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The entire manuscript, including the abstract, the reference list, and any tables should be presented as A4 single-spaced typescript in 12-point Times New Roman. It should begin with a cover page, giving the title of the paper, the name(s) of the authors(s), institutional affiliation(s) and the correspondence address (and e-mail address), a suggested shorter title for running heads, and three to five keywords. Authors should also provide a 100-word biographical note. On the next page, put the article title and the abstract. All pages must be numbered.

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Copyright for articles accepted for publication in SEEU Review will be ceded to South East European University.

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

This issue of SEEU Review contains a large number of scientific articles published by SEEU staff and colleagues from the region, the greater part of the articles are about continuous development of SEEU, or developments in Macedonia. We have tried to include as much articles as possible not only by experienced researchers but as well from young authors, by presenting some interesting activities of learning and teaching strategies at SEEU.

We welcome as well the academic collaboration with academic staff of other universities. SEEU is an open institution, having strong and developing links with other institutions 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 all colleagues who helped for this issue of the Review.

The call for the next issue of the Review will be published at the beginning of February, with target date July/August 2010 for the ninth issue 2010.

Prof. Dr. Murtezan Ismaili
Pro-rector for Research and Quality Assurance at SEEU

Ky numër i Revistës ngërthen në vete shumë artikuj shkencorë nga UEJL dhe nga kolegët që punojnë në rajon, ku shumica e artikujve kanë të bëjnë me zhvillimin e vazhdueshëm të UEJL, ose me zhvillimet në Maqedoni. Ne jemi munduar që të përfshijmë sa më shumë artikuj, jo vetëm nga hulumtues me më shumë përvojë, por edhe nga autorë të rinj, duke nxjerrë në pah disa aktivitete interesante të strategjive të mësimdhënies dhe të të nxënët në UEJL.

Ne e kemi mirëpritur bashkëpunimin edhe me stafin akademik të universiteteteve të tjera. UEJL është një institucion i hapur, i cili ka lidhje të forta dhe zhvillimore edhe me institucione të tjera në rajon dhe më gjerë.

Së fundi, e falënderoj stafin tonë për përkushtimin dhe angazhimin e tyre. Do të doja të falënderoja profesorin Denis Farington, kryetar i Bordit të
UEJL për këshillat e tij në kohë dhe frytdhënëse, si dhe të gjithë kolegët, të cilët ndihmuan në botimin e këtij numri të revistës.

Konkursi për dorëzimin e punimeve për edicionin e ardhshëm të Revistës shkencore do të publikohet në fillim të muajit shkurt. Edicioni i nëntë i kësaj reviste pritet të dalë nga shtypi në korrik / gusht 2010.

Prof. Dr. Murtezan Ismaili
Prorektor për hulumtime dhe sigurim të cilësisë, UEJL

Ова издание на научниот магазин SEEU Review содржи голем број научни статии издадени од кадарот на ЈИЕУ и колегите во регионов, а поголемиот дел од статиите се за постојаниот развој на ЈИЕУ или развоите во Македонија. Се обидовме да вклучиме колку што е можно повеќе статии не само од искуствените истражувачи туку и од младите автори преку презентација на некои интересни активности од стратегиите за учење и настава 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 регионов и пошироко.

На крајот, им се заблагодаруваме на нашиот кадар за нивната посветност и ангажираност. Им се заблагодаруваме на проф. д-р Денис Фарингтон, Претседателот на Одборот на ЈИЕУ за неговите навремени и одлични совети и на сите колеги кои помогнаа при подготовката на ова издание на научниот магазин.

Повикот за доставување трудови за следното изание на Научниот магазин ќе се објави на почетокот на февруари. Следното деветто издание на научниот магазин се очекува да излезе од печат во јули/август 2010 година.

Проф. д-р Муртезан Исмаили
Проректор за истражување и обезбедување квалитет при ЈИЕУ
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John Rawls’ theory of justice as fairness: an introduction

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Abstract

The article introduces and at the end, presents a brief criticism of the Rawlsian theory of justice as fairness by focusing John Rawls’s mainly three studies Justice as Fairness, A Theory of Justice and Justice as Fairness: Political not Metaphysical. At the first and long part of the article, Rawlsian theoretical construction is presented descriptively step by step with some comments and criticisms while the concluding part tries to offer main problematic sides of the Rawlsian theory.

Key words: justice, fairness, basic structure, original position, veil of ignorance, priority rule, difference principle, primary good, contractarianism, utilitarianism.

Abstrakt

Ky punim paraqet një kritikë të shkurtër të Teorisë së drejtësisë së John Rawls kryesisht duke u fokusuar në tri studimet e tij: E drejta si panësia, Teoria e drejtësisë dhe E drejta si panësia: politike e jo metafizike. Në pjesën e parë dhe gjatë punimit është paraqitur konstruksoni i teorisë së John Rawls hap pas hapi me disa komente dhe kritika, ndërsa në pjesën e
Introduction

In this article I am concerned with the conception of justice as fairness within the general theory of justice developed by John Rawls and I focus on his three studies: the article Justice as Fairness (first in 1958, 1999), A Theory of Justice (1971) and finally the article Justice as Fairness: Political not Metaphysical (1999). A Theory of Justice (hereafter TJ) presents a new conception of justice, justice as fairness. The development of the theory continued after the publication of TJ in 1971 and was later modified, corrected and integrated into political liberalism through the article Justice as Fairness: Political Not Metaphysical (Rawls, 1999). Rawls also introduced his political liberalism in his Political Liberalism (Rawls, 1992).
Justice and Fairness

In the first formulation of justice as fairness it is stated that the decisive part of the concept of justice is fairness. Justice is claimed as a virtue of the institutions and practices, and the principles of justice are considered as formulating restrictions for the institutions that define the authority, powers, liabilities, rights and duties (Rawls, 1999, 47). However, Rawls confines himself to the sense of justice in relation to practices. It is not a comprehensive view of good society but a part of it. He just focuses on the common sense of justice, which requires a balance between competing considerations.

For Rawls, fairness refers to “right dealing between persons who are cooperating with or competing against one another”. The question of fairness emerges when free and equal persons engage in a joint activity whose rules are defined and accepted by them and determine the respective shares and burdens. The practice is fair since nobody obtains illegitimate advantages. One sees a claim as legitimate when everybody in the practice acknowledges it as reasonable. A fair practice supports respective positions against the background of the mutual understanding of the principles by free persons who are equal as regards with authority (Rawls, 1999, 59). A true community presupposes mutual acknowledgments of principles. In addition, fairness applies to the voluntary practices (like in games and business competition) whereas justice to the practices where there is no option to enter (like in slavery) (Rawls, 1999, 59). Therefore, to change unjust practices is more urgent in order to change unfair ones (Rawls, 1999, 60).

In a fair practice, parties acknowledge a “prima facie duty” against each other and corresponding “prima facie right” in tune with the practice. One whose liberty is restricted because of the rules of practice he entered into has the right over the others who benefit from his submission to the restriction. It is the consequence of a fair practice (voluntarily undertaken) from that each person benefits. The rights and duties here are not the obligatory results of a contract or promise but they are based on “previous actions voluntarily undertaken, in this case on the parties having engaged in a common practice and knowingly accepted its benefits”. Political obligation does not suppose voluntary act as it is thought in the social contract theory. Fairness applies to voluntary practice while justice to involuntary one. In the former, “prima facie obligation” may be overridden whereas in the latter, one can not escape from the obligation only because obedience is required. Otherwise, the
practice should be rejected at the outset and any enjoyment of the benefits should be avoided (Rawls, 1999, 60).

*Fairness* requires reciprocity and community and hence a just practice requires more than the effective realization of wants and interests. For this reason, Rawls builds his notion of justice as *fairness* through direct and indirect references to utilitarianism (together with intuitionism). Utilitarianism assimilates the conception of justice into benevolence and its modern representative, welfare economics, into the question of efficient organization of institutions to increase the general welfare (Rawls, 1999, 64). Practically, the principle of justice here is a product of administrative decisions in relation to maximization of utility in terms of marginal values. Utility functions of individuals are accepted as the same and the satisfaction of desires is considered independently from the interpersonal moral relations (Rawls, 1999, 65). The ultimate aim is to maximize the general utility function. Actually, the principles of justice are reduced to public policy problem of institutions. There is also an extreme individualism in the utilitarianism, which regards persons moving towards separate directions (Rawls, 1999, 66). It is assumed that burdens and benefits are impartially distributed whereas justice as understood as efficiency evaluates a justice practice in terms of its advantages and disadvantages without concerning any accepted principle of respective values (Rawls, 1999, 67). The relation between slaveholder and slave is interpreted from a utilitarian point of view is seen unjust since it produces advantages for slaveholder without compensating disadvantages for slave and society because of the inefficient organization of labour. Slavery can be accepted from many reasons (advancement according to the previous practices, inherited from past, satisfaction of desire) and the reasons may be relevant. However, person thinking so “is guilt of a moral fallacy”. “There is disorder in his conception of the ranking of moral principles” (Rawls, 1999, 68). Slavery has no mutually acknowledged principles and no moral claim to the advantages. Slave meets the existing interests effectively but “the satisfaction of these claims is without weight and cannot enter into any tabulation of advantages and disadvantages” (Rawls, 1999, 69).

However, a general moral conception cannot provide public recognition of a conception of justice in democratic state, observes Rawls. (This state goes back to the Wars of Religion after Reformation era and follows the principle of toleration, the growth of the constitutional government and large market economies). It requires a political conception of justice and refers to the necessary acknowledgment of the phenomena of diversity and the principle of pluralism as regards the doctrines and the conceptions of goods
for individuals. Intuitive idea behind the political conception of justice relates directly to such a background and to the existing situation of the modern democratic society. Such a conception, Rawls suggests, may be supported “at least” by an “overlapping consensus” of the “opposing philosophical, religious doctrines” inherited from the past and still having adherents (Rawls, 1999, 390).

