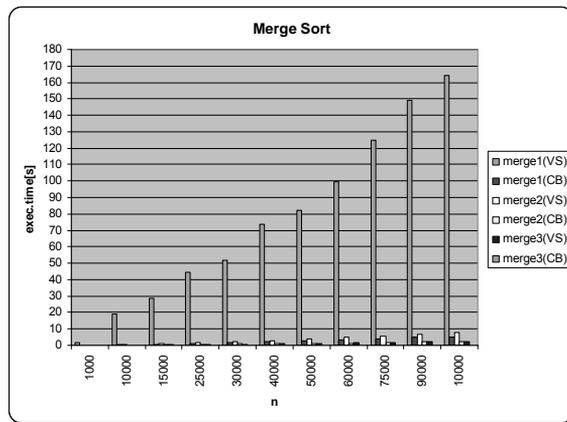


Fig. 4. Sorting speeds of arrays using MergeSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

Tab. 9 and Tab. 10 presents the sorting speed results obtained from sorting with Heap Sort algorithm.

Num. of elements	Run time (s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Heap Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0.007	0.005	0
10000	0.057	0.016	0.01
15000	0.094	0.026	0.021
25000	0.153	0.047	0.037
30000	0.207	0.052	0.042
40000	0.29	0.11	0.063
50000	0.32	0.104	0.078
60000	0.404	0.125	0.094
75000	0.518	0.172	0.12
90000	0.634	0.208	0.151
100000	0.744	0.234	0.198

Tab. 9

Num. of elements	Run time (s)- CodeBlocks for Heap Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0	0	0
10000	0.023	0.016	0.011
15000	0.027	0.005	0.01
25000	0.05	0.026	0.021
30000	0.047	0.015	0.021
40000	0.074	0.031	0.031
50000	0.083	0.047	0.031
60000	0.1	0.052	0.031
75000	0.137	0.073	0.036
90000	0.17	0.093	0.042
100000	0.137	0.11	0.047

Tab. 10

Fig. 5 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for HeapSort.

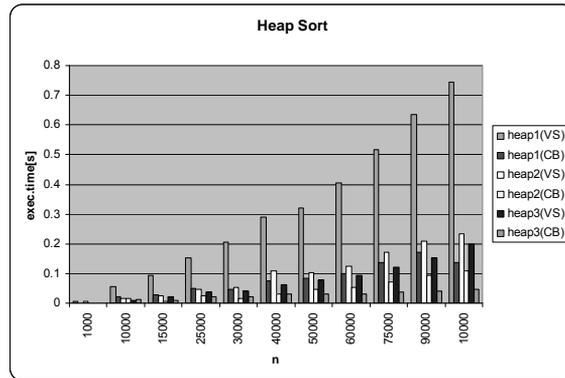


Fig. 5. Sorting speeds of arrays using HeapSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

Tab. 11 and Tab. 12 presents the sorting speed results obtained from sorting with Quick Sort algorithm.

Num. of elements	Run time (s)-Visual Studio 2005 for Quick Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0	0	0
10000	0	0.005	0
15000	0.02	0.005	0.01
25000	0.03	0.01	0.005
30000	0.04	0.005	0.005
40000	0.05	0.021	0.016
50000	0.067	0.026	0.016
60000	0.077	0.026	0.021
75000	0.097	0.037	0.026
90000	0.13	0.031	0.031
100000	0.143	0.047	0.031

Tab. 31

Num. of elements	Run time (s)- CodeBlocks for Quick Sort		
	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3
1000	0	0	0
10000	0.03	0	0
15000	0.01	0.005	0.005
25000	0.02	0.01	0.01
30000	0.023	0.005	0.01
40000	0.04	0.02	0.01
50000	0.047	0.015	0.016
60000	0.05	0.026	0.011
75000	0.06	0.042	0.015
90000	0.087	0.036	0.021
100000	0.08	0.037	0.026

Tab. 14

Fig. 6 presents hardware and software comparisons of the sorting speed results for QuickSort.

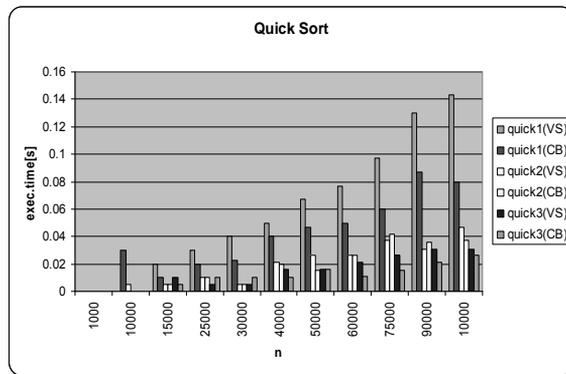


Fig. 6. Sorting speeds of arrays using QuickSort algorithm, compiled with VS 2005(C++) (VS) and CodeBlocks (CB)

3. Analyzing the results

Referring to the results obtained from the tests the following can be said:

At the algorithms with the quadratic complexity it is obvious that performances of the computing machines influences at the sorting speed. It is obvious that there are large differences in execution time when the performances of the machine are changed, e.g. to sort an array with 100.000 items with BubbleSort at computer nr.1 is needed 259.930[s], at computer nr.2, 109275 [s] whereas at the computer nr.3 only 69.516 [s] is needed.

As with regard to the software, i.e. compiler, you can see that there are changes in values but there are not noticeable differences. In general when we talk about the execution time it can be said that in general it is Visual Studio 2005 that shows better performances than CodeBlocks.

The same thing can be said for algorithms Selection Sort and Insertion Sort.

For the other family of sorting algorithms, the one with linear complexity, it can be said that there are differences in both the hardware and software point of view.

What strikes out is exactly the Merge Sort. In each case is seen that there is a noticeable difference in the execution time. Not only the machine but also the used compilers show different performances from each other. It should be emphasized the last testcase, the array with 100.000 integers. Run at the computer nr. 1, compiled with Visual Studio 2005, 164.373 [s] is needed for sorting whereas with CodeBlocks only 5.313[s].

Almost the same thing can be said for the other algorithms of the same family, Heap Sort and Quick Sort.

Conclusion

From the results of the study clearly can be seen that the features of the machine-computer in which the testing is done noticeably influence the

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execution speed of the sorting algorithms. Computer nr.3 with its performances has very much influenced the decrease in execution time. This can be seen at all tested algorithms.

Whereas when we talk about the used compilers it is more difficult to draw a sharp splitting line. This is because in some cases it is Visual Studio 2005(C++) which shows better performances and in other cases is CodeBlocks.

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COSTS AND BENEFITS OF ALBANIA'S MEMBERSHIP TO NATO

Merita Shehu, MBA
Prof. Dr. Shkëlqim Cani

Abstract

Nowadays, it is a generally accepted view that the key of NATO's success lays in common values shared by its members such as democracy, freedom, rule of law, free market economy, etc. Practice has shown that NATO membership is not necessarily a guarantee for the EU membership, whereas lack of country's invitation to NATO, in a certain way, implies not becoming part of the EU. Yet, the public debate about Albania's membership to NATO seems to be mainly focused on the positive aspects only. The absence of a broad and well informed debate, particularly in relations to the less discussed aspects of NATO integration process - the costs of membership - has transformed it to an elite-driven process, little digested from the public and from the different actors of policy making in the country. This article clearly shows that in addition to benefits for the entire region in the field of security, politics and economy, costs ought to be considered too. The entry into Alliance not only requires reforming the military, but furthermore, profound political, institutional and economic reforms. Beside obvious defense budget increase, one of the major elements for maximizing the positive effects of NATO membership is significant public investments for strengthening civil infrastructure. The preparation of a complete balance-sheet on benefits and costs that Albania will encounter during its integration process to NATO, is a component which has been absent in this process. NATO's integration costs can be addressed in two ways - by a narrow approach (counting strictly financial costs) and by a broader one (including opportunity costs, threats perceptions, political implications, etc.). The authors surmise that implications of this membership in Albania's multifaceted development should be the main objectives of thorough studies, not only by the institutions in charge, but also by other civil, independent actors. Additionally, it is our belief that integration into Euro-Atlantic structures would be more comprehensive if all stakeholders

have grasped the knowledge of the aspects of this process. Drawing from other countries' experiences, their successes and mistakes could shorten the length of reforms and reduce the associated costs along the road. Most of NATO member countries have pursued NATO's integration not only as a pre-requisite, but also as a substantial attempt for EU integration, owing to the common principles of both organizations and complementary synergies that they both display. Consequently, reforms undertaken in the framework of NATO integration and the costs for its fulfillment must, in a wider aspect, be perceived as reaching a twin objective, which is that of EU membership.

Abstrakt

Sot, është një pikëpamje e pranuar përgjithësisht se çelësi i suksesit të NATO-s shtrihet në vlera të përbashkëta që si demokracia, liria, shteti i së drejtës, ekonomia e tregut të lirë, etj. Praktika ka treguar se anëtarësimi në NATO nuk është domosdoshmërisht një garanci për anëtarësimin në Bashkimin Evropian, ndërsa mungesa e ftesës për në NATO, në një farë mënyrë, nënkupton pamundësinë për t'u bërë pjesë e BE-së. Megjithatë, debati publik për anëtarësimin e Shqipërisë në NATO, duket të jetë kryesisht i përqëndruar vetëm tek aspektet pozitive. Mungesa e një debati të gjerë dhe të mirëinformuar, sidomos për çështjet më së paku të diskutuara të procesit të integritimit në NATO - shpenzimet e anëtarësimit – e ka transformuar atë në një proces elitë-shtyrës, që mësohet vështirë nga publiku dhe nga aktorë të ndryshëm të politikëbërjes në vend. Ky artikull tregon qartë se përveç përfitimeve për të gjithë rajonin në fushën e sigurisë, politikës dhe ekonomisë, duhet të konsiderohen gjithashtu edhe shpenzimet. Hyrja në Aleancë kërkon jo vetëm reformimin e ushtrisë, por për më tepër, reforma të mëdha politike, institucionale dhe ekonomike. Krahas rritjes së dukshme të buxhetit të mbrojtjes, një nga elementet kryesore për maksimizimin e efekteve pozitive të anëtarësimit në NATO janë investimet publike për forcimin e infrastrukturës civile. Përgatitja e një bilanci të gjendjes mbi kostot dhe përfitimet që Shqipëria do t'i ketë gjatë procesit të integritimit të saj të NATO-s, është një komponent i cili ka munguar në këtë proces. Kostot e integritimit të NATO-s mund të trajtohen në dy mënyra - nga një qasje e ngushtë (duke llogaritur vetëm kostot financiare) dhe nga një qasje më e gjerë (duke përfshirë edhe kostot oportune, kërcënimet, perceptimet, implikimet politike, etj.) Autorët pandehin se pasojat e këtij anëtarësimi në zhvillimin shumëdimensional të Shqipërisë duhet të jenë objektivat kryesore të studimeve tërësore, jo vetëm nga institucionet përgjegjëse, por edhe nga aktorë të tjerë të pavarur civilë. Përveç kësaj, është bindja jonë që integritimi

në strukturat Euro-Atlantike do të jetë më i plotë në qoftë se të gjitha palët e interesuara kanë njohuri për aspektet e këtij procesi. Duke u nisur nga përvojat e vendeve të tjera, sukseset dhe gabimet e tyre mund të shkurtojnë afatin e reformave dhe uljen e kostove gjegjëse përgjatë rrugës. Shumica e vendeve anëtare të NATO-s kanë ndjekur integrimin në NATO-s jo vetëm si një parakusht, por edhe si një përpjekje për integrimin në BE, për shkak të parimeve të përbashkëta të të dyja organizatave dhe sinergjive komplementare që ato të dyja shpalosin. Rrjedhimisht, reformat e ndërmarra në kuadër të integritimit në NATO dhe shpenzimet për realizimin e tij duhet në një aspekt më të gjerë, të perceptohet si arritje e një objektiv të dyfishtë, edhe atij të anëtarësimit në BE.

Апстракт

Во денешно време општоприфатен е ставот дека клучот на успехот на НАТО е во заедничките вредности кои ги имаат земјите членки како што се демократијата, слободата, владеење на правото, слободната пазарна економија итн. Во пракса се покажа дека членството во НАТО не претставува гаранција за членство во ЕУ, но доколку нема покана на земјата за членство во НАТО, на одреден начин, наложува и недобивање членство во ЕУ. Сепак, јавната дебата за членството на Албанија во НАТО се чини дека е во главно фокусирана само на позитивните аспекти. Отсуството на поширока и подобро информирана дебата, особено во однос на помалку дискутираните аспекти на интеграциските процеси на НАТО – трошоците за членарина-го трансформираа во процес кој е воден од елитата, помалку разбран од јавноста и од другите актери на политичкиот процес во државата. Во оваа статија јасно е прикажано дека дополнително на придобивките за целосниот регион во областа на безбедноста, политиката и економијата треба да се земат предвид и трошоците. Влезот во сојузот не бара само реформи во војската, туку и продлабочени политички, институционални и економски реформи. Покрај очигледното зголемување на буџетот за одбрана, еден од главните елементи за максимизирање на позитивните ефекти од членството во НАТО се значителните јавни инвестиции за зајакнување на цивилната инфраструктура. Компонентата која не беше присутна е подготовката на комплетниот биланс на состојба на придобивките и трошоците со кои Албанија ќе се соочи во текот на процесот на интеграција. Трошоците за интеграција во НАТО можат да се упатат на два начини – преку детален пристап (со кој ќе

стриктно ќе се пресметаат финансиските трошоци) и генерален (во кој ќе бидат вклучени можните трошоци, заканите, политичките импликации итн.). Авторите резимираат дека импликациите од ова членство во повеќеаспектниот развој треба да се главна цел на детални студии не само од одговорните институции туку и од страна на други независни граѓани. Сепак, ние веруваме дека интеграцијата во Евроатланските структури ќе биде посеопфатна доколку сите засегнати страни ги разбираат аспектите на овој процес. Извлекувајќи ги искуствата од другите земји, нивните успеси и грешки може да доведат до намалување на реформите и на придружните трошоци. Повеќето од земјите членки на НАТО сметаат дека интеграцијата во НАТО не е само предуслов туку и неопходен обид за интеграција во ЕУ како последица на заедничките принципи на двете организации и комплементарните синергии кои и двете ги прикажуваат. Според тоа, реформите кои се преземаат во рамките на интеграцијата на НАТО и трошоците за нивно исполнување, мораат во поширок аспект да се разберат како постигнување на двојна цел, членство во ЕУ.

Introduction

In search of common values for freedom, democracy, peace and security, Albania has been one of the first countries (1991) in Central and Eastern Europe seeking membership into Euro-Atlantic Structures. Integration into NATO has not only represented the aspirations of Albanians in search of their European identity and the separation from the prosecuting image of “ex-communist and problematic country in Balkans,” but also the determination of all Albanian politicians to realize the country’s transformation into a democratic country, supported by principles of a market economy. The invitation of our country into NATO last month, constitutes the culminating point of a 17 year-old, long way of reforms, where have been incorporated, in addition to defense and security, all the other spheres of life.

Practice has shown that NATO membership is not necessarily a guarantee for EU membership, whereas lack of invitation into NATO in a certain way implies that you can not become part of EU. In the objectives of foreign policy for our country has never been removed the standard expression of Integration in Euro-Atlantic Structures as the only way leading to NATO and EU membership.

Under conditions of new developments after the 90-ies, NATO is being enlarged and transformed being converted from a classical organization of collective defense for its members from war threats, into a provisional institution of peace and security preventing conflicts; furthermore, beyond the NATO borders and responding to non-conventional threats to world security, such as terrorism, weapons of mass destruction etc.

The Need To Acknowledge Costs From The Candidate Country's Perspective

In most of the countries once aspiring to become NATO members the idea of integration into the organization has been subject of debates and analyses in public forums and media. The principal aim was to draw out an all round balance sheet of all aspects for this process, with the rights and obligations for relevant countries. In our country that might be valued as a lukewarm debate. Moreover, when referring to integration process into NATO the debate is mainly focused on analyses of political, strategic, diplomatic and military character. "But political actions, which do not bring about economic consequences simply do not exist, similarly, the economic actions of the moment spread their branches over the political line of a state".¹

We already cherish the belief that it is the right time to undertake more serious and deepened studies on the manifold effects of future membership for Albania into NATO. They should not mainly focus on political-military groundwork, or only on security matters, but also on economic, social, judicial, organisational spheres, which are direct functions for new guarantees offering expectations to membership. These studies, being debated among interest groups and the public could serve to citizens' awareness, on behalf on which decisions have been taken, related to integration philosophy into NATO as well prospective of readiness from our country for membership.

In this study, we tackle for analyses only the costs that our country has to encounter as a consequence of integration process into NATO, based on the data from the Ministry of Defense, as well as on the experience of existing members-countries into NATO.

1 "Economic benefits for Bulgaria for joining NATO", October 2001, Institute for Liberal Studies in cooperation with Employers Association of Bulgaria.

We are fully aware that the problem looks more complex into several directions:

First of all, from Literature Reference, we could not find any special methodology to be used as a guideline.

Secondly, to draw out the full balance-sheet of effects to NATO membership should not only be considered the costs, but also the benefits deriving from Integration into Euro-Atlantic Alliance, hence the problem could not be treated separately for the costs and benefits apart, but should be reviewed for its net effect .

Thirdly, we have to do with a considerable number of factors and effects, which in many cases present difficulties to be expressed in monetary terms, such as e.g. assessment through figures on country's security etc.

Fourthly, the impacts have to be extended in time for a long term and mid-term period, (still, are many unknown factors) by making analyses and assessment of ex ante RIA method, based on current net value of benefits and costs from the moment of invitation.

In the fifth place, it seems likely that the major responsibility for NATO integration falls directly upon the Ministry of Defense. In fact, the obligations and benefits of this process pertain to all segments of Government and political spectrum in the country, putting to clear evidence the coordination of work among all. Owing to the multi-fold character of the stakeholders involved, the outcome of this study should become subject to dialogue and consultations, as well as through the support joint inter-sector strategies.

In the sixth place, NATO in itself is undergoing through a process of transformation and appropriation under the new conditions of security environment trying to respond to new global threats by making more difficult the anticipation of measures and actions in the defense area from new-member countries.

In the seventh place, aspects on integration costs could be seen within a narrow focus (restricted only to the defense area), but even on a wider spectrum from the perspective of the economy and costs that the country's stakeholders have to pay. (The latter, it seems to be likely more logical). From another angle, it might be simply focusing on the additional costs accruing from NATO membership.

From the above reasons, we assume that the study might serve as an enhancement invitation for deepened analyses to draw out fuller conclusions supported by substantial information and experiences from other NATO members during this decade. From the completed surveys, it results that there are series of reports on integration of new members from RAND Corporation, Budget Office of the American Congress, USA State Department, as well as reports from the member countries. But, what is of real value to be studied is the cost analyses and factual benefits “ex-post” of this process, by comparing them to the anticipated values.

What Is The Public Perception In Our Country?

Without claiming on a rigorously primary questionnaire, moreover on testing our opinions, we carried out a mini-survey with a group of 200 students from the Faculty of Economics at Tirana University. We picked out on purpose students from the third and fourth grades, which were considered to have the proper education in providing more qualified opinions over this issue.

As a summary, we offer you several outcomes from the key findings in this survey:

- 92% of the respondents consider as positive (pros) the invitation to Bucharest Meeting for Albania’s Admission into NATO, only 2.6% are against (cons).
- 77% of the respondents think that the process shall be accompanied by costs for the country, whereas 6.4% have responded in a negative way, 16.7 % express no clear idea.
- 62% forecast that the expenses on defense in the budget amount to 2+/-1% of GDD in the county, whereas 27% think that this level would reach over 3%.
- 56% of the respondents are of the opinion that the expenses should value to go to integration into Euro-Atlantic Structures, whereas the rest it would be much better to go to other items of the state budget.
- The Percentage of support drops down to 52% regarding the deployment of our troops into the dangerous zones such as Iraq or Afghanistan.
- Over 90% of the respondents are of the opinion that our country is lacking the proper financial, material and managerial capacities to face natural disasters, terrorist acts or any other potential invasion.