However, democratic thoughts of the last two centuries suffered from “a deep disagreement” over the way of realization of the values of liberty and equality within the basic structure of society (Rawls, 1999, 391). In thought, this conflict can be traced back to the rival traditions attributed to Locke and Rousseau. But, “justice as fairness”, to be composed of two principles if justice “tries to adjudicate between these contending traditions first, by proposing …. guidelines for how basic institutions are to realize the values of liberty and equality, and second, by specifying a point of view from which these principles can be seen as more appropriate … to the nature of democratic citizens …” (Rawls, 1999, 392).

Justice as Fairness, especially TJ, aims at justifying political liberalism through a general theory of justice for a well-ordered society. Such a society is regulated by a public conception of justice. Its members accept the same principles upon which the basic institutions are based. This idealisation is based upon the observation that political theory of liberal democracy is in a crisis and there is no agreement upon the contents of liberal democratic institutions in terms of the values of freedom and equality of the citizens and the institutional arrangements of these fundamental values (Lassman; 197-8). In the theory of justice as fairness, social unity means “a system of cooperation between free and equal persons”. Commitment to common institutions is erected upon “their publicly accepting a political conception of justice to regulate the basic structure of society”. Here, justice is independently defined from the conceptions of good and prior to them. The principles of justice put the limits on the conceptions of “goods which are permissible” to be advanced. This relation between justice and good implies the “priority of right”, which Rawls believes, characterizes the liberalism in the political sense. As for the problem of stability, Rawls argues that it relates to “overlapping consensus”, by which justice as fairness is acknowledged. Each individual may interpret this consensus in favour of his own comprehensive moral doctrine and accordingly overlapping consensus will be far more stable than being indifferent to the rival values or accepting the principle of utility and will be a peaceful compromise, reconciliation, in the face of social forces (Rawls, 1999, 413).
A just society is regulated by “a public conception of justice” (Rawls, 1971, 4-5). In such a society, each person acknowledges the same principles of justice, as the basic institutions of society meet and is known to meet these principles of justice (Rawls, 1971, 5).

The conception of justice with its aspect of fairness insures a background for “a public acceptance of the corresponding principles of justice”. Rawls observes that membership for a society is not a voluntary act. However, a society is closer to “a voluntary schema” when the principles of justice as fairness operate therein. In this way, “its members are autonomous and the obligation they recognize self-imposed” (Rawls, 1971, 13).

After TJ is published, Rawls tries to eliminate from his theory the claims about “universal truth”, or “the essential nature and identity of persons”. “In a constitutional democracy the public conception of justice should be, so far as possible, independent of controversial philosophical and religious doctrines”. The principle of toleration also must be applied to the philosophy itself (Rawls, 1999, 388). Moreover, it is suggested that justice as fairness can be conceived as political and that this type of conception is needed in a democratic society. Rawls states that he did not sufficiently emphasis the political character of his conception of justice before. However, justice as fairness applied to “the basic structure’ of a modern constitutional democracy” (Rawls, 1999, 389). It is a liberal view and not a comprehensive moral doctrine governing all life beyond the basic structure of society. Liberalism recognises conflicting and incommensurable conceptions of the good in the constitutional democratic state. In addition, a viable political conception of justice rejects the autocratic use of the state power (Rawls, 1999, 408). It may impose some constraints over the individuals and associations in accordance with the requirements of the political justice in the basic structure of the society.

Rawls indeed eliminates abstract conceptions such as essential nature and identity of person: Person is conceived as political, as a citizen. He argues that the ideals of “autonomy” and “individuality” are not essential to liberalism as a political doctrine. Any such ideals, when conceived as comprehensive ones, are not compatible with the other “conceptions of good, with forms of personal, moral, and religious life consistent with justice” although their role in the development of liberalism is seen as in Kant and Mill. Otherwise, liberalism becomes another sectarian doctrine (Rawls, 1999, 409).
Justice as fairness is concerned with the “cooperative virtues suitable for a political doctrine in view of the conditions and requirements of a constitutional regime” (Rawls, 1999, 410-1). This conception is restricted to the basic structure of society and the idea of overlapping consensus is embodied in the conception of justice that is not a mere compromise. However, Rawls’ suggestion may seem another comprehensive moral doctrine whose concepts, principles and virtue are “accepted by each as belonging to a more comprehensive philosophical, religious, or moral doctrine” (Rawls, 1999, 411).

**Original Position**

Rawls’ idea of “original position” fulfils the function of determining “fair terms of cooperation”. However, how is it itself determined, asks Rawls: by “God’s law” or “natural law” or by “rational intuition”? Each expresses its own conception of social cooperation. Rawls theory of justice suggests that the fair terms of cooperation is to be determined “by an undertaking among ...persons themselves in the light of what they regard as their mutual advantage”. The agreement, if it will be valid, must be made under appropriate conditions, which, “must situate free and equal persons fairly and must not allow some persons greater bargaining advantages than others”. The appropriate condition, surely, must exclude the “threats of force and coercion, deception and fraud, and so on,” (Rawls, 1999, 399).

Rawlsian construction presents us original position, the problem of choice, and then stage, the principles of justice. It is supposed that, at least, “the initial contractual situation may seem reasonable although the particular principles proposed are rejected”. He states that “in well-ordered initial situation”; “certain moral principle” can be accepted. The contract theory provides a notion of choice between rational persons. It is already the fact that “the theory of justice is a part, perhaps the most significant part, of the theory of rational choice”. The notion of contract assumes conflicting claims and an initial plurality. It also relates to the “conditions of publicity” for the principles of justice. The characteristic aspect of the contract doctrine is found in its stress on the “public nature of political principles” (Rawls, 1971, 16).

Rawls claims that the representative character of the original position overcomes the difficulty. It is a model of fair condition under which “the representatives of free and equal persons are to specify the terms of social
cooperation in the case of the basic structure of society”. Furthermore, the difficulties above-mentioned are overcome thanks to the restrictions of original position over the reasons for favouring one alternative as a good alternative. The position functions as an instrument of “public reflection and self-clarification” and plays the role of “a unifying idea by which our considered convictions at all levels of generality are brought to bear on one another so as to achieve greater mutual agreement and self-understanding”. Both the characteristics of the parties and the restrictions of the veil of ignorance, to Rawls, have no metaphysical implications about the nature of self since self is not assumed prior to the facts about the persons and no any essential nature independent from contingencies is offered. Rawls states that such misunderstandings originate from the fact that representative quality of the original position is not seen (Rawls, 1999, 402). At any time, parties can enter into this position “simply by reasoning principles of justice in accordance with the enumerated restrictions” (Rawls, 1999, 402-3).

Rawls suggests that the principles might be deduced from a priori principles of reason or known intuitively. However, they would unlikely result in the principles of justice. Rawls imagines self-interested and rational persons, who will in time debate on the legitimate claims against their settled institutions. Such a debate creates principles in order to evaluate and judge complaints and practices, that is, a procedure of evaluation and judgment which is proposed and accepted by all and is binding for future. Rawls predicts that each person will take into account the general principles in the face of other competing particular interests (Rawls, 1999, 53). The principles guarantee that “the interests of others will be limited likewise” (Rawls, 1999, 54). Rawls seems to suggest a game theory, or a game theory model of justice as fairness. In the game theories, self-interested and rational parties accept the same rules and they try to win or at least decrease their lost. The game presents risks, extreme benefits, reasonable targets to the parties and also reasonable benefits if they collaborate.

**Public Agreement:** Now we must ask which principles are chosen in this original position. It implies a hierarchy of different principles. The possibility of choosing utility principle is weak since it rules out the principle of reciprocity and the cooperation of the equals. Nobody accepts a loss in return of a greater net balance of satisfaction. The principle of utility also raises the problem of egoism. Rawls believes that the parties in the original position would select “two rather different principles” (Rawls, 1971, 14).

What the parties do in such a circumstance is ‘simply the acknowledgment of certain principles of judgment, fulfilling certain general
conditions, to be used in criticizing the arrangement of their common affairs” (Rawls, 1999, 57). Rawls believes that his imagined circumstances is an answer to common objection to the theory of social contract as it is based on fiction since they are based actual persons and their relations formed within practices (Rawls, 1999, 58-9).

Before introducing these principles, it is said that certain institutional forms are more appropriate to satisfy the values of liberty and equality for citizens, who are regarded as “having the requisite powers of moral personality that enable them to participate in society viewed as a system of fair cooperation for mutual advantage” (Rawls, 1999, 392). Emphasis that is put on the citizenry, publicity, moral powers and participation points to Rawls as a political liberal, which I can suggest as being a liberalism sine quo non of which is no longer market liberalism. Therefore, the question becomes how political philosophy finds the most appropriate institutional forms for this political conception of justice. The most suitable solution is “to narrow the range of public disagreement”. For this purpose, some “settled convictions” can be collected. The “religious toleration” and “rejection of slavery” are the examples of settled convictions. The basic idea that is implicit in them can then be used to organize a coherent conception of justice. In the public sphere, “the shared fund of implicitly recognized basic ideas and principles” can be looked for so that they would be “combined into conception of political justice congenial to our most firmly held convictions”. Political conception of justice must be compatible with our considered conceptions, “at all levels of generality, on due reflection” or “reflective equilibrium” (Rawls, 1999, 393).

The public base of political agreement, Rawls suggests, can only be provided with the conception of justice that will reasonably shape in one coherent view “the deeper bases of agreement embedded in the public political culture of a constitutional regime and acceptable to its most firmly held considered convictions” (Rawls, 1999, 394). Once this aim is achieved, justification of justice as fairness is realised by the public recognition of citizens. Rawls states that

“justification is addressed to others who disagree with us, and therefore it must always proceed from some consensus, that is from premises that we and others publicly recognize as true; or better, publicly recognized as acceptable to us for the purpose of establishing a working agreement on the fundamental questions of political justice” (Rawls, 1999, 394).