- From students' answers it is interesting to place to evidence the identification of almost all possible costs from NATO integration, including non-financial costs.
- Opinions are equally divided when you raise the issue of any possible threat from internal or external factors.

From the responses obtained, it is framed the idea that there is an institutional vacuum related to human, technical, financial and organisational resources for NATO integration. (70% of the respondents confirm that there is a media-coverage related to NATO membership, but still 80% of all the interviewed persons express an interest to learn more). Starting from their responses over what areas they require more information, the majority of them require information on economic aspects of integration. This, we believe is much more expressed by the public at large, who are mostly lacking knowledge in the economic field, particularly, in relation to costs with arguments for relevant costs in the process. Most of all cases, both media with politicians and governors are much more interested to advocate in details their successful meetings in the framework of NATO, by sidetracking aspects of the economic bill on the process.

Interviewing has to draw attention toward another genuine fact particularly for the political class: a high percentage of support to NATO membership by the public should be seriously dealt with, so that attempts must be made to preserve it, but always based on self-awareness, for the costs and challenges we have to encounter from NATO membership.

From the economic standpoint, the rationale of integration into NATO for a candidate country, hence, our country included, must be the provision of a safe defense, the guarantee of a higher security level and/or with expenses lower for defense with a sustainable cost, appropriate to membership into the Alliance, compared to opportunities for non-membership.

Criteria OF Nato Membership

In order to acknowledge cost to NATO membership, we shall preliminarily dwell on the requirements that a candidate country has to complete aspiring for joining the Alliance. Consequently, we have to be aware that once admitted, the new members should enjoy the rights, but also membership obligations, including the principles, policies and proper

procedures by the member-states. According to a study ² representing a detailed guide for the admission/of a candidate country into the Alliance, explicit or implicit prerequisites for joining NATO are political, economic, military including a rational argument over the NATO strategy. Hence, the claiming countries shall:

- a) Represent a democratic, political system based on a market economy;
- b) Respect human rights and minorities;
- c) Have settled out their territorial ethnic disagreements etc, with their neighbors.
- d) Promote welfare and stability;
- e) Ensure democratic oversight of their armed forces;
- f) Provide opportunities and willpower for military contribution into the Alliance, in order to ensure inter-operations with the other member countries;
- g) Reallocate a sufficient level of expenses for defense in order to fulfill their commitments for collective defense in the future.

As seen, we might assume that there are one political, legal, organisational, technical obligation, on education and defense, preparation on security and intelligence matters to work with the Security Office of NATO as well as a contribution by each country to the common budget. At the moment of admission into the Alliance, the members countries have to meet these obligations in form of a Commitment-Paper, in which are included the deadlines for concluding reforms. They have to draw out national annual programmes where plans for reforms are drafted in five chapters: Political and economic issues, defense issues, security issues and finally legal issues. Therefore, the discussions of this process has to be publicly made and developed into a transparent, professional way by the whole spectrum of Albanian society.

Associated Costs To Nato'S Integration Process

² From RAND report: "Study on NATO Enlargement, 2000-2015, Determinants and Implications for Defense Planning and Shaping", by Thomas S. Szayna Defense Planning

Further down, we put forward several of these criteria to be used for additional analysis in costs division:

A. Cost relation to measures and defense budget

1. Direct military costs
2. Indirect cost, non-military

Further on, you might draw out a table where relevant notes could accompany each cost item according to the following classifications:

B. Costs division according to timelines

1. Short-term [up to 1 (one) year],
2. Mid-Term(1 - 5 years),
3. Long-Term (over 5 years).

C. Costs classification according to importance ranking (1, 2, 3)

1. Very Important or necessary costs,
2. Important costs
3. Less Important costs.

For each cost item you judge out the timeline execution based on the importance degree.

Ç. Costs divided according to nature:

- a) Investments,
- b) Periodical Costs.

D. Sources of Financing

I. State Budget

- a) Ministry of Defense,
- b) Other Ministries or co-financing with them,
- c) Joint participation in regional projects.

II. Foreign Financing

- a) Assistance and finance from international organizations,
- b) Assistance and finance from NATO member countries,
- c) Foreign Credits,
- d) Direct Foreign Investments.

Out of these, you could have further divisions into:

- a) ***Costs generating income for the economy as a whole, which need to be analyzed for their net effect*** (e.g. construction of training centers, shooting range with local subcontractor companies or costs for accommodation of NATO troops during joint exercises, which generate income for the industry of tourism, foodstuff etc.).
- b) ***Costs serving to EU Accession*** (reforms in the justice, state police, reform in the electoral system, measures in combating corruption, trafficking of human beings etc.).
- c) ***Costs for the army without joining NATO Structures*** (e.g. costs for transformation, reform and modernization of the army or increase in the material security, etc.).

What is the cost of NATO membership³?

For these we shall particularly dwell on the analysis of direct costs on the defense and those indirect, non-military costs.

Direct Military Cost

According to recent NATO reports, the major problems in the defense area that Albania and the other aspiring countries are facing in order to comply with the standards of the Alliance and whereupon to focus future reforms, are:

Source or insufficient capabilities to ensure their sovereignty and defense.

Low technological level, training and response. This leads to the fact that "their military contribution during 10 years according to international experts, be to a minimum level"⁴.

Limited military budget, owing to the economic level in these countries.

Lack of military capacities capable to operate autonomously in peacekeeping missions in the world.

To realize the necessary reforms in the defense area, you need to reach a long-term political consensus among the parties, in order to consider the relatively high costs for the strained economies of these countries.

In the direct costs of defense are included all the costs directly related to our accession into the Alliance together with the reforms to be realized in the defense sectors to come up to optimum capacities of interaction with NATO structures and to ensure the country's contribution to the tasks of collective defense and new NATO missions. These costs mainly comprise:

1. Membership costs-contribution to joint NATO budget.
2. Costs related to civil and military representation into NATO.

³ With membership cost, we have used a wider concept, other than cost addition by membership fee or other costs related to membership. Hence, membership has been seen as a process like a pre, pending and post act.

⁴ "The road to Prague: New democracies want to join NATO" by R. Nicholas Burns, April 17, 2002

3. Costs related to commitments of our troops into joint operations.
4. Costs for participation into joint activities of NATO (seminars, conferences, joint exercises, the role as a “host-country” etc.).
5. Maintenance of the defense-budget at a certain level, to realize the modernization and restructuring of the armed forces according to NATO standards.
6. Costs on developments and infrastructure/territory adjustments.
7. Cost related to legal, procedural and organisational regulations.

All these costs pose a “burden” for Albanian taxpayers and for our economy, as they denominate requests towards the country’s limited budget as determined for defense reforms; because similarly, it is claimed to be used more effectively in other sectors which are considered to be more vital to the country like e.g. in health, education etc.

1. Membership costs-contribution to joint NATO budget.

In implementation of principles for joint financing and costs division, the member countries determine their financial resources for the functioning of the Alliance (facilities on consultations, decision-making, implementation of programmes etc). Member countries of NATO contribute to their national budget in the activities of the Alliance in several ways, among others, the major thing is placing at the disposal of NATO their own armed forces. Some of the joint exercises are covered by three budget-items administered by NATO: civil budget, military budget, and programme on security investments (SIP), all which in form of individual contribution by each member country. Membership costs are direct costs and they are considered as “extra costs” contributing into the three afore-mentioned budgets.

Contributions of each country into the joint fund are negotiated among members and based on GDP per capita in the country, and other factors. Usually less than 0.5% of the country’s budget goes to membership fee for NATO. Non-official figures in our case are estimated to be from 300 thousand Euros⁵, to 5 up to 10 million Euros⁶.

⁵ Foreign Minister of RA

⁶ Starting from the experience of several small countries like Estonia, joining NATO recently

Joint fund is used to appropriate NATO structures, to the function of enlargement, improvement of military infrastructure of the new member countries, for stationing of NATO troops into their territory, for the support of new members to improve their defense system etc.

2. Costs for civil and military representation into NATO

In order to realize effective communication, consultations and common decision-making among NATO members, each member country should have a permanent, diplomatic and military representation at NATO Headquarters, as well as other representatives with a staff-size amounting to 80 persons maximum, for Albania, out of which 50% civil staff, in agencies and various military commands of NATO (up to 2012). In this item you have to include expenses and salaries, other benefits for this staff comparable to levels in other countries, qualification and specialization of the personnel related to STANANG, together with the costs for the preparation of back-up specialists in the army. Here, it must also be included the cost for maintenance of country's delegation and reception of military missions which constitute a national obligation.

However, from this analysis we have to consider the assessment of actions for the whole economy, as along with the identified costs, we have in parallel the introduction of 80 new job vacancies.

3. Costs for our troops commitment into joint operations

As mentioned before, the major obligation from NATO member countries is the participation of the troops in missions and joint operations for NATO, outside the country. Most of the military forces and equipment in member-countries are under the control and national command, but they could be put at NATO disposal for special military duties, complying with Alliance objectives. Despite of this fact, the expenses on the maintenance of the troops and military equipment, their training etc, are financed by individual defense budgets from member countries

According to sources from Ministry of Defense, Albania has at NATO disposal for international missions about 50 % of its troops. Our country joins in different operations, incorporated into contingents of other member states with an actual cost of about 10 million EURO per year, out of which

we cover 20% of operational costs whereas the other portion is met by the allies. Our objective is that gradually the contribution of our ground forces be increased by 8%, from 5% at the actual moment (about 40% rotation) and to fully meet the operational costs (100 per cent). The objective could be reached when our forces could be capable to face their tasks independently (to function as autonomous units), by increasing their inter-operations with other NATO units. The costs for this item are foreseen that within a mid-term period could reach about 80 million EURO per year.

4. Costs for participation into joint activities of NATO

Here are included costs related to countries participation into various activities of NATO of IPP Type (Individual Partnership Programme.) in form of conferences, seminars, joint exercises etc. along with participation into numerous commissions / committees of NATO with qualified personnel (including qualification costs). These activities have been reimbursed by NATO countries up to 70-80%. In the future, based on the experience of new members like Bulgaria and Rumania, our participation could be limited to the necessary level with the maximum effectiveness for benefits, as ensured by such activities

At the same time, in the last year 3 years Albania has welcome as a “host country” exercise with several hundreds participants from the Allies. Only for IPP activities, not calculating exercises with troops, the annual total cost amounts to about 200-300 thousand EURO.

However, we assume that on each participation-cost, we might draw out a benefit coefficient from trainings and knowledge gained, by setting priorities to executed expenses. In addition to the value in a decision making in joint activities this assessment could be added to the list of benefits in case of a full analysis, costs and benefits to NATO.

Another way to tackle this issue would be defining the priorities, by Ministry of Defense related to training new specialists or consolidation of knowledge and further specialization for high militaries. Likewise, it might also be efficient to conduct courses for that category, as well as enabling participation in virtual distant training of the type “e-learning”.

5. Size of the Defense Budget

The size of the budget for the member-countries is determined on proportional basis, according to economy size of each country in relation to other countries, on technical and legal resources on security the country provides as well as the contribution by each new member into the common budget of NATO. Non-official budget size as against GDP is 2%⁷. Irrespective of the limited resources the factual budget of country's defense amounted to an increase of 182.6 million EURO by the end of 2007 or 200 milliards leks representing 1.82 of GDP instead of 1.5 %of GDP in 2006.

If we compare from table no.1⁸ the relevant budget in relation to GDP of Central and South-Eastern Countries joining NATO after the 1990-ies, by the end of 2007 (projection), only Bulgaria exceeds the threshold of 2 %.Referring to the same source of data in the same year, it is observed that the threshold 2% of GDP has been overcome by 6 out of 26 NATO countries

Table No.1:

	Defense Budget (% towards GDP) 2007 (p)	
1	Poland	1.9
2	Hungary	1.1
3	Check Republic	1.6
4	Slovenia	1.6
5	Latvia	1.7
6	Lithuania	1.3
7	Estonia	1.6
8	Slovak Republic	1.7
9	Bulgaria	2.3
10	Rumania	1.9
11	Albania	1.82

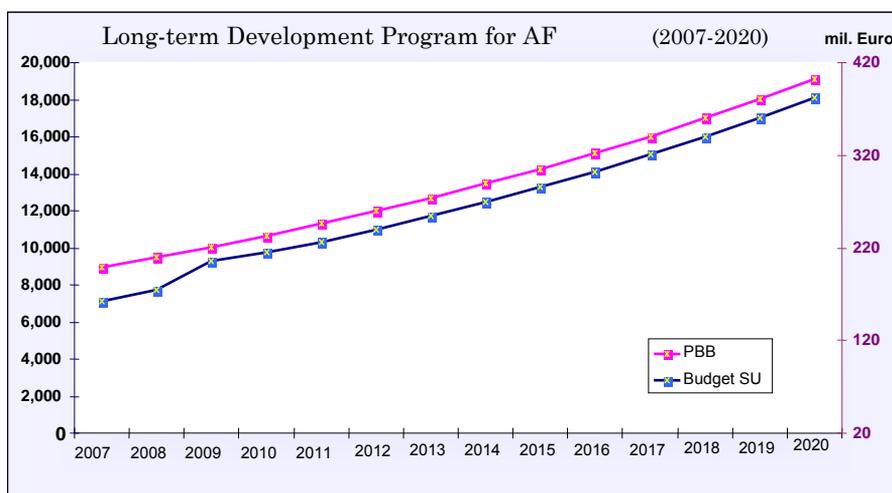
A positive step towards cost estimate for NATO integration is the Drafting of a Long-Term Plan of Development (LPD) for the Armed Forces by the Ministry of Defense, for the period 2007-2020. LPD anticipates that

7 CRS Report for Congress: Enlargement Issues at NATO's Bucharest Summit by Paul Gallis, Coordinator, P. Belkin, C. Ek, J. Kim, J. Nichol, and S. Woehrel, Foreign Affairs, Defense, and Trade Division, March 12, 2008

8 NATO-Russia Compendium of Financial and Economic Data relating to Defense, Table 4, compiled by Data Analysis Section, NATO International Staff, 20 December 2007

the resources for meeting the expected obligations and relevant costs from integration into NATO structures, and seemingly determines the necessary sources for the reform and modernization of the armed forces, with the aim of establishing a wholly professional contingent force within the year 2010⁹. Based on this document, the budget from the Ministry of Defense is expected to assume the level 2 % of GDP in 2008 (referring to table no.2) and continues to be at these levels up to 2020, supposedly to retain the same level increase for GDP each year (about 6 %) and with an inflation rate 2-4%. Consequently, by the end of 2008 the defense budget is projected to reach 174.8 million Euro¹⁰, rising gradually up to 381.8 million Euro by the end of 2020. In the cumulative way, for the mid-term period (2007-2013) Albania is expected to spend on modernization of the defense sector 1,477.7 million Euros and 2,259.5 million Euros of other Euro during 2013-2020, and in total 3.7 billion Euros up to the year 2020.

Table No.2:



As we consider the commitments before the partners and in order not to confront unexpected situations, we assume that the Ministry of Defense in corporation with the Ministry of Finance, have to draw out a contingency scheme with a sensitivity analyses for the worst scenario e.g. if we have an overcome of the inflation objective of 4% and a downfall at the rate of economic growth. Presumably, we can have three figures for the budget, one for the bright scenario, and two others separately; for an average and a pessimist scenario.

⁹ Ministry of Defense, Long-term Plan of Development for the Armed Forces²⁰⁰⁷⁻²⁰²⁰.

¹⁰ For convenience has been used the constant rate of exchange 1 € = 123 Leks

Structure of the Defense Budget

The defense budget, through eight defense program, will ensure the necessary reforms for restructuring, modernization of the armed forces together with the systems, techniques, and major inter-operational equipment with NATO structures, (combined and adjusted with). The final outcome will be the establishment of a qualitative, small and well-equipped force, with a narrowly “niche” specialization that could be capable with the Alliance Forces into missions and international tasks, by ensuring “complementarities” with them. The combating agenda and support etc. constitute over 66% of the defense budget, whereas trainings take up 7% of the total budget.

Expenses on defense modernization shall progressively increase from 16% in 2007 to levels 25-30 % in 2013 by preserving these levels up to 2020.

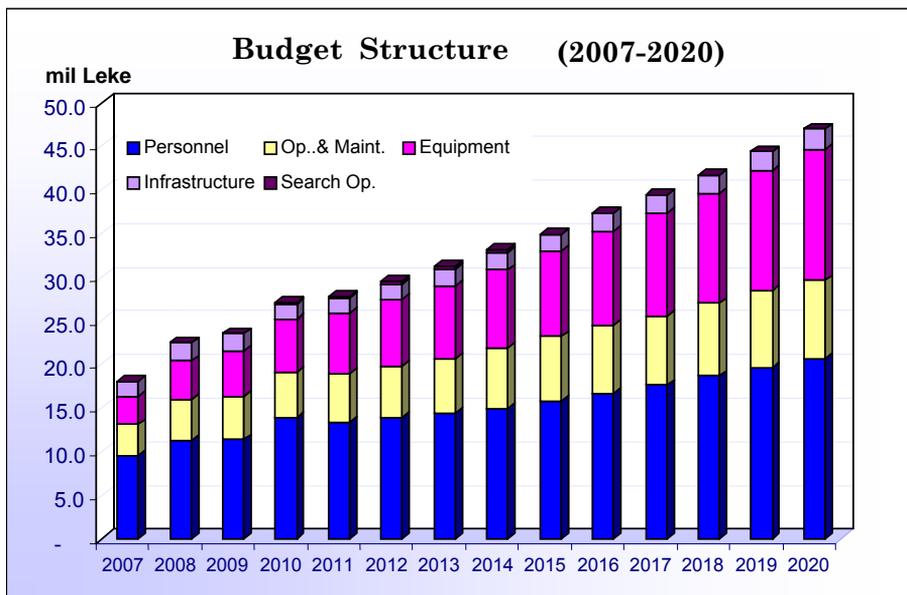
Along with the rise of the total amount of expenses in investments there will be carried out a clear policy to regulate the balance of expenses among the modernization of systems, equipment and infrastructure that can serve to country’s security and putting it at the disposal of Euro-Atlantic Structures if interests arise. In the programs of modernization of the defense infrastructure are included the projects of integrated systems for observation of airspace, projects of mobility with vehicles and data transfer via computerized and information systems; development of autonomous capacities, defense and troops support, trainings with simulators etc. Total amount of these investments is projected to reach an estimate of about 395 million EURO.

- i. It would be of real value if more advanced studies, could calculate the benefits to be ensured by country’s economy and draw out the net results to be created following these investments:
- ii. For local businesses, which could be in the position of various subcontractors by the army to realize various investments in place such as; construction operations, sales of equipment and spare parts for the transport vehicles in the army , providing the service of mounting and repairing for ships. etc.;
- iii. The new labor fronts that will be opened in form of additional temporary and permanent job-vacancies;

- iv. From use of infrastructure and civil aims in terms of peace, emergency humanitarian situations(operation of rescue and search, evacuation with helicopters) etc.;
- v. Enhancement of direct foreign investments;
- vi. Promotion of tourism industry etc.

From the structure presented by table no.3 and sequence, it clearly seems a domination of personnel costs together with operational and maintenance costs to the amount of 72 % from the defense budget.

Table No.3:



The expected structural changes on expenses based on a number of models from NATO member countries shall consist of:

1. A gradual reduction of expenses on personnel on the existing level 53% to 44% of defense-budget in the year 2020.
2. Operational and maintenance expenses shall remain at figures 19%.
3. Expenses on operations will increase from 18% by the end 2007 to 32% in year 2020.

4. Expenses on Infrastructure (until now a greater percentage of expenses in investments) shall gradually fall from 10% in the year 2007 to 5% of defense budget in year 2020, with a substantial reduction particularly during the period 2009-2010.
5. Expenses on research and development activities shall remain to zero level up to the year of 2010, and later on, amounting to 2% of annual defense budget.

We are of the opinion that an analysis shall be taken in relation to the budget, regarding the expenses to be liberated from the reduction in the army size, which might lead to a long-term period in the reduction of operational costs to be used efficiently for the fulfillment of the objectives of inter-operations. It is interesting to estimate the net cost resulting from the transition of the army from a force under call into a modern, qualitative army, fully professional.