It is seen that the political conception does not express itself as true, but only as “a basis of informed and willing political agreement between
citizens”. This agreement can be maintained only if “we try, so far as we can, to avoid disputed philosophical, as well as disputed moral and religious, questions”. We should “recognize” that “there is no way to resolve them politically” (Rawls, 1999, 394). Otherwise, “the only alternative to a principle of toleration is the autocratic state power”. However, Rawls observes that since the era of Reformation, “on the questions of religious and moral doctrine, public agreement on the basic questions of philosophy cannot be obtained without the state’s infringement of basic liberties” (Rawls, 1999, 395).

Public agreement over the deep divisions requires state intervention. This means that if state intervention is not wanted, deep divisions have to be put aside for the theory of justice as fairness. But, we may wonder how the theory of justice can work in case the principle of toleration does not operate and requires the state to intervene. In addition, controversial thing is that who tolerates whom. Furthermore, toleration presupposes the acceptance of division and not implies to surpass that. However, this is not a problem for Rawls, who want to turn them into manageable, reasonable level. If he tried to surpass the divisions that lead into conflict, he could not be content with the idea of public agreement based on the principles of justice and hence, should not have started with this inter-subjectivism, and at least he had to apply to a Hegelian dialectic suggesting the state’s solution to the problem. For the idea of social cooperation, we need “publicly recognized rules and procedures”. Cooperation requires “the idea of fair terms of cooperation” and “an idea of each participant’s rational advantage, or good” (Rawls, 1999, 396). Here, Rawls seems to mean that ideas need ideas to realise themselves and remain as ideas.

**Person:** As for the “idea of the person”, he or she can be a citizen, who is free and equal as regards other citizens. The concept of “free” refers to the virtue of “moral powers and the power of reason, thought, and judgment connected with those powers”. The adjective “equal” applies to the persons being “fully cooperating members of society” basing on the virtue of their moral powers. Here, the meaning of equality is a condition in which “persons can be full participants in a fair system of social cooperation” (Rawls, 1999, 397). Rawls sees the person not only as moral and normative (despite not basing on a comprehensive moral doctrine) but in fact “political”, or in relation to “a conception of citizen”; very practicable and concrete, rather than something like “human nature” in the social or natural science (Rawls, 1999, 397, n15).

In a fair system of just society of Rawls, citizen, who is free and equal, is ascribed two moral powers (Rawls, 1999, 397): “a capacity for a sense of
justice and a capacity for a conception of the good”. The former relates to a public conception of justice while the latter implies an extension of the narrow conceptions of the good, raising one’s rational advantage to the values of human life (Rawls, 1999, 398). The conception of person stated above (equal and free) and the idea of social cooperation becomes the integral part of the question of justice (Rawls, 1999, 398-9).

The left questions the historical and sociological naiveté of the device of social contract and the notion of original position. TJ is inherently an ideology. Moreover, one of the drawbacks of the theory is its separation of distributive system from production. It is capitalism itself under which justice is impossible while it is irrelevant under socialism. Macpherson argued that the theory accepts the settled inequalities inevitable within class-divided society of capitalism. On the other hand, Gray points to the indifference Rawls demonstrates towards the economic regimes as regards the aims of theory of justice and sees this impartiality inconsistent with the principles of justice (Lassman, 1992, 213).

It is observed that some biases exist in the original position. First, to gain unanimity, to the parties are not presented a full conception of good (‘thin’ theory of primary social goods). Therefore, the original position accepts and treats the parties as unequal persons at the beginning. In addition, it is claimed that Rawls in his second principle prefers the sacrifices of higher echelons of the society to those of the sacrifices to the lower levels (bias against the best-off). For this reason, this sort of bias decreases justificatory quality of the justice as fairness as a fair procedure. Furthermore, assumptions of the natural equality and freedom are ideological biases. Moreover, Rawls abstract the men from the real conditions of society. By doing so, the principles of justice favour the class interests and distort the instrumental character of state in favour of the dominant class interests. Furthermore, Rawls reduce the liberal moral and political theory to the individual rational choice problem (Daniels, 1978, xviii-xix).

Rawls seems to apply to an inter-subjectivist epistemology in which objective truth is reduced to an agreement between inter-subjective confrontation, negotiation and compromise. Due to this epistemology, Rawls’ contract doctrine coincides with governance paradigms of the last decades. Therefore, theory of justice seems to have turned into a democratic theory of communication. Such an approach in many respects makes superfluous the first part of the TJ, since, I believe, any public agreement needs not necessarily a contract procedure. Furthermore, through this sort of inter-subjectivism, Rawls places himself completely outside realist ontology. A complete Marxist critique of Rawls’ theory of justice as fairness, I
suggest, should start with a criticism of this inter-subjectivism and tries to demonstrate that the realist ontology is compatible with the content of so-called “democratic society” in its socialist form.

Veil of Ignorance, Reflective Equilibrium, or Method of Avoidance: Rawls extends the “idea of agreement” to the basic structure of society. This difficult task, to him, can be achieved within the “veil of ignorance”. The second difficulty is the assumption of hypothetical and non-historical character of the parties in the original position. Any hypothetical position “cannot bind” and Rawls points to the significance of the original position again (Rawls, 1999, 399-400).

The original position is similar to the state of nature in the contract doctrine. It is “a purely hypothetical situation characterized so as to lead to a certain conception of justice”. In this situation, nobody knows his fortune or the place he occupies in the society or his conception of the good. “The principles of justice are chosen behind a veil of ignorance”. The veil is proposed to eliminate the advantages and disadvantages caused by the natural or social contingencies. Thus, the principles of justice would not be outcomes of the particular advantages but the result of “fair agreement or bargain”. Parties are moral individuals who are “similarly situated” and “symmetrically related”. They are rational beings with their own ends and Rawls assumes that they are “capable of a sense of justice”. The original position is “the appropriate status quo” and the resultant agreement is fair (Rawls, 1971, 12). The veil of ignorance looks like the situation in the game theory in which parties voluntarily participate in a game and know only the rules of the game and their rational interests.

For the principles of justice to be selected, Rawls states that there must be certain conditions within and through which “commonly shared presumptions” can be incorporated by the initial situation. The contract will reveal the bounds for an acceptance of the principles. The bounds or constraints are provided thanks to “veil of ignorance”, which excludes the particular information and contingencies about persons. In fact, the reverse is true since Rawls thinks that such an exclusion of information and contingencies arrive at a veil of ignorance. “At any time we can enter the original position, so to speak, simply by following a certain procedure, namely, by arguing for principles of justice in accordance with these restrictions” (Rawls, 1971, 19). Original position does not imply historical period from which contract relation begins. It can be created every time and everywhere.
The principles of justice help us to judge what is unjust and offers a conceptual framework to avoid injustices. Rawls suggests that we must try to avoid the long-lasting problems of philosophy such as problem of truth and the dualism between realism and subjectivism for the status of moral and political values. The alternative can be obtained from the social contract in order “to achieve a practicable conception of objectivity and justification on due reflection”. The solution underlies the peaceful compromise through “public reason”. A political conception of person does not necessarily involve “questions of philosophical psychology or a metaphysical doctrine of the nature of the self”. Conflicting differences between political views can be “moderated” through the “method of avoidance”, so that “social cooperation on the basis of mutual respect can be manifested” (Rawls, 1999, 395). At this point, no need to say that conflict is tried to be resolved with the help of a non-conflict theory, since conflict is out of consideration for the theory of justice and something which public agreement should ignore in advance.

The principles provide a condition so that we can make same judgments about the basis of society. For example, Rawls observes that we have certain judgments about certain questions. We are sure that the religious intolerance is unjust (Rawls, 1971, 19). However, this sort of “provisional fixed points”, which any conception of justice is convicted, is not assured in the debatable questions such as correct distributive shares of wealth. Therefore, we must move backward and forward and distinguish weak and shared conditions until we find a proper description of initial situation “that both express reasonable conditions and yields principles which match our considered judgments”. Rawls calls this part of the initial situation “reflective equilibrium”, in which “at last our principles and judgments coincide” and “we know to what principles our judgments conform and the premises of their derivation”. Reflective equilibrium is open to further revisions and in this sense not necessarily stable. In addition, Rawls notices that the initial situation is open to further interpretation. A conception of justice is not based upon the self-evident premises and the justification of the principles of justice is provided by the agreement in the original situation of equality. Justification of the principles originates from the agreement and the justification of a conception of justice is “matter of the mutual support of many considerations, of everything fitting together into one coherent view” (Rawls, 1971, 20-1).
Principles of Justice (selected):

Principles of justice which are supposed to be selected in a veil of ignorance through reflective equilibrium are twofold:

“first, each person participating in a practice, or affected by it, has an equal right to the most extensive liberty compatible with a like liberty for all; and second, inequalities are arbitrary unless it is reasonable to expect that they will work out for everyone’s advantage, and provided the positions and offices to which they attach, or from which they may be gained, are open to all” (Rawls, 1999, 48).

Rawls says that “Justice as fairness begins...with the choice of the first principle of a conception of justice” and social relations become just after agreements turn into contract: “our social situation is just if it is such that by … sequence of the hypothetical agreements we would have contracted into the general system of rules which defines it” (Rawls, 1971, 13).

The first principle refers to the equal basic rights and duties: “each person is to have an equal right to the most extensive basic liberty compatible with a similar liberty for others” (Rawls, 1971, 60). In the second principle, “social and economic inequalities are to be arranged so that they are both (a) reasonably expected to be to everyone’s advantage, and (b) attached to positions and offices open to all” (Rawls, 1971, 60). The second one suggests that social and economic inequalities (in wealth, authority, for instances) are just “only if they result in compensating benefits for everyone, and in particular for the least advantaged members of society” (Rawls, 1971, 14-5). According to this formula, social and economic inequalities can be seen as just under the commands of justice as fairness. The two principles seem to be fair since the better-offs “could expect the willing cooperation of others when some workable schema is a necessary condition of the welfare of all” (Rawls, 1971, 15). Rawls means that the less-offs support the better-offs when the welfare of all is insured.

Rawls refers to a fair practice, or to say, fair game, and suggest that inequalities are accepted if they are appropriate for everybody and rights and authorities are in the same distance for everybody.

Priority Rules, Difference Principle and the General Conception of Justice: The last formulation in TJ includes two priority rules and integrates general conception into the principles: First Priority Rule suggests the priority of liberty: “The principles of justice are to be ranked in lexical order
and therefore liberty can be restricted only for the sake of liberty”. Second Priority Rule suggests the priority of justice over efficiency and welfare: “The second principle of justice is lexically prior to the principle of efficiency and to that of maximizing the sum of advantages; and fair opportunity is prior to the difference principle”. General Conception refers to basic social goods and values: “All social primary goods - liberty and opportunity, income and wealth, and the bases of self-respect - are to be distributed equally unless an unequal distribution of any or all of these goods is to the advantage of the least favored” (Rawls, 1971, 302-3).

General conception of justice is suggested in TJ’s previous pages as follows:

“All social values - liberty and opportunity, income and wealth, and the bases of self-respect - are to be distributed equally unless an unequal distribution of any, or all, of these values is to everyone’s advantage”.

In addition, injustice is seen as “simply inequalities that are not to the benefit of all”. This general conception “imposes no restrictions on what sort of inequalities are permissible; it only requires that everyone’s position be improved” (Rawls, 1971, 62).

Priority rules and general conception of justice seem to be suggested as security valves for liberal democratic society. However, we are still at the stage of principles built and constructed by Rawls himself only.

Rawls gives the priority to the liberty in the first principle and excludes it in the second principle. This exclusion is believed as Rawls’ contribution to the theory of distributive justice while the first principle is considered as the distinctive contribution to the traditional tension between justice and liberty. If we reach at the social minimum of material wealth, we do not exchange liberty for any other social goods. However, liberty can be restricted only in favour of liberty. Here criteria of restriction are the principle of common good or common interest in that all can agree that no restriction will be harmful for all. However, possibility of such an agreement is controversial and even absent (said by Scanlon), the principle of common interest is problematic because of the difficulty in balancing the competing liberties, and the relative importance of the liberties that are different in terms of advantages and disadvantages embodied in the liberties. This argument is developed much more in the Marxist critics (Daniels, 1978, xxvi-ii).

Furthermore, a communitarian attack followed traditional criticism of excessive individualism of liberalism and claimed that background
institutions cannot be justified without understanding the common purposes of the police. For example, the difference principle presupposes initial moral connections with common endeavour of community and it means only an instrument for some ends, which is something Rawls attempt to reject. It is an achievement of Rawls to demonstrate the priority of right over the good. The rights and liberties can be justified only against the background of comprehensive moral thoughts and of the conceptions of good society. This is also another idea Rawls tries to reject. Moreover, although Rawls rejects the comprehensive moral doctrines, his well-ordered society advances the goods of the members of the society and is thought to be regulated by a public conception of justice, which requires a general understanding and consent (Lassman, 1992, 213-4).

It is observed that the general conception of justice in the distribution of social primary goods applies to the situation in which effective material equality, a certain basic level, is unavailable. Once this material minimum is available, the two principles of justice come into agenda. On the other hand, it is argued that the main part of the second principle, the difference principle, is related with the Rawls’ bias against the best-off in the original position while it is put forward to insure the idea of social cooperation. On the other hand, it is pointed out that considering the realities of the class-divided society, it can be seen that best-off class are the ruling class and cannot accept the constraints of the difference principle This class has an acute need to material wealth. Rawls presupposes a moderate class conflict without ruling class and class-based desires (Daniels, 1978, xxv- xxvi). When we consider research techniques of social sciences, empirical contents of history, society and political life put some constraints on TJ and its principles of justice. From the outset, Rawls’ free, rational and equal individuals ignore collective agency, the most importantly, the class (Daniels, 1978, xxix).

The Basic Structure of Society and Primary Social Goods

The primary subject matter of Rawls’ theory is the basic structure of society, which covers “major social institutions” that “distribute fundamental rights and duties and determine the division of advantages from social cooperation” (Rawls, 1971, 7). Political constitution, economic and social arrangements, legal system, competitive markets, private property in production and the monogamous family are counted as examples. Distributive role of justice is only a part of the conception of justice (Rawls,
Inequalities that emerge within these institutions are within the scope of the principles of social justice. The basic structure of society is presented as a “closed system” (Rawls, 1971, 8). In addition, it may not satisfy the required principles for other realms (Rawls, 1971, 9).

In Rawls, liberty is conceived not in terms of capability to do something that is positive liberty but mainly in terms of freedom from restrictions, that is, negative conception of freedom (For two concepts of liberty, see Berlin, 1966). Accordingly, so called basic liberties are the political liberties including freedoms of speech and assembly, liberty of conscience, freedom of thought and holding property, freedom from arbitrary arrest and seizure in the context of rule of law. Each citizen has equal basic rights and freedoms in a just society. This equality for freedoms is provided by the first principle. Its priority also insures that the liberties would not be sacrificed by the greater economic and social advantages. Distributive arrangements of wealth and authority must be compatible with the liberties and equality of opportunity (Rawls, 1971, 61). Basic structure distributes certain social primary goods in the service of society which are in fact the rights, liberties, powers, opportunities, income and wealth and most importantly the self-respect (Rawls, 1971, 63). However, the principles do not point to the distribution of particular goods to particular persons. They regulate the institutional arrangements of basic structure. Indeed, it seems that Rawls’ persons or individuals are not the members of a particular social group or class. The principles are not designed for concrete social relations but for public sphere institutions located into the basic structure of society.

The expectations for the primary goods of representative men can be identified by “the index”. Primary goods, natural and social, are necessary means for the execution of the ends. “The expectation of representative men are...to be defined by the index of primary social goods available to them”. The parties in the original position do not know their conception of good, but know, Rawls assume, that “they prefer more than less primary goods”. This information is sufficient for them to advance their interests. However, a construction of index and weighting of the different primary social goods is a problem. Liberties are equal, but other primary social goods vary. To Rawls, these goods are the subject of the second principle of justice and difficulty begins to disappear when, the difference principle, (second clause of the second principle of justice), is considered. Indexing problem will relate to the benefits of the least advantaged group (Rawls, 1971, 93).

Actually the solution offered by Rawls is to “establish a publicly recognized objective measure, that is, a common measure that reasonable persons can accept” (Rawls, 1971, 95). Justice as fairness does not evaluate
the different values of the different conceptions of good if the conception is compatible with the principles of justice. “Things work themselves out according to the principles that would be chosen in the original position” provided that the difference principle is satisfied (Rawls, 1971, 94-5).

In a just basic structure, which includes a just political structure and just arrangements of social and economic institutions, we have a just procedural justice and hence institutions are adjusted to the two principles of justice. A government that effectively operates competitive market, realises full employment of resources and wide distribution of property and wealth through taxation along with a social minimum, a fair equality of opportunity (education for all) and the secured liberties complies with the difference principle since the better-offs improve the conditions of the less-offs. Otherwise, the principle can be met by the social minimum. The minimum means that there are injustices. Nevertheless, attempts to meet difference principle must be in tune with the demand of liberty and fair equality of opportunity (Rawls, 1971, 87).

In the case of social goods, Rawls confesses that his thought changed in some ways. For example, “primary goods” are revised so as to relate to particular person and his higher interests. He emphasizes more than before “the practical social task” for the justification of the conception of justice. Besides, main aspects of justice as fairness and its content requires a distinction between “Reasonable” and “Rational”, “the priority of right” and the role of the conception of the person” as free and equal” and “capable of autonomy” (Rawls, 1999, 388-99, n2).

**Economic Regime:** Rawls states that market economy emphasizes the precept of contribution. However, from the standpoint of the contributors, “no inference about the justice of final distribution can be drawn from viewing the use of any precept in isolation”. He accepts that “common sense precepts do not express a determinate theory of just or fair wages”. Nonetheless, “some higher principle” is needed. One alternative is the principle of utility and the other is Marx’s precept: “from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs”. Nevertheless, Rawls’ choice is the two principles of justice. The two principles determine the “correct higher criterion”. Objection that the market is never perfect and that the market is based on “exploitation” (to receive less than the contribution), be it perfect or imperfect, is replied as such:

“In any case the conception of a suitably regulated competitive economy with the appropriate background institutions is an ideal schema which shows how the two principles of justice might be realized. It seems to illustrate the
content of these principles, and brings out one way in which either a private-property economy or a socialist regime can satisfy this conception of justice” (Rawls, 1971, 309).

It is true that the imperfections of the market violates the precepts of justice, but this precept is only one norm among many other secondary norms and what significantly matters is “the working of the whole system and whether these defects are compensated for elsewhere” (Rawls, 1971, 309). At this point, it should be noted that Rawls’ principles of justice can be realised by private property based economy or a socialist economy. Rawls separates political liberalism from free market economy, implying that political liberalism does not necessarily requires private property economy. This can be accepted if we recall that socialist economy has still class divisions and interests.

Nevertheless, Rawls favours the competitive schema, which

“gives scope for the principles of free association and individual choice of occupation against a background of fair equality of opportunity… A basic prerequisite is the compatibility of economic arrangements with the institutions of liberty and free association. Thus if markets are reasonably competitive and open, the notion of pure procedural justice is a feasible one to follow” (Rawls, 1971, 310).