A subsequent cost has to cover the redundancies from the military reform (from 11.020¹¹ actually to 10 thousand up to 2010) and the matter of their status. As the substantial calculations on this category are accomplished by the Ministry of Defense we conclude that this cost has to be reflected in this analysis as a separate item in the state budget, despite of non-being an exclusive item for the Ministry of Defense. In this way, the savings gained from “military removals” shall be drawn per net by subtracting expenses on temporary pensions etc.

In order not to lag behind, in the future could be seen the possibility by the relevant structures in the Ministry of Defense to ensure and request the participation in research-developments at a regional scale with regard to issues pertaining to security in the region and appropriation and processing of military doctrines etc, together with collaborations from military academy or national and foreign institutions. Likewise, the Ministry of Defense could require studies related to the application of methods for mathematical modelling to determine the optimum figures and structures for the armed forces. Such a model could be transferred from the other countries like, for example Bulgaria. Similarly, another interesting area of research could be the revitalization and establishment of an industry in the defense sector by making use of the specific needs the Alliance would manifest as well as the competitive advantages our country would present from the low costs standpoint of the work-force, geographical location etc.

11 Sources: 2008 CIA World Fact book; Military Balance 2008; Forecast International

Until now, Albania has been profiting to a considerable extent from the “Know-How” and a whole range of bilateral, technical and financial assistance particularly from USA and other countries like Turkey, Italy, Greece, Holland, etc. which have to be reduced from the predicted sums for separate items in the mid-term and long-term budgets.

Costs for developments and infrastructure appropriation (territory) and the role performance for the host country.

a) *Infrastructure and territory in our country* (land and maritime routes, ports, airports, telecommunication-systems, operational centers, ammunition depots, training-shooting fields, energy supply network etc.), as well as other supporting provisions such as a logistics, accommodation, fuel supply etc. shall be put at Alliance Disposal, in case of need, for various missions. All the costs for infrastructure improvements and services of the type “Support by the host country”, which have to be modelled according to Alliance Standards shall be met by our country, with the exemption of cases when these objects represent strategic interests for the Alliance and the latter invests from the joint funding. SIP Program can finance on basis of interests up to 2/3 of infrastructure investments in new member countries.

These costs need to be definitely identified in figures to be included in cost estimate. But in addition to expenses, part of these costs can serve as generation sources of income for the home industry of tourism, transport, foodstuff, telecommunication etc., influencing the GDP growth in the country. Moreover, there are countries such as Bulgaria that have calculated the growth multiplier of GDP in % for each percentage growth rate of defense budget towards GDP, a task which could be realized in cooperation with our Universities. Probably, this constitutes another route to be followed in the future in case of further analysis.

b) NATO is expected to impose the collaboration of our country into a number of systems or defense initiative, which have considerable costs. Hence, mention could be made of projects on data and information sharing for of Air Defense Space (ASDE) for the integration of detection system of air alarm (NATINEADS), air patrolling etc., which comprise investments in hardware, software, infrastructure, personnel, training etc.

For many of the investments there is a possibility of finance division according to regional agreements with the neighboring countries, NATO

members. Similarly, some of the projects in the infrastructure improvements could have been awarded with concession to foreign actors, which are object to foreign financing from international bodies such as IBRD, World Bank, European Bank of Investments, EU, and USAID etc. Therefore, it is necessary to coordinate even with the other Ministries such as that of Economy, Transport etc. to avoid overlapping and imprecise planning. Even so, you should not treat the problem separately, as we have to be aware that investments for enlargement, infrastructure improvements in most of the cases bring forth benefits in other areas of economy among which the inflow of foreign investments, development of tourism, the reduction of transport cost on exports and delivery of home products, the reduction of informal economy (in case of tightening controls and prevention of trafficking at frontiers) etc.

c) Part of the actions that Albania should undertake in the position of a host country in order to guarantee a safe territory for stationing NATO troops in case of need *is the gradual elimination of ammunition, equipment and heavy Chinese and Russian armaments*, which due to the old age and outdated state beyond standards as accepted by the Alliance, constitute potential risks to the security and NATO credibility during its operations in our country. We would remind you of the additional cost and negative publicity within the country and abroad as well the social and human costs deriving from lack of due control during demounting process. According to the data from the Ministry there do still remain about 90 thousand tones of ammunition which have to be destroyed (or neutralized) with a financial cost calculated to the amount of about 30 million EUR.

Still by acknowledging the fact that Ministry of Defense could ensure income from the sale in form of a scrap, from the adjustments or sales of military weapons as game weapons etc., there is to be drawn as jet the net-result of these operations. In the meantime, other costs need not to be neglected, such as the negative impact in the environment and the social effects from such operations (expressing into monetary terms of the possibly social damages affecting population from accidental explosions like Gerdeci-case; costs from water contamination, air pollution in zones near the depots etc.) as well as costs regarding the legal regulations in commerce, contracting, executing control on demounting, licensing of such activities in order to avoid recurrence of similar situations in the future.

Costs on legal, procedural, and organisational regulations

In this sub-group could be included all the expenses related to organisational, procedural measures, various legal regulations and rules to be carried out in cases of not ensuring conformity with the requirements, obligations and NATO standards.

- a) *Costs on constant adjustments to military legislation in the defense area, in compliance with the requirements*, of sector modernization according to Alliance demands, response towards new challenges, emergency crises etc.
- b) *Costs on programs to improve the democratic control of defense* by the Government and Parliament. Probably, this has to be accompanied with the delivery of more Parliament Members into joint activities in NATO framework (seminars, conferences etc.) in order to stir up their interest into the area of policy-making and legislative decision-making. Likewise, you should also anticipate costs on drafting from regulatory viewpoint and procedures for discussion, endorsement and control of basic strategic documents of defense by the Parliament, with the qualities of a supreme body for the democratic oversight of the army and legislative supervisor of the armed forces¹².

Another sub-item in this category would be the cost for organizing transparency programmes and open dialogue on issues of security from the Ministry of Defense with parliamentarians on issues of security and country's defense, as well as the public at large in relation to the advantages and costs of the process for NATO integration; a fact that would increase the degree of alert of the country and people for a successful membership into NATO. It shouldn't be to the benefit of NATO or to our country, an unprepared admission into the Alliance.

- c) *Establishment of functional, organisational structures* owing to the experiences from advanced countries in the region and NATO models for processes of purchasing the appointment relevant controlling and responsible bodies. In a special way, it should be improved according to best practices, the purchasing of armaments,

12 165 DSCFC 2007, Rev.1 - "The three Adriatic aspirants: capabilities and preparations", Chapter III Albania, 29, by Sverre Myrli (Norway), Rapporteur.

by defining rules on standardization, coding, quality, authenticity, rules for transport, storage and demolition of outdated armaments.

- d) *Costs on compiling regulations, laws, standards, work-procedures etc. public procurements of vehicles, equipment and services for construction, setting, enlargement and infrastructure improvements, fuel supply for land, maritime and air military vehicles etc., services of maintenance for such vehicles, level of inspection and storing in military depots, regulation on planning, control and organisational of functions for military logistics, e.g. in construction services should be seen possibilities to harmonize with standards applied by NATO on depots constructions, training centers and buildings even comparing to EU case-applications. In addition to this, supplementary costs could be the drafting approval and implementation of regulations and procedures to obtain by rent for temporary use for army needs of commercial assets (e.g. transport vehicles) which abide by certain standards.*
- e) Costs on improvements and issuing of rules for licensing subcontractor companies, control on exports of equipment and armament, provision of the Certificate of Origin, defining ways of packaging, etc.

FINANCING OF THE DEFENSE BUDGET

From the above treatment, sources for financing the integration into Euro-Atlantic structures on expenses related to defense could be divided into internal resources (national) and outside foreign sources depending on the fact if covered by our state budget or ensured by foreign sources. From type of financing, sources could be further subdivided into the following categories:

A. State Budget

- a) Finances 100% from funds of the Defense Ministry.
- b) Co-finances with other Ministries (like e.g. of Transport, Telecommunication, METE etc. for joint infrastructure projects etc.).
- c) Income ensured from sales of assets of Ministry of Defense such as e.g. buildings, depots, heavy armaments and equipment etc.

- d) Income ensured from accessory activities of the Ministry of Defense such as, renting sites under possession, services to the third parties (if any) etc.

B. Foreign Financing

- a) Assistance and aid from member countries of NATO (e.g. from USA, Italy etc.).
- b) Co finances with other countries in the framework of agreements and regional projects (e.g. with Croatia, etc.).
- c) Investments from joint NATO fund, SIP programme.
- d) Financing and aid from international organizations (if any).
- e) Foreign Credit (e.g. for projects of enlargements in infrastructure, improvements and rehabilitation imports etc.).
- f) Direct foreign investments (allowance through concession of military airports etc.).

Most of the new member countries of the Alliance (Poland, Bulgaria etc) have been profiting from SIP budget and other new programs in support of less developed countries in figures up to 2/3 of budget in investments to modernize infrastructure etc. According to Consolidation Act for Freedom of NATO in 2007, in the projected budget for 2008 there have been anticipated assistance expenses for candidate countries into NATO(including our country), where funds on the transfer of excessive equipment for defense, education and military training, foreign military assistance for joint trainings, an increase at the level of inter-operations etc. Only USA, in this framework anticipate to engage 12 million US\$ during 2008 and another sum of 30 million US\$ for 2008-2012¹³. Identifying the sources of financing according to the aforementioned ways, could avoid recurrent forecasts in budget total of the country as well as an increase of efficiency in the planning process.

13 Congressional Budget Office Cost Estimate, S. 494 NATO Freedom Consolidation Act of 2007, March 9, 2007. Included in Senate Committee Report 110-34.

INDIRECT, NON-MILITARY COSTS

As treated above, membership into NATO is not merely a political decision with special significance only for defense. Yet, there are some other dimensions of NATO integration in addition to political and military impacts (explicit or implicit), which were treated as part of obligations for a country into the integration process. Economic collaboration is one of the aspects expressed directly by Washington Treaty. There is a close cooperation between security and economic collaboration which have been well-defined since Marshall Plan; which aimed at framing a safer environment to security and economic development.

Hence, as seen from NATO obligations, accession into the Alliance can not be easily tackled by candidate countries, as they would have to renounce practices of corruption, authoritarian practices, non-respect for rule of law, abuse with the free will of the voters, allowances in market deformations, infringements in minority rights, freedom of the individual and press etc. Joining the Alliance requires from candidate countries the right political will and sufficient capacities to implement reforms, ***translated this into diversified costs in addition to military ones.***

1. Political Costs. There are many arguments/polemics concerning *a reduction in a nation's sovereignty* becoming subject to collective decisions on security undertaken by the Alliance. However, we still think that in Albania's case that argument counts not in a proper terrain, because today under the conditions of manifold, non-conventional threats for a small country with limited, financial resources, presumably military, it should be impossible to guarantee country's security relying only on our assets. The argument will be further seconded and consolidated if a scenario of required costs to achieve security would be expected, in cases when lacking the collective defense from the Alliance.

Another cost, would be *lack of public support* for the party in power as a consequence of commitments for our troops into dangerous zones of the world, in the framework of NATO missions. E.g. Slovenia and Italia under the public pressure were forced to withdraw their troops from Iraq, whereas other countries like Poland reduced the number in troops. Croatians refrain from membership for fear of losing foreign tourists, a fact, which relates to reasoning for setting up the basis of NATO in this country. These costs

would be more sensitive and tangible in cases of possible killings of their member troops in Iraq etc.

Furthermore, due to the alignments with NATO, Albania being a small country with little protection can be perceived as a country more exposed to *terrorist attacks*, a *potential cost* mentioned by the survey outcomes as well.

Albania has been considered by international organizations as a country with legal and institutional problems which frequently derivate in the fierce fight among parties in country's political arena Fulfillment of NATO and EU Standards for the electoral process and judicial reform constitute an *additional cost* imposed by completion of Membership Criteria into NATO, though this serving to several aims. Deep reforms in the judicial system to increase efficiency, law implementation, elimination of political interventions and rise of transparency in legislative system constitute other costs in this process.

2. Economic Costs. Irrespective of the macroeconomic successes being a country where 25 % of the population lives below the poverty threshold, with deep disproportions of wealth distribution, with a high deficit of current accounts conditioned so much by emigrants remittances. It is not easy for Albania to engage *its own limited financial resources of security*, due to NATO standards.

Other costs would be those related to the *accomplishment of reforms* in general, not only for NATO, but also within EU framework. Mention could be made for costs of restructuring and further liberalization of the economy, promotion of businesses, sanctioning the precise right to property, privatization in economy, improvements in social insurances system, reforms in health and education sectors etc.

As a result of exercising of a tighter control on land and maritime borders it is obviously expected to reduce informal economy (taking up 40-60% of the economy) income from illegal trade, narcotics etc. as the road to trafficking and smuggling can be cut off. In reality, the country would lose a hidden source of economic growth but would gain another significant result: the trust and security of foreign investors, integration into NATO, regional cooperation and we believe EU membership. Consequently, the cost we pay is exceeded by numerous expected benefits.

3. Social Costs. *The fight against corruption, organized crime, trafficking of weapons, narcotics and human beings* have been considered as the biggest challenge to any governments in Albania, as it constitutes one of

the major social problems for the country. Transparency International in the index of perceiving corruption for the year 2007 ranks Albania as the last county in Central Europe or 105-th place from 175 countries. Despite of the good programmes by the government and advocated promises, we might state that this has been an already lost battle for all governments. Precisely to address concrete and serious measures in the sectors of administration of taxation, of the Customs, public administration, a better frontiers control, in the justice system, rule of law etc. require further commitments and other costs, too.

The reform in the defense sector will lead to a reduction in the armed forces. In this budget will be added costs on social insurances for this category, additional programmes to be reintegrated into work etc.

4. Costs on Infrastructure. As it has been mentioned above, the integration into Euro-Atlantic Structures implies the establishment of appropriate conditions for performing joint activities with the Alliance countries in our territory. The concept of national security implies *the use of civil infrastructure* for NATO needs and within a brief time period. Improvements in road infrastructure, energy, telecommunication, etc, similarly infer additional costs.

It is important to emphasize that all costs as forwarded from the above like those relating to judicial, electoral, economic reforms in infrastructure etc. shall be carried out by our country independently of the requirements for NATO membership. Many of them will be accomplished without foreign donors support. The impact of accomplished reforms is of value for the whole economy, despite of the fact for NATO integration or not. Every reform expressed in monetary terms serves also to the common goal of quicker integration into EU, to country's economic stability and preservation of macroeconomic stability. The only thing different is the speed to realize these changes, therefore, we have defined them as an indirect costs to NATO integration. All these costs may be recovered, as they are closely related to our accession into EU.

As a conclusion, a return to investments for NATO reforms is manifold, if, we calculate contributions in times for stability in institutions, attraction of foreign Investors, increase in country's security and an increasing graph of macro-economic performance etc. Moreover, they shall award opportunities of greater approximation to EU, as many of the criteria and principles on membership, particularly, in the political area are common and complementary to one-another by creating synergy. This has been broadly

verified by the experiences of other countries, already being admitted into NATO and EU in the last decade.

Lastly, Let us dwell a little on what it might happen if our country would not join NATO. Under the conditions in the Balkans, with unclear border problems, ethnic conflicts, threats from terrorist acts, traffickers etc., Albania would have to invest on its own to set up an army, guarantee security etc. Realization of this task would not be easy, on the contrary, it would take up a pretty long time (probably up to 15 years without NATO assistance) to ensure a minimum system of security. The strategy pursued independently of NATO might not have the right one by calculating lack of specialized and technical assistance, infrastructure of ensured trainings by the Allies in the framework of partnership. Experiences of Poland, Bulgaria etc. (bigger countries and with technical, financial capabilities several times greater than those of our country), indicate that their independent plans for transformation and modernization of the army could be hardly attained in an individual way without NATO assistance. Likewise, the outcome to establish security (not at the guaranteed quality by NATO) security independently of NATO, would require a longer period (10-15 years) to be realized. Normally, even under a scenario for country's analysis, costs for transformation of the defense sector, have to be subtracted from NATO expenses as they would necessarily be carried out even without expectation for membership into the Alliance. Consequently, the variant of guaranteeing the security without NATO in our country can not be justified from the economic aspect.

Conclusion

The objective of our study was not only the full and final calculation of costs accompanying the pre and post process of membership into NATO, but, moreover the opening of a public debate concerning this issue. Transparency and debate shall accompany the integration process into Euro-Atlantic Structures as they should be a fuller and real support in a much longer period (irrespective of the questionnaire outcomes which conclude that over 90% of the Albanians do support this process).

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The Post Nice Process and Institutional Reforms of the New Members States of EU

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Abstract

The history of institutional change in the European Union shows that its motivations and dynamics vary widely over time. It is nevertheless possible to identify three permanent factors of change, whose respective weight varies, and to identify the conditions under which they may influence the negotiations. It was argued that a proper analysis of treaty reform processes in the EU requires a dynamic perspective on decision-making, going beyond the individual IGC as a moment of formal treaty reform. The decision-making process needs to be situated in a distinct historical, institutional, and contextual setting, revealing how actors are embedded in a web of structuring elements. Such an argument is rooted in institutional theory. As a result, the EU has developed two unique characteristics: it has a complex institutional structure, more complex than that found in other international bodies, and it operates through a combination of intergovernmental and supranational activities. My paper is related to the importance of the institutional reforms in the existed EU member states and the new member states with the special focus given to the newly member governments toward changes in the procedures for handling the IGCs and the necessity of the European Constitution for the EU member states.

Key words: Treaty of Nice, Institutional reform, achievements of the New Member States

Abstrakt

Historia e ndryshimeve institucionale në UE tregon se motivimet dhe dinamizmi i tij ndryshojnë plotësisht gjatë kohës. Megjithatë ende është e mundshme të përcaktohen tre aktorët permanent të ndryshimeve, pesha përkatëse e të cilëve ndryshon, dhe të përcaktohen kushtet me të cilat mund të ndikohet në bisedimet. Është argumentuar se analizat përkatëse të proceseve të reformave të marrëveshjeve në UE kërkojnë perspektiva dinamike në vendim marrjet, duke shkuar pas Konferencave Ndërqeveritare individuale si një çast i reformave formale të traktateve.

Procesi vendim marrës duhet të vendoset në një ambient të dalluar historik, institucional dhe konstitucional, që nxjerr në shesh faktin se s'i aktorët janë futur në rrjetin e elementeve strukturale. Ky argument është i rrënjësor në teorinë institucionale. Si rezultat, UE zhvillohet në dy karakteristika të veçanta; ka një strukturë komplekse institucionale, më komplekse se ajo e gjetur në trupat tjerë institucional, dhe operon nëpërmjet kombinimit të aktiviteteve ndërqeveritare dhe supranacionale. Punimi ka të bëjë me rëndësinë e reformave institucionale në shtetet anëtare ekzistuese të UE dhe në shtetet e reja anëtare me një fokus të veçantë të qeverive të reja të anëtarësuar, ndaj ndryshimeve në procedurën e trajtimit të KNQ, si dhe dobia nga Kushtetuta Evropiane për shtetet anëtare të UE.

Апстракт

Историјата на институционалната промена во Европската унија покажува дека нејзините мотивации и динамики со текот на времето варираат. Сепак возможно е да се идентификуваат трите постојани фактори на промена чија тежина варира но и да се идентификуваат условите со кои тие можат да влијаат на преговорите. Се тврдеше дека се потребни соодветни анализи на реформските процеси на повелбата во ЕУ на која и е потребна динамична перспектива за донесување одлуки а која не во рамките на индивидуалните меѓувладини конференции како момент на формалната реформа на повелбата Процесот на донесување одлуки треба да се постави во посебна историска, институционална и контекстуална рамка во која ќе се покаже како актерите се вклопени во мрежата на структурни елементи. Овој аргумент е вкоренет во институционалната теорија. Како резултат на ова, ЕУ разви две уникатни карактеристики: има сложена

институционална структура, многу посложена од другите меѓународни тела и функционира преку комбинација на меѓувладини и наднационални активности. Мојот труд се однесува на важноста од институционалните реформи во постоечките земји членки на Европската унија и новите држави членки со посебен акцент врз владите на новите членки во однос на промените во процедурите за спроведување на меѓувладините конференции и потребата за Европски устав за земјите членки на Европската унија

Intruduction

The European Union (EU) remains one of the most elusive of all subjects of study in the social sciences. Over the last few years, the EU has invested more attention and resources in institutionalizing institutional reform. EU is probably the most powerful non-state actor in the contemporary international world. Its institutions generate a wider array of policies that impact directly upon EU states and their citizens. The EU's institutional structure has uniquely blended continuity and change. The institutions established have retained many of their essential characteristics, revealing how deeply ingrained established institutional norms and cultures have become.