In order to maintain his theory, Rawls tries to operate the priority rule. First, the liberty is guaranteed, second the fair equality of opportunity is provided and finally the difference principle is set in motion for the benefits of the least favoured groups in the general conception of justice as fairness.

Concluding Remarks

In his web site article, “The politics of John Rawls”, Paul Treanor criticises Rawls’ theory of justice and his liberalism. (Treanor, 2003). “This whole approach is flawed …. it includes morally arbitrary choices, which are concealed by Rawls style.”. Rawls suggests his original position in the form of assembly. Treanor asks: ‘there is only one assembly. Why only one?””. “There is only one social contract. Why not different (multiple) versions?”.
Also, Rawls assumes non-migration. “if there were multiple social contracts, then some people could live under different versions, in the course of their lives. If there were multiple contracts and migration, then the migration can be voluntary. This introduces the element of real-life voluntarism into
contractarianism. Rawls simply prohibits voluntarism”. Moreover, “Rawls model is permanent: there is no provision for review, or any innovation in the minimum principles. Why not? Again the permanence is simply an arbitrary choice”. A specific contract justifies a specific society, “other possible 'social contracts' will justify other possible societies”. This is the logical errors of all contract theories. However, it is already the fact that “Rawls model is an approximation of the nation state, that's why. Individuals are born into a nation - a nation state usually - and most people remain there. Only a minority migrate across borders”. “Contractarianism is ….suspiciously similar to nationalism. The constraints, which Rawls built into his fictive assembly model, correspond to the claims of nationalism”. Those claims are generally that humanity consists of nations; … that the nation is the standard form of human society and the basic unit of global order; and that no non-nation may form a state, not now and not ever”. Treanor states that “None of these nationalist assertions, however, are absolute truths. They are ideology imposed by military force, at a cost of millions of deaths” (Treanor, 2003).

The participants is directed to the principles if justice by using a “trick”, says Treanor. “The trick is to make people forget that - to forget the 'design features', to forget that other designs might produce equally plausible results”. Nevertheless, “with the 'veil of ignorance' it is possible to give alternatives which are at least equally plausible. The participants might choose these options, rather than Rawls liberalism. They might choose them even under Rawls' assumptions - to minimise the harm that they might suffer”. Putting aside this possibility, “those who suffer injustice today could, in principle, call for a referendum on the states's existence tomorrow. Again this is just as 'rational' a response to injustice”. Also, there must be a veto system since “the veto is an effective defense for the weak - if the veto is extended to them” (Treanor, 2003).

Sharp criticism continues: “the formal equality of rights does not mean any other equality. They are certainly no guarantee of justice. Millions of people have starved to death, while enjoying basic political rights”. Of course, Rawls could reply that basic primary goods are provided in a just society. But can a just contract ensure this? Moreover, Treanor says that “The minimal-benefit requirement” is “an inherently unjust principle, because it specifies no minimum, against which the minimal benefit is measured”. Actually what Rawls suggests is to persuade the people against ever worse alternatives. Treanor sees that “Rawls principle allows any social inequality not conflicting with the basic liberties, because there is always a
thinkable worse alternative”. The limit of inequality should not be conflict with basic liberties (Treanor, 2003).

One of the problems of the theory of justice is whether it is realist or utopist. Actually, Treanor sees that Rawls “is not designing a future just society: he is arguing that present societies are broadly just”. The general leftward criticism is generally this saying that Rawls covertly tries to legitimates existing liberal democratic society. Treanor states that Rawls uses “the so-called 'trickle-down effect'. In its crudest form, this is the claim that the rich must get richer, in order that more of their wealth can 'trickle down' to the poor. It became a standard of neoliberal politics”. Actually we are persuaded to “the 'thinkable worst alternative'”. As for the position of “the least favoured” or worst-offs, Treanor states “Rawls does not say that the least favoured should have a large advantage, or an equal advantage, or an advantage chosen by themselves. Simply an 'advantage', compared to a worse alternative”. What Rawls does is to “delete” the claims of real world, “claims of equality, claims to minimum standards, claims of some hope of social improvement”. The dangerous think is that “Rawls allows any oppressor to perpetuate any injustice on the weak, if they can think of a variant of the trickle-down effect” (Treanor, 2003)

Treanor also points to “typical structural injustice in liberal-democratic societies”, which is “class inequality in death rates and life expectancy”. For example, according to British study he concludes that: “Annually, some 7,500 deaths amongst people younger than 65 could be prevented if inequalities in wealth narrowed to their 1983 levels” (Treanor, 2003).

If “the disadvantaged groups demand justice”? “They could approach the government, and demand redistribution of wealth. A Rawlsian government advisor would however reject their claim, using Rawls' work”. I think that Rawls is aware of the problem. His social minimum criteria offer some primary goods according to the difference principle. However, a degree of minimum is not existed in his theory. “In a Rawlsian system, the complainants in this case can never establish that there is a clear injustice. Since no injustice is established, any forced redistribution of wealth would itself be unjust. (It would violate property rights, one of the traditional basic liberties of liberalism)”. Thus, Treanor is right to say that “Therefore the Rawlsian advisor would reject the demand for redistribution” (Treanor, 2003).
Treonor points to the procedural aspect of liberal conception of justice as fairness. “The ability of citizens to present a complaint to an independent tribunal, is a typical example of a procedure, which is valued by liberals”. Actually, this is completely the case of Rawlsian theory that "process legitimises outcome", which is “probably the shortest summary of liberal philosophy”. What is said to the poor is “that poverty is not unjust, and that inequality is not tyranny”. Treanor suggest that “The alternative is simple: ethics should not concern itself with 'justice', but with injustice - and how to end it” (Treonor, 2003).

As for the social unity and consensus on which society is based, Treanor observes that “Rawls also has a clear picture of what he wants to avoid: civil strife. Again he gives no justification for making the avoidance of civil strife a primary social goal. He simply assumes it to be self-evidently necessary that societies are like this” (Treonor, 2003). As we have seen above, Rawls often refers to religious tolerance which was developed after the wars of religion in Europe. Treanor states that “Not just Rawls, but the liberal tradition in general, wishes to structure society, so as to avoid civil strife. But that is a political preference of liberals, not a self-evident truth”. For him, “civil strife is the greatest evil for a society. Are there no greater evils? Is inequality not a greater evil than civil strife?”. It is a striking question, I think. If we consider the social and economic background of all civil wars, we can see that people do not make war simply for religious purposes.

Rawls’ theory of justice follows dualist tradition and does not recognize the dialectic thinking. He sees the conflict but does not try to see the dialectical roots of the conflict. He sees the problem but does not see the mechanisms, which leads to the problem. Freedom and equality are not only values but also problems. Rawls resolves traditional conflict between these two values by giving the priority to the freedom over the equality. The only valid justification seems to be accepting the idea of man as end in itself. Man can not be an instrument for any higher value. This sort of liberal humanism illustrates the concept of bourgeoisie. But, do not the mechanism and the dynamics of the liberal society make an instrument all men? Rawls’ contribution to liberalism is his breaking the ties with market liberalism. But, without market liberalism, is the political liberalism possible? He seems to argue that socialist economic system can be compatible with political liberalism as defined by the political conception of justice as fairness. The question can be asked in reverse: can socialist politics be possible with market liberalism? If this is possible, why will we call it socialist politics? Rawls has no such conception like “driving forces of society”. Driving forces, to him, are only the general acceptance of some principles. For
example, principle of utility rules, or his principles can rule, or whatever. He
does not explain why some principles seem to rule.

With the hierarchical organisation of the principles of justice, Rawls takes
us back to the famous dichotomy of freedom and equality, which has created
controversies among different liberal lines and between liberals and
collectivist thoughts as well. He puts the priority over liberty. Novelty is that
the traditional dichotomy between freedom and equality is translated into a
tension between freedom and justice. Justice does not exclude inequality as
long as it is just. Rawls, as a liberal, talks about the equalities only in the
context of rights and liberties while he deals with inequalities rather than
equalities in the context of social and economic relations. In addition, it is
surprising to assume that inequality is to be accepted by the least advantaged
parties of society. Furthermore, in general conception, we argue that there
are inequalities that are to the benefit of all. Moreover, it is assumed that
unequal distribution of social values may be to the benefit of all and some
inequalities are permissible.

The main drawback of Rawlsian theory is that it tries to resolve the
conflict without having a conflict theory. Historical background of the
divisions of the conceptions of good is observed but it is not explained why
rival groups have incommensurable conceptions of good. This lack of
understanding does not and cannot lead to the analysis of structure-agency
relation.

In Rawls, we do not see any collective notion of will and identity. But
any social and political discussion must take for granted the collectivity, be it
liberal or whatever. Clash of the atoms cannot lead to any social relation that
Rawls’ social and political justice absolutely need. His triple relation of
family, association and the state seems to be Hegelian sequential relation of
family-civil society and state. The last stage is suggested as a sphere in
which the contradictions are resolved in the form of just constitutional form
of democratic state. But, nonetheless, although Rawls observes the conflict,
he does not have any conception of contradiction or any dialectical
understanding of the contradiction.

Conception of fairness reduces the problem of inequality to justice since,
when the rules of the game is fair, results are out of considerations of justice.
However, as he accepts, social justice is not the question of social game to
which our participation is not voluntary. If the rules of the game are fair, the
results are always just
My last remark is related with the send principles of justice. The clause, “the greatest benefit of the least advantaged” is never explained by Rawls. How can inequality be arranged to the “the greatest benefit of the least advantaged”? In other words, how can the condition of disadvantage be “the greatest benefit” at the same time?