This paper tries to show the importance of decision making of the EU and the importance of studying it. Firstly a deceptive answer is because a large share of public issues affecting 370 million European citizens, is now decided at this level of governance. EU politics are largely a product of competition between its institutions, but the Union's institutions are inescapably interdependent. The EU's decision rules are designed to foster collective responsibility for the Union's politics and the Union's institutions are worth studying because they are a testing ground: they will go far towards determining history's verdict on the EU's success in managing enlargement.

An analysis of the comprehensive institutional reforms in the EU, the Treaty reform, Amsterdam and Nice Treaties and the European Constitutions provides insight into the reforms of the institutions and the overall conditions that contribute to enhancing the process of integration within the Union and the Union's economic and social cohesion.

IGC's (Intergovernmental Conferences) have been key moments in the evolution, but they cannot be understood apart from the rest of the process. The strong stabilization of democracy in the New Member States is an area

where the role of external anchor of the EU has played especially useful role. The gradual democratization of the EU changes the dynamics of institutional and constitutional design from those of secret bargaining within a system of technocratic diplomacy, thereby challenging the very model of intergovernmental bargaining.

The enlargement of the European Union from 15 to 27 Member States is not only the biggest enlargement in the history of the European Union so far but it also has deep historical significance. It represents the definite end to the cold war and to the geopolitical configuration of Europe into two opposite blocks. In a Europe of 27, decision making is much more difficult given the high thresholds for qualified majority that were not addressed satisfactorily by the Nice Treaty. The real issue is that the EU does not have very strong enforcement powers towards the governments of Member States. The institutional stabilization in the New Member States was the result of great efforts in the countries concerned but the EU has also played a very active monitoring role and we may say that the New Member States have achieved their institutional transition in a stable and satisfactory way. As a conclusion the new Member States have definitely a positive record in achieving the post-socialist transition and of reforming their institutions towards better governance.

From ECSC to EU

Disappointed in the weak, wholly intergovernmental structures of the Council of Europe, European integrators turned their attention away from diplomatic alliances toward attempts to foster a common European identity through economic co-operation. In May 1950 the Schuman Plan proposed that European countries pool their coal and steel resources and establish a new international authority for the purpose of jointly managing the coal and steel market. Inspired by a number of keen Euro-federalists, such as Jean Monnet, this proposal was negotiated in advance by France and West Germany, two states keen to co-operate with each other (and prepared to proceed by themselves if need be). The proposal was warmly received by Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg (although it was opposed by the UK, which declined to join). In April 1951 the six founding nations signed the Treaty of Paris, which established the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) in July 1952. Thus was today's EU born, although its growth and subsequent developments have been a product of the years since 1952.

The 1986 Single European Act (SEA) swept away the regulatory and fiscal restrictions still hampering the establishment of a genuine, completely unified, single European market. By 1992 all non-tariff barriers were to be dismantled and all physical barriers in the form of internal border controls removed. This form of re-regulation established common policies within the single market and was intended to set in place a set of common standards, a 'level playing field', and so fashion a genuinely 'border-less' internal market. Following on from the SEA, extensive discussion within the EU resulted in the negotiation of the Maastricht Treaty by the European Council in December 1991. Maastricht marked a significant step forward in the integration process and the Treaty, correctly entitled the **Treaty on European Union** (TEU), was a huge stride in the direction of economic, if not political union.

The Intergovernmental Conference (ICG) concluded its work on 11 December 2000 in Nice with an agreement on the institutional issues which had not been settled at Amsterdam and which had to be resolved before enlargement, and on a series of other points not directly connected with enlargement.

The TEU provided for an increase after enlargement of the number of seats in the European Parliament to 732, which exceeded the cap established by the Treaty of Amsterdam. The question of a reduction in the size of the European Commission after enlargement was resolved to a degree, the Treaty providing that once the number of Member States reached 27, the number of Commissioners appointed in the subsequent Commission would be reduced by the Council to below 27, but without actually specifying the target of that reduction. As a transitional measure it specified that after 1 January 2005, Germany, France, the UK, Italy and Spain would each give up their second Commissioner. The Commission and the European Parliament were disappointed that the Nice IGC did not adopt many of their proposals for reform of the institutional structure or introduction of new Community powers, such as the appointment of a European Public Prosecutor. The European Parliament threatened to pass a resolution against the Treaty; although it has no formal power of veto, the Italian Parliament threatened that it would not ratify without the European Parliament's support. However, in the end this did not come to pass and the European Parliament approved the Treaty. Many argue that the pillar structure, which was maintained by the Treaty, is overly complicated, that the separate Treaties should be merged into one Treaty, and that the three (now two) separate legal personalities of the Communities should be merged, and that the European Community and

the European Union should be merged with the European Union being endowed with legal personality.

The dynamics of EU reform

In the history of the EU, a substantial number of Intergovernmental Conferences (IGCs) have taken place, five of which were held between 1986 and 2000. Gradually a certain tradition for setting up IGCs has emerged, one that encompasses procedural rules and norms as well as informal and established practices.

After the monumental changes decided in Maastricht, and the intense debates which followed, one could have expected a period of relative institutional stability. Actually, the opposite happened: two IGCs took place in the second half of the 1990's, leading to the Treaties of Amsterdam (1997) and Nice(2000). Divergences largely explain the rhythm of treaty changes.

From the single European Act to the 2004 IGC, the most stable trend of institutional change has indeed been the increase in the powers of the European Parliament. The reforms aimed at adjusting the EU to its new membership proved much more controversial. The problem was unprecedented: whereas earlier enlargements were about adding a maximum of three countries at a time and did not alter the initial balance between large and small states. The problem was addressed unsuccessfully during the Amsterdam negotiations. The Nice IGC in 2000 confirmed the sensitivity of the issues. The large countries tried to reassert their influence to avoid being bound by coalitions of smaller states, while the latter resisted attempts to reduce their weight in the EU Institutions. This conference had post conference negotiations and alterations. In the first months after the negotiations, the parties spent time to figure out how to interpret and codify the agreements they had reached. The negotiations on the Nice treaty also sparked off a so-called 'post-Nice process' that called for an extensive and Europe-wide reflection on issues related to the organization of the European Union.

The Demand for Comprehensive Institutional Reforms in the EU

Institutional reform has - again- become a salient issue on the political agenda of the European Union. The allegation is that the EU institutions of governance have major weaknesses, that they lack effectiveness and legitimacy, and that comprehensive reform is needed. The claim includes single institutions, as well as the relationships and balance among institutions. That institutional change has largely been shaped by state interests should not come as a surprise. After all, the creation of the EU took the form of an interstate agreement which, like most treaties, could only be modified with the assent of all parties. Institutional changes generally have responded to an instrumental logic rather than to some kind of grand design. In a functional organization, the governments 'define a series of underlying objectives or preferences, bargain to substantive agreements concerning cooperation, and finally select appropriate international institutions in which to embed them.'

Understanding European institutional dynamics, however, requires a better grasp of how the formal-legal institutions set up by the Treaties, are exercised and translated into practices and behavior. Political scientists have been sceptical to the importance of constitutional and institutional design and reform.

It is argued that the Union has to rethink and reshape the way institutions are organized, governed and changed. The EU needs to reform its institutions as well as the ways in which institutions are being revised. Demands for reform have a threefold basis. *First*, policy reforms, and an expanding social and economic agenda leaving few spheres of life unaffected by EU-policy, have already created a need for parallel institutional reforms. *Secondly*, the coming enlargement will increase the size and heterogeneity of the Union and will have a significant impact on the functioning of institutions. *Finally*, reform needs are reinforced by changes in the world economy and geo-politics, and by the EU desire to strengthen Europe's role in the world and harness globalization.

The demand for comprehensive institutional reform has been aired from Maastricht through Nice. Reform was also be high on the agenda of the 2004 IGC and have a prominent place in the announced Commission White Paper

on new forms of governance in Europe. According to the former President of the Commission, Romano Prodi, the issue is nothing less than "the grand project of creating a European Union" and the fundamental nature of the Union in the future. Comprehensive reform involves building a political union and not only a trading bloc, improving the Union's external power and internal solidarity, and protecting and affirming the values of democracy, social cohesion and justice (Prodi 2001).

Sometimes reform focused on adapting institutions to desired policy outcomes and improved effectiveness, and reform focused on system improvement according to general organizational principles, creates problems for each other. Policy-driven reform typically adapts institutions to a specific task- or policy environment. As each part of a system of governance adapts to its immediate task environment in a more or less myopic manner¹⁴⁸ the system as a whole may become incoherent and ineffective. Comprehensive institutional reform, in particular at the "constitutional moments" in the history of a polity, has a different focus. Here the main concern is to develop a coherent order according to general principles of political organization and governance.

A major institutional problem in sustaining adaptive capability is how to balance processes of exploitation of existing standard operating procedures which have proven to be effective in the past, with the exploration of new institutions and procedures that may improve long term survival. For instance, Peterson and Bomberg (2000: 39) argue that risk-averse behavior is a prime characteristic of EU decision making. If so, political leaders are likely to give priority to improving effectiveness in the short run at the cost of sustaining long run adaptation and survival. They will be exploiting the status quo of established arrangements, rather than exploring the potentials of experimenting with new forms, both in terms of empowering European supranational institutions and decentralizing power already transferred to the Union level.

An implication is that students of institutional dynamics need to understand the main sources of inefficiency in routine institutional processes of learning and adaptation. On the one hand a well-functioning democracy based on representative and accountable government and a well-developed civil society with strong voluntary associations, social movements and free public debate and is supposed to facilitate continuous learning and adaptation.

The need for comprehensive reform may be reduced by improving ordinary processes of learning and adaptation. Somewhat paradoxically, the

need for comprehensive reform may also be brought down by strengthening reform capabilities. This is so because institutionalized capabilities will make it easier to break up large-scale reform into smaller consistent reforms, digestible for the political system. Furthermore, successful reform is more likely if a shared reform vocabulary evolves in the EU and there is a convergence in causal and normative beliefs and identities. A precondition for such a development is that reform is understood as occasions for interpretation and opinion formation as much as decision making.

European Constitution and Institutional Reforms

The Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe (TCE), commonly referred to as the European Constitution, was an unimplemented international treaty intended to create a constitution for the European Union. It was signed in 2004 by representatives of the 27 member states of the Union but was subject to ratification by all member states. Most of them did so, by parliamentary ratification or by referenda, but two (France and the Netherlands) rejected it in referenda. Its main aims were to replace the overlapping set of existing treaties that compose the Union's current informal constitution, to codify human rights throughout the EU and to streamline decision-making in what is now a 27-member organization.

Critics sometimes claim that it is unacceptable for the TCE to enshrine European laws as taking precedence over national laws, because this is an erosion of national sovereignty. Defenders say it has always been the case that EU law supersedes national law. The TCE does not change this arrangement for either existing or future EU law. However, the question of whether the arrangement is considered acceptable in the first place is still an issue for debate.

With the widening of qualified majority voting also envisaged in the TCE, however, the issue of the primacy of EU law becomes more sensitive. This is because there is an increase in the number of areas in which laws can be passed by majority vote, and thus an increase in the number of areas where it is possible for an individual country to vote against a proposal (unsuccessfully) and subsequently find its national legislature to be bound it.

Various steps are taken to introduce aspects of the Constitution by measures short of Treaty amendment, the so-called “Nice Plus” scenario. Not everything in the Constitution requires an amendment to the current Treaties and some measures could be introduced through intergovernmental

agreements outside the Treaty structure, by inter institutional agreements, by legislation under existing Treaty Articles.

The focus on institutional aspects that has dominated the constitutional debate risks creating in Europe a constitutional regime without a constitutional polity. A constitution is necessary, not only for the work in the European Parliament. The Council often signals that it cannot move because there is no way out of two different proposals (EP, Council).

We need an institutional reform because otherwise we give citizens less and less confidence in the EU's decision making. This causes difficulties, especially within the Council, and it disturbs the balance between the institutions. If we have only a mini treaty with just some kind of institutional reform, however necessary this may be, it would never give the citizens the idea that this Union is protecting their rights. To conclude, we need the institutional reforms for practical reasons. Firstly, because we cannot give citizens any hope if decision making remains to be blocked. Secondly, we need a European discussion on the charter of fundamental rights. The annex Angela Merkel, the Chancellor of Germany, suggests on social issues would only serve to create another illusion. Either the change of treaty or admit that the member states are competent in these issues and make sure that they take the responsibility to get their social issues right and do not scapegoat Europe for things gone wrong.

Following the period of reflection, the European Council meeting in June 2007 decided to start negotiations on a *Reform Treaty* as a replacement. The Berlin Declaration from 25 March 2007 restarted the so-called "constitutional process". Then new German chancellor Angela Merkel succeeded - through secret diplomacy- to reach agreement on restarting the constitutional process. On the 21-23 June 2007 Summit, Merkel could conclude the German presidency with the adoption of a very detailed negotiation mandate for a new intergovernmental conference. The intergovernmental conference started one month later, on 23 July 2007. The new Portuguese presidency aimed at finalizing the negotiations for a special summit in Lisbon, on 18 -19 October 2007. This would allow the revised constitution to be signed before 2008 and enter into force before the European elections in June 2009.

The Reform Treaty deletes the article on the European symbols, such as the flag, the Europe day, the currency, the motto and the common anthem. However, it is also stated that this deletion does not change any of the status of the European symbols. It nonetheless recalls the existing case law of the

European Court, which states e.g. that EU law cannot “be overridden by domestic legal provisions, however framed” (Case 06/64 "Costa/ENEL").

The Reform Treaty contains the same number of areas subject to votes by qualified majority and even adds two new fields where qualified majority voting (QMV) can be used: Energy solidarity and Climate change. The revised constitution now contains 62 new articles with majority voting. On 13 December 2007, Twenty-Seven EU Heads of State and Government signed the Reform Treaty at a ceremony in Lisbon. The Reform Treaty is designed to make the European Union function more effectively and democratically so that it can better serve the interests of the people of Europe. It responds to the needs of today’s European Union with its increased membership. The negotiations on the Reform Treaty took place against the background of the failure to ratify the European Constitution which had been agreed in 2004. The Reform Treaty draws much of its substance from the European Constitution, but takes the form of a series of amendments to the existing European Treaties. The Treaty does not fundamentally alter the relationship between Member States and the Union. It strikes a good balance between the need for sustainable economic growth and competitiveness on the one hand, and the need for social justice and inclusion on the other. The Union’s institutions are overhauled to enable it to meet the challenges of the future.

The overall achievements of the New Member States

How far have the New Member States really gone in their reforms and what exactly have they achieved? In what follows, we look at a battery of indicators for the countries that entered the EU on May 2004 but also for Bulgaria and Romania who are later in their reforms but entered the EU in 2007.

I have started to research first the evolution of the EBRD index of price liberalization. We see clearly that price liberalization has been implemented at the beginning of transition and has been there for over a decade. We have only one episode of policy reversal in Bulgaria in 1995-96 when the communists came back to power. The policy was reversed after the communists lost the election. Note that Hungary, Poland and Slovenia are even quite advanced. With the exception of Romania and Bulgaria who have been somewhat lagging behind, comprehensive liberalization was usually achieved within a few years after the beginning of transition. Obviously, the Baltics started the process later since transition started in 1992 after the

breakup of the Soviet Union. When it comes to large-scale privatization, it is well known that different methods were implemented with the Czech Republic opting for mass privatization and Hungary and Poland for a policy of gradual sales. Since the beginning of the transition process restructuring was predicted to be the most painful of reforms and among those to be achieved the latest. While much defensive restructuring has been taking place in the last 15 years, strategic restructuring which involves investment, know how and insertion in modern supply chains has been rather slow.

Hungary, Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia were the most advanced in competition policy implementation. The Baltics, Romania, Bulgaria and Slovenia were somewhat lagging behind. The overall situation can nevertheless be judged as relatively satisfactory. Competition policy has been addressed rather early on in transition and this is clearly an area where the prospect of EU accession has played a positive role. Bulgaria is at the bottom and Hungary and Poland clearly on top for reforms of financial institutions. There are less signs of convergence. These reforms are very important complementary reforms to other reforms as they have an influence on market liquidity. Lack of experience with financial markets leaves small investors often unprotected and the lack of clear and transparent regulations can have a very negative influence on stock market liquidity. Only enterprise reform remains unachieved to a certain extent but there is no indication of reversal to past socialist practices.

According to the Transparency International index of corruption for the New Member States there is a large variation. Slovenia and Estonia ranked the best among new Member States, respectively number 27 and 29 in 2002 just behind France. Romania ranked the lowest and was number 77 in the world together with Pakistan and the Philippines. The indices for the Czech Republic, Poland and Romania have even been going down. Only Bulgaria seems to have improved significantly.

According to the World Bank index for control of corruption it looks more encouraging. Nevertheless, one also sees a strong variation in the data. Slovenia and Estonia have been doing well. There are still a few countries where the index declines, Romania notably which is also performing the worst, but also the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary and Poland all to varying degrees. Again, Bulgaria has improved.

One should be cautious when drawing conclusions since they show only a limited window into the institutional evolution of the New Member States. However, the combination of the figures on the dynamics of reform and these more recent institutional data suggest a positive picture of the

achievements of institutional reform in the new Member States. Corruption is the only worrying phenomenon. Some countries implemented a mass privatization programme, most notably the Czech Republic, while most of the others used a combination of sales methods to gradually divest the state assets. Some countries like Poland implemented a stabilization programme early in the transition while others did not face large disequilibria in the beginning of transition or dealt with milder macro stabilization problems later on.

To conclude the new Member States have definitely a positive record in achieving the post-socialist transition and of reforming their institutions towards better governance. The slow process of enterprise restructuring is not over though and will continue for some years. One must also be particularly attentive to vigorously rein in corruption.

What can we expect from a Europe of 27 and what is the contribution of the New Member States?

Several years ago, EU observers noted that there was a contradiction between deepening and widening. Deeper integration meant remaining together in a smaller club and widening meant forsaking further gains in integration. Both advocates and enemies of enlargement claimed that with enlargement Europe would be diluted to little more than a free trade zone. Indeed, in a Europe of 25, decision-making would be much more difficult given the high thresholds for qualified majority that were not addressed satisfactorily by the Nice Treaty. Less than two months after the historical enlargement, the European Council approved with some modifications the project for the European Constitution prepared by the Convention in 2003. The Constitution represents a marked improvement on the Nice Treaty.

While there is strong enthusiasm for European integration, the low election turnouts in various new Member States indicates that the population of those countries has yet to become more familiar with the European institutions. The media from those countries will have an important responsibility there. Note that the support for Europe in the New Member States does not come from those categories of the population that hope to gain from European subsidies but rather for other categories who are likely to benefit from the Single Market. Moreover, following the subsidiary principle, national parliaments will need to be consulted on changes in the catalog of competences.

I have discussed in the introduction and I'm asking can we say that the New Member States have achieved their institutional transition in a stable and satisfactory way? The answer is yes. The New Member States may face institutional problems in the future but they are not worse than those facing existing EU members. The only important legacy from transition is an unfinished enterprise restructuring process that will leave many sectors economically fragile for quite many years. Corruption will also need to be watched carefully.

Has the EU played a positive role in helping those countries achieve their transition? The answer is a clear yes. The prospect of entry in the EU has played the role of a powerful magnet for the transition process. Moreover, the EU has been able to use this magnet effectively to prepare the candidates for accession in implementing the *acquis communautaire*.

Third, given the experience of the new Member States with large scale reforms, is there anything that the EU can learn for its needed structural reforms in labor markets, pension and welfare reform? Here, the answer is disappointing. The structural reforms agenda outlaid since the Lisbon summit will be just as valid for the new Member States as for previous EU members. Structural reforms need to speed up in a Europe of 27.