Labour theory of value expresses itself as wage differentiation. And the theory of justice expresses itself as *principled* differentiation of advantages and disadvantages. I believe that Rawls theory of justice is recent interpretation of labour theory of value and the late political theory of capitalism. Nevertheless, we must do justice, and read repeatedly Rawls because of his powerful constructions for other purposes.
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The Idea of Europe among Albanian Intellectuals in 1920s and 1930s

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Abstract

The scope of this article is to investigate the ways Europe/Occident was both perceived and used by the intellectual elite in Albania during the processes of nation-building in 1920s-1930s. This historical period was a crucial one in terms of modernization efforts of Albanian society. Undertaking the building of a modern, literate and secular society, the political and intellectual elites in Albania looked to Europe/Occident for suitable guidelines and models of nation-building and also for legitimization and acceptance in the “civilized world”. Therefore, in this paper attention will be paid to the public debates and the use of concept of Europe/Occident by intellectuals, who advanced different views about the direction that the modernization of Albania should follow.

Key words: Albania, idea of Europe, intellectuals, Orientalism, interwar years.

Abstrakt

Artikulli shqyrton perceptimin e Evropës/Perëndimit nga elita intelektuale shqiptare në vitet 20-30. Kjo periudhë historike ishte shumë e rëndësishme për sa i përkut përpjekte modernizuese në shoqërinë dhe shtetin shqiptar. Duke synuar ndërtimin e njëjë shoqërjie të zhvilluar, moderne dhe laike, elitat politike dhe intelektuale të atyre viteve kërkonin nga Evropa/Oksidenti modele për komb-formimin si edhe legitimitet dhe pranim
në “botën e qytetëruar”. Në këtë artikull do t’i kushtohet vëmendje debateve publike dhe përdorimit të idesë së Evropës/Oksidentit nga intelektualët, që kishin alternativa të ndryshme politike për modernizimin e Shqipërisë.

Апстракт

Во доменот на ова истражување е да се испитаат начините на кој интелектуалната елита од Албанија ја перципираше Европа/Западот во периодот на процесите кога се создавање државата во 1920-1930 година. Овој исторски период беше од круцијално значење за модернизацијата на албанското општество. При создавањето на модерно, образовно и секуларно општество, политичките и интелектуалните елити во Албанија бараа од Европа/Западот соодветни упатства и модели за создавање држава и легитимирање и прифаќање во „цивилизиранот свет”. Оттаму, во овој труд посебно внимание се посветува на јавните дебати и употребата на концептот за Европа/Запад од интелектуалците кои предложија различни гледишта за насоките кои модернизацијата на Албанија треба да ги следи.

Introduction

At present the question of European identity is at the forefront of the debates about the current situation and the future of European Union (EU). Very often the EU is compared to the achievement of the nation-state, and the possibility of a European identity is thought of against the background of the existing national identities in Europe. Hence, the arguments about the impossibility, or at best the shallowness of the European identity (Smith, 1997) and the projections of a European post-national identity in a post-national constellation (e.g. Habermas, 1998; 2001). But the relationship between the nation and “Europe” is older than the EU. On one hand, the EU legitimizes itself by appealing to an idea of Europe, presenting itself as the embodiment of “Europe”, and as the realization of various historical projects advanced for the unity of Europe, against the divisions and vagaries of the nation-state. On the other hand, it is also true that since the advent of modernity the various nations in the continent have been imagined in conjunction with perceptions of “Europe”. This has been a two way process: not only nations have been constructed in the milieu of European or Western civilization, but also Europe has been imagined through the lens of the
nation. That is why there has never been such thing as “Europe”, in an essentialist sense, but many imaginations of Europe (Malmborg & Strath, 2002).

As the idea of Europe is closely tied to the history of the nation-state in the last two hundred years, then adjectives “European” and “national” are not alternatives, but are articulated in multiple ways (ibid., p. 6). Questions such “How European is our nation?”, or “What does Europe think of us?”, or “Should we love or hate Europe?” are continually asked in national contexts, even at present, with important consequences for the future. In this paper we will be dealing with the various meanings of Europe articulated in political debates for the way of development of the Albanian nation-state in the interwar period. The research questions that we will attempt to answer here are what are the main meanings of “Europe” articulated in Albanian political discourse of the time, how do they vary according to the different subject positions and if there was a dominant understanding of “Europe” at that time?

In our opinion, the Albanian case during the inter-war period is revealing for studying the meanings of Europe in nation-building processes in the periphery of the continent. Albania is one of the new nation-states in Eastern Europe which came into existence, or regained their independence after the collapse of Habsburg, Ottoman and Russian empires at the end of the Great War. The interwar period is deemed essential for the national identity of these peoples, because it is a time when the national political and cultural elites in the new states of Eastern Europe were looking up to the West to provide legitimacy, moral inspiration and guidance, security and assistance to their countries, at a time when, ironically, the Western civilization was in crisis and Europe was turning into what Mark Mazower (1998) has aptly called the “dark continent”. But, considering the dismemberment during and after the Second World War, or, incorporation to the communist empire, in the historical memory of these national states the interwar period has often been considered as the highest point of their aspiration to join European or Western “civilization”. After the breakdown of the communist regime in 1990, many Albanian intellectuals are nostalgically considering the interwar period as the most Western one in the history of the country and there are similar feelings across the region of ex-socialist states. The predominant discourses in Albania portray communism as another rupture with the natural course of Albania toward the West in and intellectuals are seeking to “reconnect” the present with the ideas flourishing in Albanian press during 1920s and 1930s, so as to provide a contemporary moral and spiritual renewal of national identity, as well as a guidance to the integration process
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in NATO and EU. For example in the introduction to the one thousand-page book, *An Anthology of Albanian Thought 1870-1945*, published in 2003 and including contributions from the main intellectuals of the inter-war period, the editor writes about the “Western vision” these authors collectively served to the political orientation of Albania (Kulla, 2003, p. 14). Such an uncritical assessment of their contributions, taken detached from the political context of the period, hides the layered and multiplicity of meanings that the idea of “West” (“Occident”), or “Europe” displayed in the political discourses of the period.

This paper will try to reveal the multiplicity of the meanings of Europe/Occident in the political discourses of Albanian intellectual elites from 1918 to 1939. It will demonstrate that there was indeed a dominant discourse about “escaping” the East/Asia and “returning” to Occident/Europe, to which nearly of the intellectuals of the time ascribed, but which nevertheless did allow the existence of more nuanced understandings of the idea of Europe, depending on the different projection of the Albanian development and future that were debated at that time. By “discourse” we understand “a meaningful practice that forms the identities of subjects and objects” (Howarth & Stavrakakis, 2000, pp. 3-4). The emphasis on discourse formation shows that meanings of the concepts are not fixed in advance, but depend on the ways they are arranged in a discourse around nodal points. Following Laclau and Mouffe (1985, p. 112), a discursive nodal point has the function to construct a temporary and unstable center for the arrangement of meaning in a discourse.

The stabilization of the dominant discourse of the period in Albania was performed by the nodal point of “Occident”. More than geography, it referred to the idea of civilization (or *the* Civilization), whose meaning depended on the opposition to its counterpart, the “East”, or “Orient”, or “Asia”. As such, it demonstrated most of the characteristics of that discourse Edward W. Said (1978) termed “Orientalism”. This was an Albanian variant of Orientalism (Sulstarova, 2007), which borrowed the binary structure of Western Orientalism and applied it to the Albanian realities. The opposing categories of West and East were associated with other polarities, such as modern vs. backward, new vs. old, innovation vs. tradition, progress vs. stagnation, secularism vs. bigotry, emancipation vs. servitude, nation-state vs. Ottoman empire etc. One chain of equivalence, the occidental one, was considered as the dominant trend of national identity, and the other, the Oriental one was considered as decadent and destined to perish.

Through the dominant discourse the intellectuals tried to suspend the meaning of the Albanian nation to a “transitional” period between Europe
and Asia, West and East and to construct the subject position of the new intellectual as the harbinger or spiritual guidance towards the “New Albania”. This was made possible due to the political arrangement at that time. After 1924, King Zog I had built an authoritarian regime where there were no political parties. On the other hand the regime allowed for the freedom of press, up to certain limits, and for public criticism directed against the bureaucracy and the parliament, with the exception of the king himself, his family and the foreign policy with Italy. This gave opportunity to Albanian intellectuals to debate especially about contemporary social and cultural situation in country and to advance ideas about its modernization. In the absence of the political parties, some of them were grouped around currents of thoughts, influenced by the contemporary ideas and ideologies in Europe. The idea of Europe gained several meanings, according to the projects that each current represented. The rest of the paper exemplifies the hegemonic discourse and its different variants. The next section gives a short overview of the political and social situation of interwar Albania, the third section examines the Albanian version of Orientalism, the fourth one looks more closely to alternatives from the right and left in Albanian politics. The last section deals with the relevance of our argument for contemporary debates about integration to “Europe” in Albania and other post-communist countries.

**Interwar Albania**

Albania came out of the First World War in very depressing conditions. During the war it had been invaded by Serbian, Greek, Italian, Austro-Hungarian, Bulgarian and French armies battling one another, which had inflicted victims and sufferings on a people who had already felt the savagery of the Balkan War. Its future seemed uncertain, because of the plans made by the Allies during the war to grant pieces of Albanian territory to the neighbors. But, due to a patriotic fervor and to the new international atmosphere after the war, Albania managed to preserve the 1913 boundaries of the state and to be accepted as a member to the League of Nations in 1921.

At this time, Albania was one of the most primitive countries in Europe in terms of development. Its economy was an agrarian one, in a country of nearly 1 million inhabitants, which nevertheless could not feed the population without importing grain every year. In the cities there were few manufactures and the only modern inter-city road system was constructed
during the war for the supply needs of the invading armies. Despite the various reforms, Albania remained a poor and underdeveloped country throughout the interwar period and was hit hard by the Great Depression. There the crisis lasted longer then in developed countries and reached its peak in 1934. By 1938 the level of foreign trade was still under that of year 1928 (Prifti & Shpuza, 2007, pp. 108-109). To overcome stagnation, Albania needed foreign investments and aid, and it turned to Italy, which was interested in Albania for strategic reasons. The new fascist regime wanted to turn Albania into a base for the expansion in the Balkans.