Finally, how will the EU work with 27 and what will be the contribution of the New Member States? The answer to that question is obviously more speculative but both the success of the Constitutional Convention and the participation of delegates from those countries is a sign that their input will be interesting, loyal and original. I hope that historians will look back at the beginning of the twentieth century as the beginning of a new era for Europe that closed the cold war and represented a significant step forward in European integration and towards durable peace on the continent.

Conclusion

- The Europe that has been built over the past 50 years symbolizes the co-operation of a number of European nation states prepared to work with each other in the common pursuit of prosperity and security, encouraged by self-interest and an expanded sense of a European identity. Europeanization of the domestic administrative institutions of the nation states made it increasingly difficult to maintain the idea of a clear separation between domestic position formation and international negotiation. The expectation is that experience will improve the intelligence, effectiveness and adaptability of governance. Governments are supposed to detect and counteract failures, and to improve their performance as well as the polity's fitness for the future. Likewise, citizens are supposed to adapt their aspiration. On the other hand, inefficiencies in institutional learning and adaptation are integral and planned parts of governance in constitutional democracies
- EU is a powerful level of governance, and in fact is the main regulator of the most highly regulated societies in the world. It must craft policy solutions that surmount conflicts of national interest in a system that features abundant and widely distributed vetoes. Yet it often seems that 'the policy-making capacities of the Union have not been strengthened nearly as much as capabilities at the level of Member States have declined.
- The new member States have truly graduated, they have now over 10 years of experience with fundamental market institutions and these institutions are well established and solid. This does not mean that the economic transition is completely over.
- The new Member States have definitely a positive record in achieving the post-socialist transition and of reforming their institutions towards better governance.
- We need an institutional reform because otherwise we give citizens less and less confidence in the EU's decision making. Many decisions are blocked for a long time or they do not materialize at all. This causes difficulties, especially within the Council, and it disturbs the balance between the institutions. If we have only a mini treaty with just some kind of institutional reform, however necessary this may be, it would never give the citizens the idea that this Union is protecting their rights.

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The challenges of teaching English for Legal Studies in a European, non-EU country

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Abstract

The paper presents rationale behind a comparative-communicative approach to teaching English for Legal Studies at South East European University (SEEU) and factors that need to be taken into account while implementing such an approach. The paper takes into consideration what an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course, in this case, English for Legal Purposes, should be in the contemporary Macedonian social and political settings. This approach requires a comparison of Macedonian and Anglo Saxon legal systems, which is best achieved through student active class participation and use of English for communication purposes. The paper further presents the findings of a study conducted with the students of this ESP course on the level of communication apprehension during oral classroom participation and how this apprehension can seriously affect their success in the course. As a result of the findings, some recommendations are made about how to implement this approach while providing accommodation for and solutions to communication apprehension among students.

Key Words: ESP, legal, approach, communication

Abstrakt

Studimi paraqet nje qasje komparative-komunikative në të mësuarit e gjuhës angleze për qëllime specifike, që përdoret në Univerzitetin e Europës Juglindore, si dhe të faktoreve të cilët duhet të merren parasysh gjatë aplikimit të kësaj qasjeje. Studimi e ka në konsiderate se cka paraqet gjuha angleze për qëllime specifike (ESP), në këtë rast gjuha angleze për qëllime juridike, në rrethanat socio-politike në të cilat gjendet Maqedonia. Në mes tjerash kjo qasje kërkon një krahasim të sistemit juridik në Maqedoni me sistemin juridik anglo-sakson, që me se miri mund të realizohet nëpërmjet të pjesmarjes aktive të studenteve në orë dhe të shfrytëzuarit e gjuhës angleze për qëllime të komunikimit. Studimi më tutje i prezenton të arriturat e një studimi që është realizuar me studentët e kursit ESP e që ka të bëjë me shkallën e frikës nga komunikimi gjatë participimit në klasë dhe si kjo mund të ndikojë në suksesin e tyre. Si rezultat i këtyre arritjeve nga ky studim janë dhanë ca rekomandime për implementimin e kësaj qasjeje dhe në të njëjtën kohë t'u mundesohet përkrahje për ata studentë që kanë probleme me frikën nga komunikimi.

Апстракт

Студијата претставува образложение зошто пристапиме кон еден компаративен-комуникативен пристап кон изучувањето на англискиот јазик за специфични намени, кој се применува на Универзитетот на Југоисточна Европа, како и на факторите кои треба да се земат предвид при примената на ваквиот пристап. Се осврнуваме и на она што треба да го претставува англискиот јазик за специфични намени, поточно, она што треба да го претставува англискиот јазик за правни цели, во тековните социо-политички околности во кои се наоѓа Македонија. Овој пристап, меѓу другото бара и споредување меѓу правниот систем на Македонија и англо-саксонскиот правен систем, кој најдобро може да се реализира преку активното учество на студентите на часовите и користењето на англискиот јазик за комуникативни цели. Претставени се и резултатите од едно истражување меѓу студентите кои го изучуваат овој предмет, за степенот на комуникациска попреченост (communicative apprehensions) во врска со нивната активност за време на часот. Врз основа на резултатите добиени од испитувањето, дадени се некои препораки за тоа како да се продолжи со овој пристап и

истовремено да им се обезбеди поддршка на оние студенти кои се соочуваат со проблемот на комуникациска попреченост.

Introduction

English for Legal Studies as an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an obligatory course for all students studying Law at the South East European University. It has two levels each ‘weighing’ 4 ECTS credits, placed in the second and third semester during the first cycle of studies (undergraduate). Ideally, students should have at least reached the intermediate level of Basic Skills English, (roughly B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)) by the time they enter English for Legal Studies. However, in practice the Language Center is faced with students with mixed abilities in terms of their English proficiency. As a result of this, there may be some students with very advanced English skills, while others are functional in English, but with a low level of proficiency.

The objectives of English for Legal Studies, as stated in the syllabus are:

Upon successful completion of this course students should have enhanced their chances of succeeding in both international and local legal environment as well as to become more efficient as students at SEEU Law Faculty through: increasing English vocabulary acquisition skill, improving grammatical competence, reading and analysis of cases, improving writing on legal topics, developing critical thinking skills, developing classroom interaction skills and taking part in on-line discussions on law-related topic.” (University website)

These objectives are in line with one of the aims of the International Legal English Certificate (ILEC), an internationally recognized Cambridge ESOL Examination: to assess candidates’ ability to operate in English in an international legal environment.

“The growing internationalization of higher education has had much in common with globalizing economies” (Zgaga, 2007, p.29). Taking into consideration the current trends of globalization, the aspirations of Macedonia for EU membership and harmonization of standards with European countries, including alignment with the Bologna Process and SEEU efforts to facilitate student mobility, care was necessary when creating the activities needed to accomplish course objectives.

How is English relevant to Legal Studies?

It is not enough to only enable students to make use of the specific genre of vocabulary related to law in all four language skills (listening, speaking reading and writing), as is so often the case in traditional courses in legal terminology. Rather, through the language students must become acquainted with, understand and compare a legal system that was is different from their country's system. This challenge was made greater by the fact that it was essentially going a step ahead of the curriculum of the Faculty of Law, which does have two courses in Comparative Law, but these do not occur until the fifth and sixth semesters. The description of these courses says that they,

Represent the Macedonian Legal System as a part of the global legal systems and families, such as: Continental, Anglo- Saxon and other legal systems, as well as religious and mixed legal systems. The courses also emphasize the different legal sources in the various legal systems and their institutions, thus making distinction between legal professions within different legal systems. (University web site)

Fortunately, students were influenced by media and general public willingness to become a member state of EU. The reforms needed in the court system of the Republic of Macedonia (one of the main conditions for membership negotiations) motivated students to think about and discuss the advantages and weaknesses of our legal system compared to the Anglo Saxon one.

Confronting the challenges of integrating language teaching with content

After successful completion of the required coursework in the first year of studies, it was critical to find a way to teach students more about the Anglo Saxon legal system through the Macedonian, as it was to a certain extent familiar to them. At this point it was necessary to find solutions to two problems: 1) lack of knowledge in the target language and 2) lack of knowledge in the field. Thus, it was not possible to rely on assistance of the previous knowledge of the content matter that ESP teachers usually get from students (as is usually case with the English for Computer Studies, for

example), simply because the students came with little knowledge in their field of study.

The solution to deal with these two problems was in applying a comparative approach to studying English for Legal Studies. One of the basic principles of Constructivism, a contemporary learning paradigm, is that students create their own interpretations and integrate current experiences with past knowledge about a given concept. (Rich, Gayle, Preiss, 2006). Constructivists associate learning with student-centered classrooms, where teachers take a less active role, and where teaching is often said to be subordinate to learning (opposite from a teacher-centered classroom). Such an environment is thought to encourage active learning and critical reflection, leading to a deeper understanding of course content. So, the question was posed: how students would be able to use the notions they studied if they could not attach meaning to them? Meaningful learning, a concept introduced by Ausubel (Driscoll, 2005), occurs when learners relate potentially meaningful information to what they already know. In other words, the students can understand the foreign legal system best if they compare it with the one they are familiar with and if they relate the new concepts to the same ones in their native language(s).

However, the comparison was not so straightforward. The situation was complicated even more by the fact that the legal system of the Republic of Macedonia is based on Continental Law (a term used in the region, but in the world referred to as Civil Law) while the one SEEU law students studied through the English texts and other materials is Anglo Saxon (again a term used regionally, while more broadly known as Common Law). This situation is compounded by the fact that in English for Legal Studies classrooms there are native speakers of Albanian and Macedonian (there are native speakers of Turkish along with several Roma students; however their situations are not directly relevant this issue since the official languages of use in Macedonian courts are Macedonian and Albanian). Thus, students used different concepts in their first language (L1) for the English equivalents.

Fortunately, these concepts referred to the same notions in the legal system they knew. As an illustration, in the Common Law there are concepts for legal representatives, *barrister* and *solicitor* for which in Albanian and Macedonian, the word *advokat* is used covering both meanings. And the opposite: for the English word *defendant* there are two different words in Macedonian: *tuzen* if one speaks about a civil case and *obvinet* if one speaks about a criminal case. In Albanian, the phrase, *akuzuar* is used, for which English has a similar word, *accused* (although,

there is a potential confusion since it is not used when referring to the defendant during the trial).

The legal experts of SEEU, supported by the International Community, have realized the importance of this issue. In 2003, a Macedonian-Albanian-English dictionary of legal terminology was created in a joint project of the Law Faculty of SEEU, the Law Faculty of “Ss Cyril and Methodius” State University and the National Democratic Institute (NDI). This dictionary is potentially a great help to both students and teachers of English for Legal Studies.

The new role of language teaching in professional courses

Traditionally, ESP has been treated as terminology. (Before ESP for Legal Studies was introduced into the curriculum of Law Studies at SEEU, this course had been called Legal Terminology). The original flowering of the ESP movement resulted from general developments in the world of economy in the 1950s and 1960s: the growth of science and technology and the increased use of English as the international language of science, technology and business. The remarks to the first significant ESP textbook, A.J. Herbert's, *The Structure of Technical English*, published in 1965, were that, “the concentration on form needed to be replaced by a concentration on language use and communication” (Swales, 1988 in Dudley-Evans and St John, 2003). Later developments in ESP were in the direction that ESP consists of English Language Teaching (ELT). In their definition of ESP, Dudley Evans and St. John (2003) point out its two important features: language should be included as a defining feature of ESP and all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves. Hutchinson and Waters (2002) represent ELT as a tree. ESP is a branch of that tree, but the roots that nourish it are communication and learning. Rather than giving a definition of ESP, these authors state what it is not: “ESP is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English”... “ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching... ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product” (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002). Thus, learners, the language required and the learning context establish the primacy of need in ESP. Applied to the situation being discussed here, ESP for Legal Studies should be designed to teach students to use legal register for communication, both oral and written, through role plays, case studies, problem solving activities, discussions, debates, essay writing, on-line forums and presentations.

Why do students need communication skills?

Effective ESP courses should take advantage of authentic, “real world” teaching material. Besides texts from English legal course books, the Internet, and authentic materials taken from English newspapers, the Anglo-American films with lawyers and trials were of great help especially with the terminology related to Criminal Law.

Students were inspired to take part in role plays and group activities from the stories they watched. Another great inspiration and source of information for discussions were the news on the national and local TV stations which are regularly full of actual reports on different types of crime.

The use of authentic sources of teaching material also linked with the long-term need to prepare students to demonstrate to the future employers their ability to communicate in English with clients and colleagues both in their home country, aspiring to attract foreign investments and businesses, and internationally. This is not to say that all instruction was aimed at language competency in the workplace. It was also necessary to take into consideration the fact that some of the students were planning to continue their studies abroad in the English speaking countries. Therefore, courses were designed to enable them to follow their specialized programs in Law when English became the language of instruction for all courses.

Communication Apprehension

Such a communicative orientation in English for Legal Studies required active class participation from students (10% of the final course grade) and one group presentation that accounted for 20%. It was in getting students to participate actively in class that the next big challenge arose. Not all students find it easy to communicate with the others and express themselves freely by asking questions, making comments, exchange ideas and opinions, etc. At university level, students are expected to have if not overcome, at least learned to deal with anxiety when communicating with others. Teachers expect students to participate actively. When students are quiet, they may be perceived as not interested, uninspired, or sometimes perhaps even too lazy to bother to participate. Active class participation is especially a problem for students from countries such as Macedonia, where the approach is traditional, teacher-centered and little attention is paid to individual student differences, regardless of the educational level.

What does the literature say about the influence of CA on student progress?

Fear of communication (hereon referred to as communication apprehension, or CA) is certainly an issue to consider especially when so much of an accent is placed on class participation and structured oral presentations. “Communication is critical to success in academic, occupational and social settings. Communication apprehension adversely affects this success” (Civikly, 1986 p. 21). McCroskey in Richmond and McCroskey (1998) addresses one issue related to students with high level of CA that is of particular interest to this research since, as mentioned previously, oral participation and presentations are key grading components of the course: “Requiring the student to participate will only aggravate the student’s problem. Requiring the student to give formal presentations could have disastrous results...” (p. 37). There are standard tests for measuring different types of CA with students. Some are available in Richmond and McCroskey (1998). The CA scale on class participation is presented later as an appendix to this paper.

Civikly has dealt extensively in this topic and according to her, communication is critical to success in academic settings as well as virtually all other environments. She refers to communication apprehension as a “barrier” to learning.

When students do not enjoy communicating, their opportunities for learning are restricted. When teachers fail to communicate or to understand why their students hold back from communicating, opportunities for learning are lost. The interaction necessary to effective teaching and learning diminishes when students’ anxieties are aroused (Civikly, 1986 p. 30).

Another investigation on communication apprehension by Rosenfeld, Grant and McCroskey (1995) points out that two aspects of communication that are most relevant for all students are apprehension about speaking in groups and self-perceived competency in speaking to strangers.

Communication apprehension was also considered to be linked to foreign language anxiety together with fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Language students who experience this anxiety have been noticed to sit passively in the classroom, withdraw from activities that could increase their

language skills, and may even avoid class entirely. (Gregersen, Horwitz, 2002).

The study

There are, of course, solutions to the problem. Alley-Young (2005) suggests new directions in dealing with communication apprehension (CA). He advocates “an increased focus on the individual experience at the center of the original definition of CA”. (p. 46) What he has in mind is that teachers pay greater attention to the social and cultural elements in their classrooms because for him, “reciprocally caring and respectful student-teacher relationship can provide a foundation for education”. But, the first step is solving the problem is to assess the extent to which it affects students. In order to see if and to what extent communication apprehension influenced class participation of our students we conducted a research with the students of ESP for Law 1. The aim was to reflect on the findings and make changes in the syllabus and adjust it to the communicatively apprehensive, if necessary.

Population

In total, 63 undergraduate students drawn from ESP for Legal Studies 1 participated in the study. In this particular course, class participation and oral presentation count heavily towards the final grade: participation is 10% and oral presentation, 40%. Since a passing grade is at 60%, if a student does not present orally, he/she can theoretically pass the course, but the final course grade can be only passing (six on a 10 point scale). Class size is 20 to 25 students, mainly of Albanian and Macedonian nationality, with some Turkish and Roma students from different social backgrounds and different parts of the country, as well as some students from neighboring countries: Kosovo, Serbia and Albania.

Instrument

The instrument used was based, with only slight modifications made to fit our circumstances, on the CAPS – the Class Apprehension about

Participation Scale developed by Neer in 1987 (Civikly, 1987). The purpose was to measure class participation apprehension of our students at the beginning of the course. Once the scores were obtained, participating teachers were asked to compare the scores of individual students to their own perceptions about particular students as the semester progressed.

Data analysis

Table 1. Answers to the questions about CA in percentages

Question number	% of students with answers indicating CA
*1	9.8%
*2	45%
*3	36.5%
*4	55.5%
*5	37%
6	71%
*7	34%
*8	29%
9	34.4%
*10	35%
*11	18%
12	77%
*13	41%
*14	64%
15	29%
*16	48%
*17	52%
18	53%
*19	24.5%
*20	15%

Questions marked with asterisk () indicate CA if answered with positive answers. The other questions indicate CA if answered with negative answers.*

Represented by a figure, the level of communication apprehension of this population was 40.34%. It was not very high, but neither was it negligible. It would have been more beneficial for individual students to know their personal level of CA about participation and try to help them individually if this level was high and affected their “normal” functioning in class. However, for us as teachers of this course, it was interesting and useful to analyze the answers to particular questions and see what kind of conclusions and recommendations could be drawn for this course. For instance, many students (45%) said that even if they had a question for the teacher, they would rather wait for somebody else to ask it than ask themselves. A very high number of students (55.5%) wouldn't speak in class unless called on by the instructor. Also, a significant number of students (48%) answered that they were hesitant about speaking in class unless the instructor specifically asked for questions from class. 52% of students said that they were often afraid they would say something that was wrong during a discussion.

Conclusion and recommendations

If it is accepted that, when students do not enjoy communicating, their opportunities for learning are restricted, the question needs to be asked: Is it possible to preserve the communicative/comparative approach to teaching ESP for Law in our circumstances, perceived as the most appropriate one, without intensifying students' anxieties to a point where it hinders their success in class? If so, what are the ways to achieve this?

First of all, the results of this research indicate that the course syllabus needs to be modified in order to provide equal opportunities to all students no matter their level of CA. Such equality can be achieved by offering more chances for written communication through for example essay writing and on-line discussion forums. Oral presentation grading should also be adjusted, so that those who do not present orally can compensate with a bigger portion of the preparation, since it is a group project. And finally, and perhaps the most important of all, it is in the best long term benefit students if some institutional way is found to help them overcome high level of communication apprehension. This is especially important, taking into consideration the fact that the legal profession in general, no matter which area of law we speak about, requires interaction.

Teachers in the classroom can help students by focusing on approaches designed to improve their communication skills. These can include setting specific goals, modelling effective communicators; role playing situations,

etc. with the goal of changing students' communication behaviours and thus reducing their levels of anxiety during interactive class activities.

Further, there are other, more formal, ways to treat communication apprehension, depending on student's behaviour and the objective to be met; for example, is it to reduce avoidance of communication, to reduce anxiety about communication, or to improve communication behaviours and skills? The literature clearly explains the methods by which individuals can be helped to overcome their fear or anxiety about communication (Civikly, 1995, Richmond, McCroskey, 1998). While these methods are most often considered the domain of the professional working in the field of psychology, and it still is worth considering some degree to which an institution, such as a University, can apply them.

The Communication Department of our University might be of help in systematically dealing with CA, naturally with a strong and close cooperation with the Faculty of Law. This cooperation is not only needed for updating the syllabi of ESP for Legal Studies, but should be widened and make use of the content area law professors who are proficient in English. They may, for example, be invited as guest speakers on certain topics during ESP classes. Such cooperation should be the goal of any ESP course: the ideal combination of subject content and language through a close cooperation of professionals in both fields. Looking ahead, it would be of tremendous help for our students if this cooperation resulted in creating and publishing a course book in English for Legal Studies. In fact, both students and teachers have already expressed their desire to have such a book during classes.

Finally, it might also be worth considering the timing of ESP courses for Law students at the University. Moving these ESP courses from the second to the third year of studies would potentially have two positive effects. Firstly, students would have a stronger foundation in their field of study and secondly, students who enter the University with lower levels of English would have more time to catch up with their more proficient colleagues. For exactly the same reasons, this idea is also worth considering at other departments in the University as well.

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Appendix 1.

Classroom Apprehension about Participation Scale Questionnaire

Instructions: Please answer the following questions with YES or NO.

Try not to spend too much time thinking about the answer:

14. I worry that the instructor will call me during class.

15. If I have a question I want answered, I usually wait for someone else to ask in class. _____
16. I don't like speaking in class because I feel that I do not have as much to say as most other students. _____
17. I usually do not speak in class unless called on by the instructor. _____
18. I have difficulty organizing my thoughts when I want to say something in class. _____
19. I enjoy assuming the role of leader during a class discussion.

20. I often hesitate to speak during class discussions because many other students seem to be more fluent than me.

21. I don't like speaking in class even when I think I know an answer to a question asked by the instructor. _____
22. I like participating in discussion because I feel I can convince others about what I am saying. _____
23. I always avoid speaking in class discussion if possible. _____
24. If the instructor calls on me during discussion I will feel at a loss for words or wouldn't know what to say. _____
25. I participate in class discussion more often than most other students. _____
26. I am often afraid that the instructor or the class may not understand what I am trying to say during discussion. _____
27. I would rather listen than participate in a class discussion. _____
28. I like speaking in class discussion because most students listen to what I say. _____
29. I am hesitant about speaking in class unless the instructor specifically asks for questions from the class.
30. I am often afraid I will say something that is wrong during a discussion. _____
31. I would speak during a class discussion even if I was not required to do so for part of my grade. _____
32. I usually feel too tense or nervous to participate in class. _____
33. I avoid enrolling in classes that I think require class participation. _____

Adapted from: Neer, M.R., "The development of an Instrument to Measure Classroom Apprehension" in Communication Education, 36 (2): 165-166

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PHONOLOGICAL ADAPTATION OF ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN MACEDONIAN

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to analyze and determine (a) the types of transphonemization; (b) if English borrowings have brought in any innovations in the distribution of phonemes, particularly of the consonant clusters in initial, medial and final positions, and if/when it was possible to simplify such clusters, and (c) the status of accent.

The present research was carried out in the light of Rudolf Filipović's principles of the adaptation of the loan-words into 'primary' changes occurring when a model becomes a replica and 'secondary' changes occurring after a replica has been integrated into the system of the borrowing language.

The analysis of the phonological adaptation of English loanwords starts with the description of the Macedonian phonological system, and then a comparison between the Macedonian, and the English vowels, and consonants is made.

The corpus consists of a limited number of words and varieties. It was mainly collected from written materials such as, weekly, daily and monthly newspapers and magazines, and electronic media, such as radio and TV programs.

Abstrakt

Qëllimi i këtij punimi është përshkrimi i adaptimit të huazimeve angleze në gjuhën maqedonase, dmth. në këtë punim është bërë analiza dhe përkufizimi i: 1. Llojeve të transfonemizimit, 2. Mundësisë për redistribuimin e fonemave nëpërmjet të huazimeve angleze, posaçërisht të grupeve konsonantore në pozitë nistore, të mesme dhe fundore dhe 3. Statusi i theksit të huazimeve angleze në maqedonisht.

Ky punim është hartuar duke u bazuar në parimet e adaptimit të huazimeve sipas kornizës teorike të Filipoviqit (1977): në ndërrimet ‘primare’, kur modeli ose fjala e huazuar shndërrohet në replikë dhe në ndryshime ‘sekondare’, të cilat ndodhin pas integritetit të replikës në gjuhën marrëse.

Analiza e adaptimit fonologjik të huazimeve angleze fillon me përshkrimin e sistemit fonologjik të maqedonishtes, kurse pastaj behet krahasimi i zanoreve dhe i bashkëtingëlloreve në të dy gjuhët.

Korpusi i punimit në fjalë përbëhet nga një numër i kufizuar fjalësh dhe varianteve të tyre. Ai është vjelë nga mediumet e shkruara, siç janë gazetata dhe revistat ditore, javore dhe mujore dhe të mediumeve elektronike, radioja dhe televizioni.

Арстракт

Целта на овој труд е да се опише фонолошката адаптација на англицизмите во македонскиот јазик, то ест, да се анализираат и утврдат: 1. типовите на трансфонемизација; 2. дали англиските заемки донеле иновации во дистрибуцијата на фонемите, особено кога се работи за консонантските групи во почетна, медијална и финална позиција и 3. стаусот на акцентот на англиските заемки во македонскиот јазик.

Овој труд е направен врз основа на принципите на адаптација на заемките на Филиповиќ (1977): на ”примарни” промени кога моделот, односно туѓиот збор станува реплика, и на ”секундарни” промени кои се случуваат по интегрирањето на репликата во системот на јазикот примач/која позајмува, то ест македонскиот јазик.

Анализата на фонолошката адаптација на англиските заемки почнува со опишувањето на македонскиот фонолошки систем, а потоа се прави компарација помеѓу македонските и англиските вокали и консонанти.

Корпусот се состои од ограничен број на зборови и нивни варијанти. Тој е земен од пишувани медиуми, како дневни, неделни и месечни новини и научни списанија и од електронски медиуми, радио и ТВ програми.

1. Introduction

1.1 Aim

The principle motivation for doing this research is language's youth; the standardization of Macedonian, although it began before World War II, has mostly been carried out since 1945, the date when Macedonian was proclaimed the official language of the People's Republic of Macedonia. During these fifty years or so, the actual codification process was assisted by the production of normative grammars and dictionaries; the language planners of Macedonian, while working on lexical elaboration and in the production of dictionaries had to consider the status of loan-words, including those from English. The treatment of English loan-words in Macedonian is particularly interesting, since language planners have had to provide speedy answers to the problems of this field, because the contact between English and Macedonian arose under specific sociolinguistic conditions, quite different from the conditions observed in other languages, where the contact between languages has been sustained over a long period of time. .

1.2 Theoretical framework

The present research was carried out in the light of Rudolf Filipović's (1977:160) principles of the adaptation of the loan-words into 'primary' changes occurring when a model becomes a replica and 'secondary' changes occurring after a replica has been integrated into the system of the borrowing language.

1.2.1. Method and procedure

The analysis of the phonological adaptation of English loan-words starts with the description of the Macedonian phonological system, then a comparison between the Macedonian, and the English vowels, and consonants (see Chart 1, and 2) is made.

The corpus consists of a limited number of words and varieties. It was mainly collected from written materials such as weekly, daily and monthly newspapers and magazines, and electronic media, such as radio and TV programmes. When this was not enough, the author also used informants. Accordingly, we can say that the language contact between English and Macedonian was studied mainly through mass media.

2. Description of Macedonian phonological system

The standard Macedonian phonological system consists of 31 phonemes: 5 vowels, and 26 consonants.

Vowels

The Macedonian vowel system is similar to most common vowel systems, such as Japanese, Greek, Croatian or Serbian. It consists of 5 vowels as distributed in the vowel chart below 2 + 2 + 1. They correspond to 5 Macedonian letters: a, e, o, y, и.

Macedonian vowel diagram

i	u
e	o
a	

Chart 1

Consonants

Roughly speaking, Standard Macedonian has a similar number of consonants to English. Most of them when pronounced alone are very similar to the English ones, whereas in speech their similarity decreases.

The standard Macedonian consonantal system has 26 very symmetrically distributed consonants:

Classification of Macedonian consonants

Chart 2

		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveo-dental	Alveolars	Palato-alveolars	Palatal	Velar
Plosive	Voiceless	p		t			č	k
	Voiced	b		d			ǰ	g
Fricative	Voiceless		f	s		ʃ		h
	Voiced		v	z		ʒ		
Affricate	Voiceless			ts		tʃ	j	
	Voiced			dz		dʒ		
Nasal		m		n			ɲ	
Lateral				l			lʲ	
Vibrant					r			

Macedonian consonants correspond to 31 Macedonian monographs: п, т, к, б, д, г, ф, с, ш, в, з, ж, ќ, ц, ч, с, ж, м, н, њ, s, л, р, љ, х, ј.

2.1. Comparison

2.1.1. Place and manner of articulation

Differences exist in the position of the organs of speech for articulation of certain phonemes, especially in the position of the lips and tongue. In the glottis, there are no great differences.

2.1.2. Vowels

The vowel systems show a greater discrepancy between the two languages. While there are 20 vowel phonemes in English, of which 12 are pure vowels, and 8 are diphthongs, Macedonian has only 5 (2+2+1) vowels. Vowel quantity has phonemic value in English, and only phonetic value in Macedonian.¹

2.1.2.1. Consonants

There are 24 consonant phonemes in English and 26 in Macedonian. The greatest differences exist in the place of articulation.

2.1.3.1. Plosives

There are 6 plosives both in English and Macedonian. Each pair consists of voiced and voiceless counterparts in both languages. The phonemes /p/, /t/, /k/ in Macedonian have weak aspiration, while the plosive pair /t/, /d/ in its place of articulation is alveolar in English, and alveo-dental in Macedonian.

2.1.3.2. Affricates

There are 6 affricates in Macedonian, and 4 in English. The phonemes /ts/, /dz/, /č/ and /J/ exist only in Macedonian, while /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ exist in both languages.

2.1.3.3. Nasals

These two languages have three nasals each, but only /m/ and /n/ are the same. The velar nasal /ŋ/ is a phoneme in English, while in Macedonian it exists only as an allophone, whereas /ɲ/ is a phoneme in Macedonian, and an allophone in English.

2.1.3.4. Fricatives

There are 10 fricatives in English and 7 in Macedonian; the phoneme /r/ is a vibrant and also is a semivowel in Macedonian, whereas in English, it is regarded as a glide. The same goes for /j/. In Macedonian it is a semivowel and it is palatal. The phonemes /θ/ and /ð/ exist only in English and do not have their counterparts in Macedonian.

2.1.3.5. Liquids

Macedonian has 2 liquids, and English one. The English alveolar /l/ represents a lighter variety of Macedonian alveo-dental /l'.

3. Phonological adaptation of English borrowings in Macedonian

3.1. Substitution

3.1.1. Substitution of pure vowels

The English long vowel /i:/ has been substituted by the Macedonian front high-vowel /i/: **weekend** /wi:kend/ > викенд ; **jeep** /dʒi:p/ > џип.

The English short open vowel /i/ has been substituted by the nearest equivalent vowel of Macedonian: **thriller** /'tri:lə / > трилер; **design** /di'zain/ > дизајн. Under the influence of the English orthography, English /i/ has been substituted by the Macedonian /e/: **budget** /bʃdʒɪt/ > буџет; and sometimes by /ej/: **jockey** /'dʒɔki/ > џокеј.

The English phoneme /e/ is substituted by the Macedonian /e/ and /i/: **jet** /dʒet/ > џет; **gentleman** /'dʒentlmən/ > џентлемен and **sweater** /swetə(r)/ > свитер.

The phoneme /æ/ does not have its counterpart in Macedonian so it is substituted either on the basis of pronunciation or spelling by the

Macedonian /a/ and /e/: **camp** /'kæmp/ > камп, кемп; **kidnap** /'kidnæp/, киднапира and **catch** /kætʃ/ > кеч.

The English /a:/ does not have its equivalent counterpart in Macedonian so it is substituted by the Macedonian /a/: **pyjamas** /pə'dʒaməz/ > пиџами; **dancing** /da:nsiŋ/ > дансинг. Under the influence of English orthography /a:/ is substituted by /al/, that is /l/ is restored: **napalm** /nei'pɑ:m/ > напалм.

The English /θ/ is replaced by Macedonian /o/, which is slightly more closed: **golf** /gɒlf/ > голф; **boss** /bɒs/ > бос. In some cases the English /θ/ is substituted by Macedonian /a/: **yacht** /jɒt/ > јахта; **frock** /frɒk/ > фрак.

The English vowel /O:/ when taken into Macedonian through the spoken medium is substituted by Macedonian /or/ or /ur/: **sport** /spɔ:t/ > спорт; **score** /skɔ:/ > скор. The loan-words taken through the written medium replace /O:/ by /a/: **football** /'fʊtbɔ:l/ > фудбал. There is an example where /O:/ is substituted by /au/: **crawl** /krɔ:l/ > краул.

The English /Y/ is also substituted by the Macedonian /u/: **bulldozer** /bʏldɔzə/ > булдожер; **bulldog** /'bʏldɔg/ > булдог.

The English /u:/ is also substituted by the Macedonian /u/: **boomerang** /bu:məraŋ/ > бумеранг; **boom** /bu:m/ - бум.

The long central vowel /ɜ:/ has been substituted on the basis of the English orthography by /er/ and /ir/: **flirt** /flɜ:t/ > флерт; **firm** /fɜ:m/ > фирма.

The short central vowel /ə/ not having an equivalent in Macedonian has been substituted variously:

- f) On the basis of spelling, by /u/ and /a/: **labour** /'leibə/ > лабурист, **cardigan** /'ka:digən/ - кардиган.
- g) On the basis of orthography, by /er/: **charter** /'tʃɑ:tə/ > чартер; **shrapnel** /ʃrɑ:pnel/ > шарпнел. By /ar/: **dollar** dɒlə/ > долар, **centre** /sentə/ - центар. By /or/: **inspector** /in'spektə/ > инспектор.
- h) In two cases this phoneme is either deleted or substituted in spoken Macedonian by the problematic Macedonian /ə/: **poodle** /'pu:dəl/ > пудл /pu:dəl/ and /pu:dəl/; **clown** /klaʊn/ > клоун and /klovən/.

3.1.2. Substitution of diphthongs

Except for the phonetic diphthong [aY], Macedonian does not have diphthongs. The English diphthong /eɪ/ is substituted either by a vowel /e/: **grader** /greɪdər/ > гредер; **lady** /leɪdɪ/ > леди, or by /a/: **cablegram** /'keɪbəlgræm/ > каблограм; **labour** /'leɪbər/ > лабурист, or by /ej/: **baseball** /'beɪsbɔ:l/ > бејзбол; **breaker** /breɪkər/ > брејкер.

The diphthong /aɪ/ on the basis of English pronunciation is substituted by /aj/: **file** /faɪl/ фајл, **sniper** /'snaɪpər/ > снајпер; **drive** /draɪv/ > драјв. On the basis of spelling it is substituted by /i/ **rifle** /'raɪfəl/ > рифле; **type** /taɪp/ > тип.

The diphthong /aʊ/ is substituted by the Macedonian phonetic diphthong [aY]: **out** /aʊt/ > аут; **scout** /skaʊt/ > скаут. On the basis of an intermediary language, this diphthong is substituted by /ov/: **clown** /klaʊn/ > клоун and by [aY]: клаун.

The diphthong /əʊ/ is mostly substituted by /o/: **joker** /'dʒəʊkər/ > цокер; **goal** /gəʊl/ > гол. There is only one case where this diphthong is substituted by /ou/: **show** /ʃəʊ/ > шоу. On the other hand, on the basis of spelling, it is substituted by /ov/: **bungalow** /'bʌŋɡələʊ/ > бунгалов.

The diphthong /iə/ is substituted in most cases on the basis of orthography by /io/, /ie/, /ior/, /e/ and /i/: **dominion** /'dɒmɪnjən/ > доминион; **champion** /'tʃæmpjən/ > шампион; **Spaniel** /'spæniəl/ > спаниел; **senior** /'siːniər/ > сениор; **imperialism** /ɪm'piəriəlɪzəm/ > империализам; **clearing** /'kliəriŋ/ > клиринг.

The diphthong /Yə/ on the basis of pronunciation is substituted by /Y/: **tourist** /tʊərɪst/ > турист; **touring** /tʊəriŋ/ > туриг.

3.1.3. Substitution of consonants

The English consonants that belong to substitution of first degree-complete transphonemization, and those that belong to substitution of the second degree-partial transphonemization are substituted by the Macedonian similar and nearly similar phonemes. Those belonging to substitution of the

third degree transphonemization are substituted freely by those Macedonian phonemes, which are most similar to the English ones, either on the basis of pronunciation or spelling.

The English voiceless dental fricative /θ/ having no counterparts in Macedonian is substituted on the basis of orthography by the Macedonian /t/: **thriller** /θrɪlə/ > трилер ; **Southampton** /'sauθemtən/ > Саутемптон.

The voiced dental /ð/ is also substituted on the basis of orthography by /d/: **farthing** /fa:ðɪn/ > фардинг. The English bilabial semivowel /w/ has no equivalent in Macedonian and is substituted by /v/, a grapheme which probably looked like /w/ in the intermediary language: **wagon** /'wægən/ > вагон; **quiz** /kwɪz/ > квиз.

The phoneme /ŋ/, not having an equivalent in Macedonian, has usually been substituted on the basis of spelling by /k/ and /g/ following the phoneme /n/: **carting** /'ka:tiŋ/ > картинг; **tanker** /'tæŋkə/ > танкер.

3.1.4. Substitution of accent

As was said earlier, these two languages differ in the place of the accent in words. The general rule for Macedonian is that the accent in monosyllabic words falls on the single syllable, in two-syllable words on the first syllable, in words that consist of 3 syllables on the first syllable, and in those of more than 3 syllables it falls on the antepenultimate syllable:

- (1) In most two-syllable loan-words the accent in both languages falls on the same syllable:
wagon /'wægən/ - 'вагон; sheriff /'ʃerɪf/ - 'шериф;
- (2) The same goes for the three syllable words: **gentleman** /'dʒentəlmən/ > 'центлемен; **camera** /'kæmrə/ > кàмера;
- (3) In regard to the poly-syllabic words, the accent has always been substituted, that is, it is placed on the antepenultimate syllable: **engineering** /endʒɪ'niəriŋ/ > инжен'еринг;
water polo /'wɔ:təpələ/ > ватérполо;
- (4) While the above mentioned examples show that most of the English loan-words have been

adapted, that is, the accent in the English loan-words has been substituted to the Macedonian, and they belong to 'secondary changes,' there is a group of English loan-words that belong to 'secondary adaptation,' that is, the accent in those loan words does not fit yet to the Macedonian accent: **design** /di'zain/ > 'дизајн, **motel** /mOY'tə(e)l/ > 'мóтел; In three-syllable words: **delicious** /diliΣəs/ > дéлишес; **detergent** /di'tədZənt/ > дéтергент.

4. Consonant clusters

The structure of a language cannot be studied by taking into consideration the distinctive features of each phoneme alone. It is necessary that their distribution be taken into consideration as well.

English loan-words have contributed to an enriched distribution of phonemes in Macedonian. In this study I have studied in particular the effects brought about by linguistic borrowing in enriching Macedonian consonant clusters. Previously, this phenomenon in Macedonian language was studied in the initial, medial and final position of words by Siljanoski (1976:144). In the initial position he had observed 139, and 72 consonant clusters in the final positions. After having compared the author's corpus with that of Siljanoski (Ibid.:144) the conclusion is that the number of consonant clusters in the initial position was richer by about three clusters, and by 16 in the final positions, which means that in the initial position there were 141, and 88 in the final position. In the final position 603 clusters were observed.

In the English loan-words in Macedonian according to this analysis, there were 17 consonant clusters in the initial position: 17 containing two consonants, and one containing three consonants. Two clusters each containing three consonants constitute innovations brought by English loan-words into Macedonian (see table 2).

In regard to medial consonant clusters, 100 clusters were observed: 65 containing four consonants, 31 of three, and 4 clusters containing four consonants. There were eight clusters of two, 19 of three, and 4 clusters of four consonants. Thirty three consonant clusters are innovations in Macedonian.

There were 28 consonant clusters in the final position in the English loan-words in Macedonian: Twenty six are of two, and three of three consonants. Out of 26 clusters, 16 were innovations.