In early 1920s, after the stability of the state boundaries was secured, a degree of internal instability followed. There were frequent changes of government, sometimes including armed struggles between different contenders. The politician who dominated during the period was Ahmet Zog, originally a young chieftain from Mat region, in the north of Tirana. He overcame the opposition and managed to rule the country, first as prime-minister, then as president (1925-1928), and at last as “King of Albanians” (1928-1939). Early in his career, Zog understood that the stability of his rule depended on the development of the country and he initiated many administrative, economic and cultural reforms. In an interview by the Daily Telegraph in 1928, King Zog declared that “we are centuries behind Europe in civilization… It is my determination to civilize my people and make them as far as possible adopt Western habits and customs” (cited in Fischer, 1995, p. 22). During his rule, Albania adopted the civil, penal and commerce legal codes of European countries, a central bank was established, a land reform was attempted, many public works were accomplished throughout the country a system of primary and secondary schools covered nearly all the country, foreign instructors were brought in to train a modern army, and efforts were made to change the traditional ways of living and to introduce Western modernity in education and cultural spheres.

Nevertheless, the costs of these reforms made Zog more and more dependent on Italy. He thought that he could take the Italian money and use it to strengthen the Albanian economy, in order to create a national unity that would deny the Italians the political control of the country (ibid., p. 37). This policy succeeded, in the sense that a Pyrrhic victory is a victory, until 1939, when Mussolini finally deposed him and invaded the country, at the eve of Second World War. Despite, the many failures, the regime of Zog provided Albania with a central government, the contours of a modern state, and unity for enough time to establish a strong national identification among the cultural elite, as this is demonstrated by the lively intellectual debates on the development of the country.
Albanian Orientalism

In the texts by Albanian intellectuals during the interwar period, the signifiers “Occident” and “Europe” accompanied diverse political, social, and economic demands and plans, in the interests of different groups of population. “Europe” was articulated in discourses that made the apology of the regime, as well as in discourses expressed dissatisfaction with the current situation that called for social reforms. “Occident” signified “Western civilization” and in geographical terms it usually covered Western Europe, but at time included USA, even Central Europe, according to arguments advanced by authors. Nearly all intellectuals active in public debates were “Westernizers”, even those of left-wing sympathies, who otherwise were critical of bourgeois civilization. One of the latter category, the poet Migjeni (pseudonym of Millosh Gjergj Nikolla) wrote the following verses in praise of the “Marvelous West”: “This is a song of the West, a song of the man who is elevated by self-confidence/His song is a beautiful hope, carried by wings of another life/Where the sun will change its course; is will rise in the West” (Migjeni, 1998, pp. 37-38). Images of the Occident exerted a powerful attraction to the intellectuals, because it represented of a new model of social organization and way of life, which they wished for Albania. In essentialist terms, they thought that Albanians belonged to Europe, thus their destiny should be joining the European civilization. As one young intellectual, Ismet Toto (1997) put it in an article in 1936: “Albania should be Europeanized, it should become a Switzerland in the Balkans... The logic of history, our geographic position, the spiritual capabilities of our people and all that is good and noble in this country, compel us to choose the way of Europeanization and the embracing of moral principles of means and manner invented by the science and the civilization of this continent” (p. 60; emphasis in original).

The emblem of the modern civilization was considered to be the machine and the factory. Branko Merxhani (2003, p. 245) compared the machine to a new god that replaced the traditional ones, first in Europe and now in all parts of the world. To be industrialized means to be westernized, and that is why in the 10th anniversary of the proclamation of the monarchy another intellectual congratulates Albania for “entering in the rhythm of mechanical civilization and the technical progresses of the century” (Koça, 1999, p. 40). In other words, Albania is bridging the gap that separates her from the industrially advanced Europe.
But why there is such a gap between Albania and Occident, or, who is to blame for preventing Albania to be Occident? According to the Albanian young intellectuals in the interwar period, the main culprit is the heritage of the Ottoman Empire. They asserted that the lasting influence of the Ottoman invasion was the “pollution” of the Albanian, otherwise a European type, with Oriental influences. That is why they considered Albania to be in the midst of a battle between the “Occidentals” and “Orientals”. According to one literary critic, the Occidental type includes those few who works hard and sacrifices himself for the good of the collectivity, whereas the Oriental majority includes those who lead an idle and egoistic life. The solidarity of Orientals, if it exists, is the solidarity of wolves, where each of them is always ready to attack his companions for his own interests (Maloki, 2003).

Who are the Albanian Orientals that are impeding the advancement of the country to European civilization? The young intellectuals directed their main attacks to the ministers and high ranking bureaucrats of the time, most of whom were long time and close associates of the king. According to the young intellectuals, these men of power were remnant of the old Ottoman system, and by consequence they had old and Oriental mentality and habits, which did not fit into a new European/Western Albania. For example, for Foqion Postoli, writing in the early 1920s, the majority of officials of Albanian government had an Asian mentality and they fought against everything that represents progress and Occidental civilization. His only hopes that the healthy minority of Western minded officials that still exists in their midst would overcome the majority (Postoli, 1990, pp. 321-322). The respective perspectives of Albanian Occidentals and Orientals are irreconcilable to one another:

The Oriental considers the anachronism of the present old society left behind by the Ottoman rule as the best of societies, as the most beautiful and most ideal society in the whole world; but the Occidental, the one who sees the world and our inner life with the eyes of a European, cannot be satisfied with the poverty and ignorance in our country (Shpuza, 1999, pp. 96-97).

These intellectuals were complaining that the administration of the state was in the hand of corrupted and conservative men, who knew only the cunning methods of Ottoman administration and were out of touch with the European realities. To appease these voices and to gain more internal support for his regime, King Zog in 1935 formed a new government with “liberal” young ministers. The “liberal” government of prime-minister Mehdi Frashëri was hailed in press by some intellectuals as the advent of a new era in Albania. But this experiment with ‘liberalism’ was short-lived. Because of internal security concerns, and external pressure from Italy,
which considered the new government too ‘anglophile’, the king decided after a while to return to his trusted aides and Frashëri government resigned after losing majority support in the Parliament (Fischer, 1996, pp. 258-260). The press freedom was further restricted. These were disappointing developments for the “young” intellectuals, who continued their battle in the press against the “old” bureaucrats for a while, till the invasion of the country by Italy.

Alternatives from right and left

In the 1930s some intellectuals thought that the “Occidentalization” of the country required a reorganization of the state and the political system of the monarchy in order to implement the desired reform. They began debating about political alternatives that would vitalize the existing “stagnant” institutions filled with “Oriental” bureaucrats. Still, most of them were careful to exempt the king from the open critiques and, indeed, to secure his approval and alliance for their projects.

The right-wing clash in Europe in 1930s was reflected in these debates of Albanian intellectuals. What is striking is the lack of voices calling for the establishment of liberal democracy in the country. Of course, liberal democracy could not be articulated freely in the press due to the pressure by the government censors, but other reasons existed as well. Most of the intellectuals thought that the country was not fit for liberal democracy, because of its backwardness, lack of strong middle classes, lack of proper education, lack of tolerance, etc. They feared that the establishment of pluralism would degenerate into anarchy. A timid defense of political liberalism was articulated by Branko Merxhani, who advised for a gradual and disciplined path of monarchy towards liberal democracy, first by establishing a responsible press, which would form sound public opinion; after that allowing the direct election of candidates by ballot only in the major cities and, only when the time was ripe, the rural (i.e. the majority of) population could be enfranchised (Merxhani, 2003, p. 409; Koka, 1985, p. 104). Even for his weak support of political liberalism in Albania, Merxhani attracted upon himself the wrath of other intellectuals; for example Krist Maloki called liberalism an “Oriental bazaar”, and he was in favor of an autocratic regime in Albania, like the one in Italy, or Austria at that time (Maloki, 2005, pp. 161-165).
As Albanians did not seem fit for liberal democracy, other alternatives were expressed in the press. More openly was articulated the right wing dictatorship, euphemistically called “enlightened dictatorship”, which according to its defenders was the Occidental political system of the 20th century. As for some of intellectuals inclined to the left, they hinted at a socialist revolution, although they could not articulate it openly, but which was implicit in their critique of Western capitalist society.

The most eloquent defender of the “enlightened dictatorship” was Ismet Toto, a young journalist and author who was very active in the 1930s. He articulated the aspiration of the youth for a European Albania, against the worldview of the old Oriental generation. Toto’s assumption was that the battle of Albanian young intellectuals was part of the world youth movement rebelling against the “ancient regime” (Toto, 1997, p. 56), and his conception has many similarities with the cult of the youth which developed in the fascist milieu in Italy (see Ledeen, 1972, pp. 3-25). Therefore, the main problem for his was how to organize the Albanian young people in the same way that Hitler and the Nazis organized the German youth in a disciplined whole (Toto, 1997, p. 57). The organization of the youth should be part of the creation of an organic and disciplined society: “A strong nationalist climate, a social reorganization, a discipline and arrangement of all the classes and their interests, a strong activity towards Occidentalism, this is the ideal Albania” (ibid., p. 70). All this can be accomplished only by a dictatorship with an Occidental outlook:

We want a powerful Albania, we want an organized Albania like the other states of Europe, and we want an advanced Albania. Enough with the Orient… And we ask for dictatorship, because only the dictatorship will awaken in the heart of the people these passions; only dictatorship will bring to enlightenment the Albanian masses; because only dictatorship will sanctify the feelings, will grant health and will Europeanize the fatherland of Kastrioti [15th century prince who fought the Ottomans, and considered as the national hero of Albanian nation] (ibid., p. 150).