The number of consonant clusters could be far greater were there not two tendencies in Macedonian to avoid clusters. One tendency is to insert vowels into the clusters, for example: **turism** /tYrism/> туризам; **colonialism** /kɔlɔYniɛlizm/ > колониализам. Another tendency is to delete a consonant, for example: **beefsteak** > бифтек. The other tendency is to remove consonant clusters from final position when English loan-words on the basis of contamination with similar Macedonian words (нива) are adapted to the feminine gender, for example: **round** > рунда; **farm** > фарма

Initial clusters with two or more consonants in English loan-words in Macedonian

Table 1

	P	b	t	d	c	J	k	g	m	N	n	l	l'	f	v	s	z	Σ	Z	j	h	t	d	r	d	
											''		'									s	Σ	r	Z	
p												x														
b												x														
t																										
d																					x					
ć																										
J																										
k												x			x											
g																										
m																					X					
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s			x				x		x	x		x			x											
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freely by the closest Macedonian ones. As a rule they substitute those phonemes which are most similar to the English ones in pronunciation. In some cases spelling is followed in borrowing a word in Macedonian. These phonemes belong to substitution of the third degree, free-transphonemization.

Types of transphonemisation

Table 5

	Complete transphonemization	Partial transphonemization	Free-transphonemization
Vowels	/i:/, /u:/, /O:/, /i/, /e/	/æ/, /a:/, /Y/, /Θ/	/ə:/
Diphthongs	[aY]		[Yə], [iə], [eə], [əY], [əi], [ei]
Consonants	/b/, /g/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /m/, /n/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʃ/, /dZ/	/p/, /t/, /k/, /r/, /d/	/β/, /ð/, /w/, /β/

Notes:

1. Siljanoski proposes a sixth vowel phoneme /ə/ which has a very marginal position in the Macedonian phonemic system. It occurs in the names of letters (bə, və, gə, etc), and for some speakers in few Turkish loans like /kəsmet/. Siljanovski uses schwa in his analysis of syllabic r as /r/, too, but this phoneme is not important for my treatment of loan-words. I use /ə/ in this work only in transcribing one of two possible pronunciations of words ending in consonant + l, e.g. pudl (phonetically [pYdl] or [pYdəl]).
2. Siljanoski did not treat the consonant clusters in medial position.

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Computer assisted versus classroom instruction: The big dilemma!

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Abstract

Second language acquisition (SLA) is now almost universally supported with Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Seeking to assess the value of technological support for language acquisition, this paper reports initial results from a study into the effectiveness of computer-assisted versus classroom second/foreign language instruction in an English Language Skills III course, conducted in the first semester of the year 2008, at the department of English Language and Literature, at the Faculty of Languages Cultures and Communications (LCC) at South East European University. Applying content analysis (Leedy & Ormord, 2005) to identify themes biases and meaning, the study investigated students' attitudes towards CALL in learning English idioms. Convenience sampling among students enrolled in the third semester identified a non-random sample of 53 students representing 46% of the possible cohort. An initial quantitative analysis applying cross tabulation established a joint distribution of the two independent variables, classroom instruction (CI) and computer assisted instruction (CAI) against the outcome of the final test. Content analytical procedures were then applied to student journals to confirm the descriptive and inferential statistics previously established. Results from the quantitative section of this study have shown little significant difference between computer assisted and classroom instruction. In contrast, content analysis suggests that strong attitudinal changes may have taken place across the study period and significant factors are likely to emerge more clearly from a larger sample. In conclusion it is argued that research designs involving an extended period of time and with a larger sample will be needed to confirm factors potentially affecting the inter-relation.

Keywords: Computer assisted instruction, classroom foreign language instruction, learner motivation, learner types

Abstrakti

Përvetësimi i gjuhës së dytë (SLA), tani në mënyrë universale po asistohet nga kompjuterët (CALL). Duke dashur të vlerësoj asistencën e teknologjisë në mësimin e gjuhës së huaj, ky punim raporton mbi rezultatet initiale të efektit të kompjuterëve kundrejt mësimin në klasë në kursin e Shkathtësive të gjuhës angleze III, gjatë semestrit të parë të vitit 2008, në Departamentin e Gjuhës dhe Letërsisë Angleze të Fakultetit të Gjuhëve, Kulturave dhe Komunikimit (LCC), në Universitetin e Evropës Juglindore (UEJL). Duke e aplikuar analizën e përmbajtjes (*Leedy&Ormond,2005*) në identifikimin e temave dhe paragjykimëve, ky studim i hulumton qëndrimet e studentëve ndaj CALL në mësimin e idiomave. Mostra ofron komoditet në mesin e studentëve që e kanë ndjekur kursin në semestrin e tretë, duke identifikuar mostrën e rastit nga 53 studentë, duke përfaqësuar 46% të grupit të përgjithshëm. Një analizë cilësore fillestare është bërë duke aplikuar kryqëzim të variablave për të treguar shpërndarjen e dy vlerave të pandryshueshme; instruksioneve në klasë (CI) dhe instruksioneve me asistim të kompjuterëve (CAI) ndaj rezultatit të testit. Analiza të përmbajtjes është aplikuar në ditaret e studentëve për të konfirmuar statistikën deskriptive dhe konkluzionet statistikore. Rezultatet nga studimi cilësor i këtij hulumtimi kanë treguar dallim të vogël mes dy metodave, CAI dhe CI. Kundrejt kësaj, analiza e përmbajtjeve sugjeron ndryshime të qëndrueshme në qasjen ndaj CAI, por janë vërejtur edhe faktorë të rëndësishëm. Këta faktorë, më qartë do të vëreheshin nga një mostër më e madhe. Si përfundim, argumentohet se studimet që përfshijnë një periudhë më të gjatë hulumtimi dhe me një mostër më të madhe do të nevojiteshin për të konfirmuar faktorët e kësaj ndërlidhjeje

Апстракт

Усвојувањето на вториот јазик (SLA) во моментов скоро насекаде е поддржано од учењето на јазик со помош на компјутер (CALL). Со цел проценување на вредноста на технолошката поддршка на изучувањето на јазикот, овој труд ги претставува почетните резултати на една студија за ефективноста на усвојувањето на странскиот јазик со

помош на компјутер, наспроти изучувањето на вториот/странски јазик во рамките на предметот, Современ англиски јазик III изучуван во првиот семестер од академската 2008, на Одделот за англиски јазик и литература, при Факултетот за јазици, култури и комуникации (LCC) на Универзитетот на Југоисточна Европа. Со примена на содржинска анализа (Лиди и Орморд, 2005) за идентификување на пристрасности на темите и значење, студијата ги истражува ставовите на студентите во врска со CALL при изучувањето на идиоми. Опфатени се 53 студенти запишани во третиот семестер кои претставуваат 46% од вкупната кохорта. Почетната квантитативна анализа врз основа на вкрстена табулација прикажа заедничка распределба на две независни варијабилни: предавање во училишта (CI) и предавање со помош на компјутер (CAI) по однос на резултатите од финалниот тест. Потоа се пристапи кон процедури за содржинска анализа на писмените задачи на студентите со цел да се потврди дескриптивната и инферентна статистика применета претходно. Резултатите добиени со квантитативниот дел на оваа студија не покажаа значајна разлика меѓу учењето со помош на компјутер и класичното учење. За разлика од ова, содржинската анализа покажа дека би можело да има посилни промени на ставовите за време на периодот на изучување, а со поголема група испитаници би се појавиле и значајни фактори. Како заклучок, се препорачува истражување на подолг временски период и со поголем примерок за да се потврдат факторите кои потенцијално би имале влијание на интер-релацијата.

Introduction

As computer access and internet availability expand to reduce international communication barriers, the potential for technological design to improve instructional delivery increases accordingly. Nowhere is this more obvious than in the provision of language learning.

As learning settings become increasingly internationalized, teachers and students are gaining access to new opportunities for language learning. With the assistance of technology, students are gaining access to innovative learning experiences and opportunities to assess their learning outcomes through real-time feedback.

Each educational setting has the potential to provide a range of opportunities for learning language skills across the core developmental

areas of reading, writing, listening, speaking while, at the same time, extending learning access to the sub skills of pronunciation, and grammar. As Nelson & Oliver (1999), have observed, access to a variety of learning environments is like traveling to different places just to experience and see various cultures or meet various ways of living. Merging setting and computer assisted language teaching and learning with traditional classroom approaches provides a similar wealth of experience.

In an age when the internet has become trendy, life without computers has become unimaginable for the majority of our students. Computers “transport “language learners to the virtual place and culture of the speakers of their targeted language. With access to this virtual world, they can easily “integrate sounds, visuals, images and text in an on-demand interactive environment” (Nelson & Oliver, 1999, p.102). In a rapidly changing educational landscape, computers meet the different learning styles and types of learners while offering authentic experiences that meet students’ needs for a realistic cultural context for their learning.

As Oxford (1990) observes, what makes a good learner is risk taking and avoiding anxiety since, according to Palmer (1990), fear is what gives ignorance its power. Anxious learners are more passive through fear of making mistakes. Their fear results in their silence and lack of confidence.

Computer assisted foreign language instruction offers a variety of activities, interaction with the computer, visual aids, immediate feedback and different glosses to explain unknown vocabulary. Learner control of the delivery speed and variety shifts learning responsibility from the teacher to the learner and reduces the fear of embarrassment or failure. In this more positive learning environment, students become more motivated and active. As Ellis (2008) has argued, “Teachers also need to accept that it is their responsibility to ensure that their students stay motivated, and they should not complain that students do not bring any motivation to the classroom.” (p.5).

Dorney& Schmidt (2001), cited in Ellis (2008), claim that the best intervention would be to improve the quality of teaching. They argue that making teachers responsible for their students’ success and motivation is the means for this improvement. As teachers, therefore, we should give our best to improve our teaching to keep pace with teachers across the rest of the world. At this point, it seems, increased recognition of the value of technology in supporting language learning is an essential strategy for improving our teaching.

Literature review

A wide range of studies over the past two decades has compared the effectiveness of computer assisted language instruction and classroom mediated instruction on different language areas, like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, reading, and communication. These studies have shown that learning outcomes are affected by instructional styles (Nagata, 1996) but the findings have not been conclusive.

Studies such as Raschio's (1990) mixed qualitative/quantitative study of programmed grammar tutorials for undergraduate students studying Spanish, support Kulik and Kulik (1987) findings that there is little significant difference between varied methods of instruction. More recent findings, however, increasingly report significant differences. As Krashen, Rolstad and MacSwan (2007) report:

"Research has shown repeatedly that students in comprehension-based classrooms, where the instructional focus is on comprehension of messages of interest and not formal grammar instruction, acquire as much or more of the second language than students in traditional grammar-based classrooms."

Similarly, Swaffar's (1998) study of computer mediated communication (CMC) identified the following benefits:

"Networked exchanges seem to help all individuals in language classes engage more frequently, with greater confidence, and with greater enthusiasm in the communicative process than is characteristic for similar students in oral classrooms." (p. 1).

Swaffar's (1998) work suggests that students involved with CMC are more confident in performing the task, engage more often, and are more motivated. This seems to be especially true for kinesthetic learners, more introverted students who feel uncomfortable speaking in front of the class and who don't like working in groups.

Taylor's (2006) more recent study of the effect of using glosses, which are brief summaries of a word's meaning only a word or two in length, in the L1 versus CALL glosses in L2 reading, showed that there was a significant difference among groups of students with traditional and CALL glosses. More precisely, learners provided with computer glosses in the CALL setting could comprehend more text than those of the classroom setting, on paper bases.

In an American study (Cromwell, 1998) with 848 elementary school students and their teachers, teachers reported that students with laptop access and taught via internet were highly motivated and excited by the technology-supported learning. As one teacher reported, "They've created greater interest in research, writing, and projects. Students work on ... The laptops lead to a sense of discovery every day, keeping students more focused and on a task".

Research strongly suggests that students learning with computer support are more motivated (e.g. Cordova & Lepper, 1996). Clearly, different generations need different types of incentives and computer access heralds a new era of learning provision. However, the main goal of language learning is still learning or acquiring the targeted language. The gains for CMC in this area remain less well established.

As Chappelle (1997) argues, teachers need to keep in mind that "the purpose of CALL activities is L2 learning. [As a consequence], the most critical questions to be addressed about CALL should be 'What kind of language does the learner engage in during the CALL activity?' "(p.22). Chappelle returns focus to the goals and objectives we want to meet while we plan students' activities in the computer assisted language learning environment, and how far they can be met. Furthermore, she cautions, "How good is the language experience in CALL for L2 learning?"

Chappelle (1997) observes that learning activities should be related to proposed assignments, which means that they should be related to what the teacher believes is important to meet the requirements.

Despite the extravagance of claims for the advantage of computer mediated communication, few studies have provided significant support for the preference of one form of L2 instruction over another. Most credible studies, however, support the view that that CMC generates more active and motivated students and more clearly satisfies the range of visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning types. If all these criteria are met, it is argued, learning occurs more effectively and retention is lifelong.

The foundation for this paper

In an effort to help my students to learn more easily and to introduce more strategies for them to become successful learners, I decided to use the computer laboratory as an opportunity to identify differences in students'

success and their attitude to language learning between the traditional classroom and the computer mediated classroom through the experience of studying the use of English idioms.

Idioms are expressions which function as single units of communication whose meaning cannot be worked out from their separate parts (Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics, 2002)

With the teaching experience of having introduced idioms in the classroom setting, and having been a foreign English student myself, I recognized the particular difficulty of studying and using idioms. Since I was studying idioms with my students, and having in mind the difficulty of those for EFL learners, I specifically wanted to see whether computer mediated communication techniques would help my students in studying idioms and idiomatic expressions more easily and more effectively than in the traditional classroom setting.

Research questions

In an age when students at SEEU have wide and increasing accessibility to the internet, it seems self-evident that the potential for computers as teaching tools should be researched systematically with a view to increasing teaching effectiveness in the language learning context.

Based on my professional teaching interest and informed by the emerging findings reported in the brief literature review above, the research questions addressed in this paper include:

1. What are students' attitudes towards the computer based instruction?
2. Are students more motivated by using computer assisted learning than traditional classroom methods?
3. Is there any evidence that computer based instruction provides more substantial support for students studying idioms than traditional classroom instruction processes?
4. Is there any evidence that computer assisted language instruction provide significant support for the varying needs of different learner types?

The study

The preliminary study reported in this paper was undertaken with 53 L2 learners during the first winter semester at South Eastern European University in the year 2008. Students meeting three times a week over two weeks undertook a mix of computer assisted and classroom based foreign language instruction to learn about the use of idiomatic speech in English. Following a written test to identify the learning they had achieved as a consequence of these experiences, they were invited to discuss their learning experiences in a second, confirmatory stage of the study.

The results of their exposure to traditional classroom learning and computer mediated communication approaches introducing internet resources form a basis for the tentative conclusions derived from this study.

Computer mediated communication

A range of web pages introducing the use of idioms in English and exemplifying them through Javascript and/or simple visual experience were identified to form the basis for the computer assisted learning experience. After consideration of the range of learning styles demanded across the identified resources, a single site was chosen presenting visuals to establish the idiom and its meaning, and then providing the context was.

Subjects

Acknowledging convenience sampling, the 53 subjects who participated in this study volunteered from the 58 students who were attending my English Language Skills III course in the English department of the Languages Cultures and Communication Faculty (n=58). Participants ranged in age from 19 - 21 years old with one student aged 30. Females constituted 70% of the sample group (n=37) with the remaining 30% being male (n=16).

Instrumentation

Seeking to differentiate learning levels between the in class setting and computer assisted setting (LAB) in the study of idioms, two open ended tests containing 10 questions each were developed. On each test, the questions required students to give a definition of the idiom and then use an example in context .

The tests were followed with semi-structured interviews seeking to determine student attitudes to their learning experience, the relative values of the two different learning experiences and the perceived effectiveness of each method in meeting learning needs.

Data Collection and analysis

Data from the two 10 question tests was quantified (See Table 1) using cross tabulation to display the joint distribution of the two main independent variables: the CML studies and the classroom setting studies. This cross tabulation was then used to consider the significance of their impact on the dependent variable, test performance. (See Appendix 1)

Following the test, students were invited to offer their perceptions of the learning experiences they had just completed. 18 of the 53 students agreed to take part in stage 2 of the study.

Results

The quantitative results

Despite expectations established from the literature review that participants would show significant difference in the two ways of instruction, the results of the quantitative study (See Table 1 below) were contrary to initial expectations. In fact, in line with earlier studies such as those reported by Kulik and Kulik (1987), the quantitative study showed no

significant difference between the alternative teaching procedures. Classroom teaching, it appeared, was just as effective as computer supported foreign language instruction.

Table 1: The Quiz Results Report

	Accurate responses (%)		
	Class	Lab	Difference
Q1a - Definition	64.2	60.4	3.8
Q1b - Context	56.6	58.5	-1.9
Q2a - Definition	77.4	56.6	20.8
Q2b - Context	66	56.6	9.4
Q3a - Definition	75.5	58.5	17
Q3b - Context	66	43.4	22.6
Q4a - Definition	62.3	58.5	3.8
Q4b - Context	58.5	60.4	-1.9
Q5a - Definition	56.6	58.5	-1.9
Q5b - Context	56.6	49.1	7.5
Q6a - Definition	52.8	62.3	-9.5
Q6b - Context	50.9	56.6	-5.7
Q7a - Definition	54.7	47.2	7.5
Q7b - Context	49.1	39.6	9.5
Q8a - Definition	64.2	54.7	9.5
Q8b - Context	60.4	47.2	13.2
Q9a - Definition	62.3	66	-3.7
Q9b - Context	60.4	58.5	1.9
Q10a - Definition	58.5	60.4	-1.9
Q10b - Context	47.2	58.5	-11.3
Total definition	62.85	58.31	45.4
Total context	57.17	52.84	43.3
Average Definition	62.85	58.31	4.54
Average Context	57.17	52.84	4.33

Note: Values represent percentages; Q: represents 'Questions'

Application of the tests developed to inform this study suggest that there is no statistically significant difference between the two types of instruction. The results show that 62.8% of the students were able to give a definition to

the idioms studied in the Class setting whereas an almost equal 58.3% of the students were able to give a definition. Similarly, 57.2% of the classroom group was able to use the idiom in the context while 52.8% of the computer supported group could achieve the same outcome.

Accepting that sample size may have been significant in what appears to have been a failure to differentiate the methods, further analysis by gender and age has been shelved at this stage in the study.

The qualitative results

In an attempt to triangulate the results from the quantitative section of the study with those of the qualitative section and to provide a broader perspective on how or why the findings may have been significantly different, students were asked to engage in a brief interview to discuss their experience with the two instructional methods.

The reflections were used to validate the results and to address the first and second research questions related to the students' attitudes towards the CALL setting and their motivation.

1. What are students' attitudes towards the computer based instruction
2. Are students more motivated by using computer-assisted learning than traditional classroom methods?

A modified content analysis (Newnham, Pantebre & Spark, 1999) identified two main themes from the students' interview responses: motivation and learner type.

The results of the qualitative study show that while respondents were highly motivated by both of the methods, their learning preferences were substantially influenced by the novelty of access to CMC learning opportunities.

Because of their involvement with the technology, its novelty and their capacity to control the rate of delivery of learning material, several students reported that "time was passing very fast" and that "nobody was looking at their watch" because, "everybody was having a good time." As a result, one student lamented, "Time was the only thing that interrupted our entertainment and learning, even we had all time in the world, it wouldn't

have been enough. It would be wonderful if we could have a computer in front of us for every class.”

Although the excitement of the students is obviously based largely on the novelty of the technology at this stage, many reported that the activity itself was an empowering experience because, “we learnt a lot from the exercises.” and “I was very active in my learning” so that “when I got home immediately I started to practice the things I had learned.”

Clearly, the choices of activities and exercises selected were important elements in the motivation generated by access to the computer so that students reported, “I wish I had known that these pages existed before”, “because they opened up opportunities to take control of learning for the students who could now “practice every day” without remaining dependent on the teacher and the support provided in the classroom where, “the pages we used were very useful.” Inevitably, as one student recorded, “In the reading book [the idioms] are not explained very well, however hard the teacher tries to explain with her/his own expressions and examples.” In unassailable contrast, the teacher’s explanations can never match the immediacy of the internet because, “it’s in English”.

The positive attitudes generated in the students through their access to appropriate internet learning experience are generated in part from novelty but deeper analysis of their responses suggests that it is their ability to choose the content, the speed with which they access it, and their ability to continue with it at home, beyond the formality of the classroom which is really exciting them and, as others have observed, motivating them to learn. “Just learning two new idioms at a time, I was able to use them throughout the day. I could repeat them again and again.”

The second aspect of the CMC experience noted in this study is its capacity to meet students’ learning styles more flexibly than through traditional classroom approaches. Without suggesting any criticisms of classroom-based techniques or teachers, the foreign language learners involved in this study almost universally commented on the value of their being able to listen to English- and American- accented speaking voices, to see the speakers as they spoke and to relate to the variety available in the learning resources chosen for them.

Almost all respondents in the study commented on, “the drawing of the little kids for each idiom. The visual learners have found their needs met,

“because every idiom was explained with a funny picture.” With stronger support for their preferred learning style, students accepted the challenge of dealing with larger work volumes because, for example, “On one of the pages there were a lot of idioms so I learned many of them at the same time. Because they were illustrated with photos, I was able to understand much more, and I was able to study them all together very easily”.

Auditory and visual learners were well supported by their CMC experience and it seems clear that kinaesthetic learners were equally well catered for: As one student reported, “It was something new, something that we don’t practice in other lessons, but we should because this makes lessons more interesting and easier for us.” This voice was confirmed by another who reported that the, “last class was different and more interesting ... I found it easy to learn about idioms because I was very active and my concentration was far more focused than in the others classes.”

Note: In accordance with the accepted principles of reporting recorded speech where content is the essential data, student comments have been edited to retain their meaning and their enthusiasm (or otherwise) while removing those pauses, syntactic lapses and semantic failures which are inevitable and accepted in oral reporting – most particularly from respondents reporting in a second language.

Discussion

The quantitative results

The test results which form the basis for the quantitative section of this study suggest that there is little to be gained from introducing CMC into the L2 classroom. These results confirm earlier studies but they seem to be in contradiction with the increasingly consistent results of more recent studies suggesting substantial effects. More importantly perhaps, they conflict with the results reported from the qualitative stage 2 section of this same study.

Several major explanations for these results deserve further exploration.

The first, and possibly the most obvious explanation for unexpectedly aberrant results, relates to sample size. Based on more commonly reported studies in this field, a more appropriate sample size for this study is at least 200. This preliminary study appears to have established that sample size will be significant in determining the reliability of the findings.

A second potentially confounding factor relates to the discriminatory capacity of the test itself. Without a larger sample and the capacity to confirm the internal validity of the test, it may be that the test is failing to differentiate complex but significant factors affecting the identification and contextualization of idioms.

A third factor relates to the actual difference between the independent variables. One unexamined assumption underlying this study is that the effect of the teacher has little or no impact on the learning of the class when compared with the impact of the CMC intervention. While the focus of the study is on establishing difference, it leaves the role of the teacher unexplored. A question worthy of further research might compare the role of the teacher as intervention with the role of the technology. That question has been beyond the scope of this study.

The familiarity of the students with the technology for CMC provision represents a potentially intervening variable though the apparent familiarity of the respondents with the internet suggests that this may not, any more, be a factor of significant concern. Similarly, when studying idioms in the classroom setting, all students were provided with handouts to take home for further reference which was not the case with the computer lab idioms. In this context, it seems unlikely that this intervention from the classroom should have such a substantial impact as to eliminate an otherwise observable difference between the two modes of presentation.

The qualitative results

The students comments related to the computer lab activities suggest powerful answers to the first, second and fourth research questions.

1. What are students' attitudes towards the computer based instruction?
2. *They are very positive because, apparently, CMC allows them greater control over their own learning.*
3. Are students more motivated by using computer assisted learning than traditional classroom methods?

Probably, but this may be a matter of novelty and excellent choice of resources by the classroom teacher.

4. Is there any evidence that computer assisted language instruction provide significant support for the varying needs of different learner types?

Enthusiastic reporting suggests that auditory, visual and kinaesthetic learners are considerably advantaged by CMC access.

Although we can infer that students are really more motivated by CMC access and that their auditory, visual and kinesthetic learning styles are more obviously met, we have no actual evidence that one presentation mode is more effective than another.

Conclusion and recommendations

Sample size is recognized as a substantial barrier to meaningful quantitative interpretation of the data from this study to this point. While analysis suggests little significant difference between the two instructional methods, the measured differences, 4.5 % in giving the definition of the idiom and 4.3% using it in a context, suggest that there may be no significant advantage to be gained from computer support when compared with effective traditional classroom instruction.

As identified, variations in computer access across the sample threaten the internal validity of the analysis. Without home access to a computer, some students had no chance to revise idioms studied in the lab while students studying in an unassisted classroom setting were given supportive written handouts. On the other hand, qualitative results establish a positive student attitude toward the CALL setting, strong motivation to continue working outside the computer lab and improved access to preferred learning styles. This attitudinal difference is derived from the content analysis of sample students' reflections, related to motivation, and learner types. Previous studies also suggest gender differences between CALL and classroom settings for the two instructional approaches though the sample is both too small and too skewed for any discussion of this possible variable to be meaningful.

Despite the apparent lack of difference between the two modes of foreign language instruction examined in this preliminary study, the similarity of the

quantitative findings with earlier studies suggests that a more finely developed instrument and a larger sample are required. More interestingly, perhaps, the similarities between learners with demonstrably differing learning styles suggests that selective use of particularly designed learning resources may offer significant advantages to those students. In either case, it seems clear, a more extended study with a larger sample is required.

In conclusion, before substantial expenditure is made to provide computer support for second language acquisition, future research in this area needs to address the potential for quasi-experimental and mixed methodological research designs conducted over an extended period of time and with a larger sample to confirm factors potentially affecting the inter-relation between strategy choice and beliefs about language acquisition. The aspects identified in this paper seem likely to shed light on future pedagogical approaches.

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AUTHENTIC MATERIALS IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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Abstract

The paper focuses on several issues regarding the use of authentic materials in language education and language courses. The paper includes the literature review stating different definitions of authentic materials, lists and explains the advantages and disadvantages of using authentic materials, and it compares the effectiveness of authentic and non-authentic materials, which are designed specifically for a language class. It also provides criteria for selecting appropriate authentic materials. To address these questions, the paper is organized in four parts. In the first part, the definition of authentic materials is provided. In the following two parts the advantages and disadvantages of the use of authentic materials are discussed and exemplified. The fourth part discusses the differences between the authentic and non-authentic materials, as well as possible sources and criteria for selecting authentic materials.

Abstrakt

Punimi fokusohet në çështje të ndryshme lidhur me përdorimin e materialeve autentike në mësimin dhe kurset e gjuhëve. Punimi përfshin edhe shqyrtimin e literaturës, duke shprehur definicione të ndryshme të materialeve autentike. I radhit dhe i sqaron përparësitë dhe mangësitë e përdorimit të materialeve autentike dhe e krahason efektivitetin e materialeve autentike dhe joautentike, të cilat janë të dizajnuara në mënyrë specifike për orët e gjuhëve. Ajo poashtu ofron kritere për të selektuar materiale autentike të përshtatshme. Për t'iu adresuar këtyre pyetjeve, punimi është i organizuar në katër pjesë. Në pjesën e parë jepet definicioni

për materialet autentike, kurse në dy pjesët e ardhshme diskutohen dhe ilustrohen me shembuj përparësitë dhe mangësitë e përdorimit të materialeve autentike. Pjesa e katërt, i diskuton dallimet në mes të materialeve autentike dhe atyre joautentike dhe gjithashtu jep edhe burimet dhe kriteret e mundshme për selektimin e materialeve autentike.

Апстракт

Оваа статија се фокусира на неколку проблеми сврзани со употребата на автентични материјали во јазичното образование и јазичните предмети. Статијата вклучува и преглед на литературата која наведува дефиниции за поимот автентични материјали, ги наведува и го објаснува предностите и негативностите на употребата на автентични материјали, и ја споредува ефективноста на автентичните и неавтентичните материјали дизајнирани за јазично образование. Исто така статијата наведува и критериуми за одбирање на соодветни автентични материјали. За да ги обработи овие прашања, оваа статија е поделена на четири дела. Првиот дел го дефинира поимот на автентични материјали, следните два ги анализираат и поткрепуваат со примери предностите и негативностите на употребата на автентични материјали, а четвртиот дел ги дискутира разликите меѓу автентични и неавтентични материјали, извори и критериуми по кои ги одбираме.

Authentic Materials: Introduction and Definition

There are many references to authentic material in ELT literature. Books and journals contain thorough explanations of why it should or should not be included in lessons, and how it is to be used or best exploited. But those authors who support the use of authentic material have in common one idea: "exposure". In other words, the benefit students get from being exposed to the language in authentic materials. Peacock, (1997) states that: "Learners may, or may not be better served by authentic materials, and there is still insufficient rationale for or against their use".

The use of authentic materials in a language education and ELT situations has been of interest to EFL teachers for a longer time period. EFL instructors who teach English for Specific Purposes programs and Academic English or Advanced Academic English courses, offered by the Language

Center at SEEU, often encounter the need to select and use or adapt authentic materials for these courses. The reason is simple: the majority of the above mentioned courses do not have a required textbook. The course packs are created by the teachers themselves, working individually or cooperating with the other teachers teaching the same courses. Very often, even if there is a textbook available, especially if it is a textbook for ESP programs dealing with informational technology, it becomes outdated. As a result, in order to create attractive, interesting and appropriate materials, the teachers turn to other resources: for instance on-line journals or scientific articles. When doing this, they always have to select materials carefully.

The supporters of the use of authentic materials emphasize that the language taught and presented in the classroom should be authentic not produced for instructional purposes. They can be print, video and audio materials students encounter in their daily lives and they present and involve language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use, or in contexts where standard English is the norm: real newspaper reports, for example, magazine articles, job advertisements, radio programs, horoscopes, recipes etc. Proponents of this view include Allwright (1979), Freeman and Holden (1986) Little and Singleton (1999), (in Peacock, 1997). They believe that authentic materials motivate learners; they are intrinsically more interesting and stimulating than artificial or non-authentic materials. The above mentioned authors add that: “Authentic materials bring learners closer to the target language culture, making learning more enjoyable and therefore more motivating.” (Peacock, 1997). Although the majority of teachers support the opinion that authentic texts or materials are beneficial to the language learning process, the question is when and what kind of authentic materials should be introduced and how they should be used in language education.

However, a certain number of authors, although far fewer, maintain that authentic materials reduce learner motivation and that they are too difficult: (Williams, 1983), Freeman and Holden (1986) (in Peacock, 1997). Principal reasons cited for this “unsuitability” because of which the teachers prefer “inauthentic texts” can include:

- Unsuitable material level
- Too difficult
- Too long or short
- Use of grammar or language
- Irrelevancy of themes
- Not adapted for specific use
- Not adapted to student learning styles

The definitions of authentic materials are different in literature. What is common in these definitions is 'that authentic materials expose the learner "to real language and its use in its own community"'. Harmer (1991), cited in Matsuta, defines authentic texts as materials which are designed for native speakers; they are real text designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language.

Widdowson (1990) differentiates between the terms "authentic" and "genuine material". According to this, *authentic* would be material designed for native speakers of English used in the classroom in a way similar to the one it was designed for. For example, a radio news report brought into the class so students discuss the report on pollution in the city where learners live. According to Widdowson, most of the time, though, this material is used in a *genuine* way, in other words, not in the way it was intended, but in a somewhat artificial way, modified to be used in the classroom. For example, a newspaper article which is given to the students with a pre-reading task or questions. Widdowson extends the concept, shifting the main focus is from the text which is 'genuine' or 'unaltered' on the interpretation of it. Over the years, the concept of authenticity has been elaborated further. For example, it has been suggested that materials do not have to be authentic, but a learner's reaction to them should be.

Shortall, (2003) states the following about the authentic materials used in teaching grammar in EFL context: "In authentic language, there are more abstract nouns (*something, doubt, training*). More importantly, there is greater structural variety. In textbook existential, we get simple prepositional phrases like *on the desk* and *in the box*. In real English, we get inversion as in Sentence 1, complex prepositional phrases as in Sentence 2, and *that* clauses as in Sentence 3. I am not suggesting here that we don't use contrived sentences of the kind we so often see in textbooks; after all, these are useful for illustrating grammatical patterns. What I am saying is that textbooks should also strive to include example sentences that are based on corpus-analyzed authentic language. In this way, we can use contrived sentences to introduce grammatical structures, with authentic examples to show how these structures are used in real-world communication."

Most of the researchers agree that exposure to authentic use of the target language is necessary but not sufficient for the acquisition of that language. Even non-authentic materials can provide exposure to authentic input through the advice they give and the activities they suggest.

Advantages of using authentic materials

The use of authentic materials is significant since it increases students' motivation for learning, and creates the conditions for the learner to be exposed to the 'real' language as discussed by Guariento & Morley (2001). The main advantages of using authentic materials can be summarized as follows (Philips and Shettlesworth 1978; Clarke 1989; Peacock 1997, cited in Klickaya, 2004).

- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They have a positive effect on learner motivation.
- They provide exposure to real language.
- They relate more closely to learners' needs.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching.

Authentic materials, if well selected, are informational and they have certain educational value. As a result, they can encourage reading for pleasure because they are likely to contain topics of interest to learners, especially if students are given the chance to have a say about the topics or kinds of authentic materials to be used in class.

Students are exposed to real discourse and real language. Incidental or even improper English, although part of the language is not included in textbooks, but can be included in authentic materials. Authentic reading texts are a good choice to teach and practice reading skills such as scanning, or skimming (reading for gist or detail). Books, articles, newspapers, and so on contain a wide variety of text types, language styles not easily found in conventional teaching materials.

Authentic materials can be motivational and can produce a sense of achievement. Two quasi-experimental studies, described in Peacock (1997), addressed the issue of effect of authentic materials on learners' motivation, attitude, and culture and language achievement. Forty-three students studying Spanish as a foreign language took part in the study. Gonzales found no statistical difference in motivation when authentic materials were used. However, she found from comments in the teaching logs that learners reacted favorably to their use. Another study described in the same paper, conducted by Kienbaum (1986) researched the traditional second language instruction using traditional methods and texts compared with communicative approach combined with exclusive use of authentic materials. Subjects of this research were 29 American college students who

studied German or French. Scores from the survey were used to assess the linguistic progress and learners' attitudes were tested. Again, no statistical difference was found when the linguistic progress was tested. However, it was noted that all students were enthusiastic about and motivated about the use of authentic materials.

Ideally, materials at all levels should provide frequent exposure to authentic input which is rich and varied. According to Tomlinson, if the learners want to be able to use the language for general communication, it is important that they are exposed to planned, semi-planned and unplanned discourse (a formal lecture, an informal radio interview and a spontaneous conversation). The materials should stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it. It means that the learners should always do something mentally or physically in response to the input.

Disadvantages of using authentic materials

Martinez (2002) lists several disadvantages of using authentic materials:

- They may be too culturally biased, so unnecessarily difficult to understand outside the language community.
- The vocabulary might not be relevant to the student's immediate needs.
- Too many structures are mixed so lower levels have a hard time decoding the texts.
- Special preparation is necessary which can be time consuming.
- With listening: too many different accents.
- The material can become outdated easily, e.g. news.

The advantages of using authentic materials explained previously are what make us excited and willing to use authentic materials in our classrooms, but while using them, it is inevitable that EFL teachers will encounter some problems.

Richards (2001, p. 253), paraphrased in Martinez (2002), points out that alongside with these advantages, authentic materials often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which causes a burden for the teacher in lower-level classes. Martinez (2002) mentions that authentic materials may be too culturally

biased. Also, too many vocabulary and grammar structures are mixed, causing lower levels to have a hard time decoding the texts. There are many headlines, adverts, signs, and so on that can require good knowledge of the cultural background. Instances of this abound in the media, such as headlines that many times use abbreviations

The question of when and at which level authentic materials should be introduced and used in a classroom should be also taken into consideration. Is it possible to use authentic materials regardless of our students' level? Authentic material is entirely incomprehensible to EFL learners who are at basic or elementary level. Those which are comprehensible to low level students are written for very young learners, and therefore not very interesting to EFL students. Guarenito and Morley (2001) state that : “ At lower levels, however, even with quite simple tasks, unless they have been very carefully selected for lexical or syntactic simplicity and content familiarity / predictability, the use of authentic texts may not only prevent the learners from responding in meaningful ways but can also lead them to feel frustrated, confused and more importantly , demotivated. And this would seem to undermine one of the main reasons for using authentic texts in the first place”.

Of course, only a few teachers would agree that all input should come from authentic materials. We should be aware that it offers reduced opportunities for introducing learners to comprehensible input and it may lead to learner frustration at lower levels. Still, this does not mean that beginners cannot be exposed to authentic input. They can follow instructions intended to elicit physical responses, they can listen to stories, they can listen to songs, and they can fill in forms and do a number of activities which can be suited to their level of proficiency and their needs.

Authentic materials compared to non-authentic materials; Sources and selection criteria

Authentic texts have been defined as “...real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes” (Wallace, 1992) cited in Bernardo (2006). They are therefore written for native speakers and contain “real” language. They are “...materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community.” (Peacock (1997), in contrast to non-authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes. Sometimes, the language used in non-authentic texts is artificial, concentrating on something

that has to be taught. Sometimes, non- authentic materials contain series of “false-text indicators”, listed by Bernardo (2006):

- perfectly formed sentences (all the time);
- a question using a grammatical structure, gets a full answer;
- repetition of structures;
- very often does not “read” well.

Bernardo (2006) also states that: “The artificial nature of the language and structures used, make them very unlike anything that the learner will encounter in the real world and very often they do not reflect how the language is really used. They are useful for teaching structures but are not very good for improving reading skills (for the simple fact that they read unnaturally). They can be useful for preparing the learner for the eventual reading of “real” texts.

The sources of authentic materials that can be used in the language classroom are endless and infinite, but the most common are newspapers articles, journals and magazines, radio and TV programs, films, popular songs and literature. It goes without saying that one of the most useful sources is the Internet. Apart from being easily accessible , another advantage of the internet is that , while newspapers and printed material in general date very quickly, the Internet is continuously updated, more visually stimulating and interactive, therefore promoting a more active and interactive approach to learning . When we think about certain criteria for selecting authentic materials, they should be the kind of material that enables learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form, especially when using literary texts with the emphasis being on what is being said and not necessarily on the literary form or stylistics Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom.

Variety and presentation also influence the choice of authentic materials. In my experience, students are very often bored when dealing with only one subject area, as can be the case when dealing with English for Specific Purposes (ESP). One of the advantages of using materials dealing with the same subject area is that they use the same vocabulary, with the student having to make very little conscious effort to learn it. However, the appropriate and “authentic” presentation, through the use of pictures, diagrams, photographs, helps put the text into a context. We should also take into consideration is this materials relevant to students needs.

Nuttall (cited in Bernardo, 2006) gives three main criteria when choosing texts to be used in the classroom: suitability of content, exploitability and readability. Suitability of content can be considered to be the most important of the three, meaning that the authentic material should be interesting to the students as well as be relevant to their needs. The texts should be motivational to the students as well. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to aid and develop the students' competence, meaning that a text that can not be used or exploited for teaching purposes has no use in the classroom. Not all material, even though it is an authentic one, should or can be used only because it is written in the target language. Readability is used to describe the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new grammatical forms present. It is important that the material matches the level and the proficiency of the students.

Bernardo (2006), referring to authentic reading texts, lists the following criteria for choosing authentic texts : “ if the text challenges the students' intelligence without making unreasonable linguistic demands, does the language reflect written or spoken usage, is the language in the text natural or has it been distorted in order to try and include examples of a particular teaching point? It is also important that the text lends itself to being studied, can good questions be asked about it or tasks based on it created? Above all does the text make the student want to read for himself, tell himself something he doesn't know as well as introduce new and relevant ideas? “ .

As we can see, choosing appropriate authentic materials is not an easy task. Therefore, in order to achieve the fine balance between effective language input and offering materials which are authentic and comprehensible, we should take and measure all of the factors mentioned above.

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