According to him, and other supporters of “enlightened dictatorship”, liberalism was dead in Europe and the battle was waged between right and left dictatorships (ibid., p. 189; Koka, 1985, p. 61). As for the Albanians, they had never experienced democracy in their history, dictatorship was their permanent condition, thus the only question now was to give them an Occidental one (Toto, 1997, p.161, 175). As for the left dictatorship, there were no social conditions for its success in Albania and, moreover, Europe would never permit a “red dictatorship” in Albania: “unless, the whole Europe became communist, even if we became one million Lenins, we cannot make Bolshevik Albania” (ibid., p. 78).
Thus, the only alternative was a right dictatorship, like those of Italy and Germany, but adapted to the Albanian conditions. Toto called for the king, as the leader of the young generation, to proclaim the dictatorship and work for building a regenerated nation. But his hopes were not fulfilled, because the king did not support his views. Disillusioned from the failure of the “liberal” government in 1937, Ismet Toto joined in an unsuccessful coup d’etat led by his brother, the former minister of interior in Frashëri government and was captured by governmental forces and shortly afterward trialed and executed.

Intellectuals who sympathized with communism and Soviet Union, did not constitute a homogeneous group, either. They favored the modernization of Albanian state and society, for overcoming the “Oriental” past, but at the same time expressed concern for the plight of the Albanian peasants and workers. Within the limits of the free speech during the monarchy, they criticized the government and the combined rule of “Oriental” landlords and urban bourgeoisie. They were also critical of the imperialist fervor of the European states and worried about the dependency of Albania on fascist Italy. Some left publicists of the period were part of the clandestine communist groups.

In the 1930s, these intellectuals criticized the Occidental civilization, by focusing on two interrelated events in Europe: the economic crisis and the new imperialism of Italy and Germany. They highlighted the dire situation of the workers and peasants in Albania during the years of economic crises. Migjeni, in an ironic twist in one of his short stories, based on the life of common man in the city, pretended that at last the Albanian worker was equal to European worker, because both became unemployed: “So our worker wanders in the city roads. Looks for job. Like his colleagues in Berlin and London” (Migjeni 1998, p. 86). Nonda Bulka, a journalist, wrote in the same vein: “Do you consider a sign of civilization the wandering in the streets of London, New York, or Berlin, by millions of people demanding work or bread?” (Bulka 1980, p. 278).

Bulka and others observed the tense atmosphere of international relations in the middle of 1930s. In one article in 1935 he mocks the civilizing pretensions of the Occident, in the light of the Abyssinian war: “In the times of Noah used to live a great and civilized people, called “European people”. The men composing this people were divided in different nations, which quarreled like dogs with one-another. Precisely these peoples (who quarreled like dogs) decided to spread their civilization beyond Europe” (Bulka 1980, p. 335). In this way, Great Britain and France “civilized” hundred millions of Africans and Asians and taught them English and French and sold these
peoples commodities they did not need. Now comes Italy into the race and Britain says to her: “It is not human to rule another people. In the name of civilization you are not allowed to invade Abyssinia” (Bulka 1980, p. 336). Migieni in the story “Bogy” allegorically pointed to the fear of communism, which he said the Western governments were using to control their restless peoples and to open the way to fascism: “The bogy has spread his legs from one side of the continent to the other... Fear of bogy they use like mothers who frighten the children in order to stay in peace, instead of asking why the children cry” (Migjeni 1998, pp. 116-117).

The left intellectuals said that not everything could be borrowed from the Occident, when, according to them, the European bourgeoisie society was in a deep crisis, revealed by the Great Depression and the rise of fascism. One could appropriate the latest achievements in science and culture, which served to the whole people and not only to the learned intellectuals. Also the intellectual should turn to the reality of people and popular culture and should not deal with constructing abstract systems of thought (Koka 1985, pp. 284-285). At that time, Selim Shpuza asked if “it is right that intellectuals be busy with “perfectionism”, in a time when the majority of people live in darkness” (Shpuza 1999, p. 145). In other words, they were rejecting the bourgeois aspects of the European civilization as well as the capitalist system and devoted their energies to an alternative social system which would be modern and beneficial to the people at the same time. But the communist Albania after the World War II did not turn out to be precisely this system most of them wished.

**Conclusion**

The notion of “returning to Europe” has had a strong cultural appeal in the East European countries during transitions and many East Europeans look nostalgically at the interwar period as the time when their country was part, or at least was entering, Europe. In other words, “returning to Europe” is interpreted as “returning to history”, after the long communist “pause”. This nostalgia occurs among some intellectuals in Albania, too. During the contemporary debates about the ‘European’ identity of Albanians, the arguments advanced by intellectuals of 1920s and 1930s are uncritically accepted as indication of Western inclination of the Albanians. For example last year one could read a laudatory article about the “Occidentalism” of Ismet Toto, where there was no mentioning of his fascist sympathies (Jorgaqi, 2008). Likewise, one may find accusations against left-wing
intellectuals of the 1930s for using “Occidentalism” as a mask to hide their subversive activities that aimed at the establishment of a communist regime in Albania (Plasari, 2003, p. 12), thus not considering their articulation of “Occident” as part of a genuine effort on their part for establishing a modern Albanian society.

Despite the frequent occurrence of signifier “Occident”, one should be cautious when looking into the intellectual discourse of interwar period to find cultural guidance or inspiration for today’s process of integration to the “West”. One should recall that both communism and fascism were considered by many intellectuals at that time to be possible ways for advancing or regenerating the European civilization of the future. On the other hand, today’s integration of European countries to EU (and possibly NATO) depends foremost to the democratization, inalienable human rights and the establishment of the state of law, which are seen as means to overcome the effects and scars that totalitarianism left on the face of the continent and to ensure a future for European peoples that is different from the past
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Going toward the real independence of the central bank

Arjeta VOKSHI-ABAZI
Sulo HADERI
“A good central bank says “NO” to politicians”
The Economist. (1991)

Abstract

Monetary policy is the economic policy followed from monetary authority. In Albania the monetary authority is the Bank of Albania. The Bank of Albania (BoA) has to maintain price stability (Law on Bank of Albania). From 2001, the BoA has announced its goal to gradually substitute the monetary targeting regime with the new Inflation Targeting regime. In order to implement this regime there is need to fulfill some conditions, one of which is the independence of the central bank. Many economists have discussed about this issue and different definitions of the Central Bank’s independence have been given. The first section in this article, explains briefly various definitions of the independence of the central bank. The second section provides a comparative analysis of South-Eastern European central banks’ independence. In the last section of the article we analyze the situation in Albania, and calculate the governors turnover rate in an effort to draw up a conclusion (at least theoretical one) about the real independence of Bank of Albania. The last section answers the questions: Is the Bank of Albania independent? What type of independence is achieved? What should be improved to have an independent central bank?
Abstrakt

Politika monetare është politika ekonomike që realizohet nga autoriteti monetar i një vendi. Në Shqipëri, autoriteti monetar është Banka Qendrore e Shqipërisë që si objektiv të saj kryej me arsitet e stabilitetit të çmimëve (Ligji Për Bankën e Shqipërisë). Që nga viti 2001, Banka Qendrore e Shqipërisë ka dekluar se ka si qëllim që të zëvendësojë gradualisht regjimin e shënjestrimit monetar me regjimin e Shënjestrimit të Inflacionit. Por, që të vihet në zbatim ky regjim duhet të plotësohen një sërë kushtesh. Ndër këto kushte është edhe pavarësia e bankës qendrore. Pikërisht pjesa e parë të këtij punimi do të paraqesë përkufizimet e llojeve të ndryshme të pavarësisë së bankës qendrore që janë dhënë nga ekonomistë të ndryshëm. Pastaj në pjesën e dytë të përpjekjeve për të paraqesë përkufizimet e llojeve të ndryshme të pavarësisë së bankës qendrore të një sërë vendës të Evropës Juglindore. Në pjesën e fundit të përpjekjeve për të paraqesë përkufizimet e llojeve të ndryshme të pavarësisë së bankës qendrore të një sërë vendës të Evropës Juglindore.
пресметуваме владината стапка на промет со цел да изведеме заклучок (барем теоретски) за вистинската независност на Банката на Албанија. Во последниот дел се дадени одговори на прашањата: Дали Банката на Албанија е независна? Каков вид на независност се достигнува? Што треба да се подобри за да имаме независна Централна банка?

Introduction

The independence of the central bank is a very important issue. If the central bank is really independent, it is easier to achieve and maintain price stability, or in other words, to control inflation. Two main reasons influence the non-achievement of the price stability: (i) politicians try to push the economy beyond the limit of the calculated and allowed capacities; (ii) governments pressure central bank to finance the budget deficit. On the other hand, the implementation of the Inflation Targeting regime is necessary for having an independent central bank. For these reasons, in the first section of this article we briefly explain the different definitions of the independence of the central bank that are given from different economists. Afterwards, we make a comparative analysis of South-Eastern European central banks’ independence. In the last section of the article we analyze the situation in Albania. We calculate the new value of governors turn over rate that is one of the indicators of real independence of the central bank. In the last section we make an effort to answer questions like: Is the Bank of Albania independent? What kind of independence is achieved? What should be improved in order to have an independent central bank?

Literature review

Barro and Gordon (1983) were the first economists that seriously studied the concept of central bank independence. They based their work on a previous study of Kidland and Preskot (1977). Barro and Gordon argued that the central bank tries to maximize the welfare of the society through the control of inflation rate.

Bade and Parkin (1985) argued that if a central bank was free of direct political pressure, it would achieve lower and more stable inflation. They created an “independence” index and calculated it for 12 countries and
concluded that the degree of financial independence of the central bank was not a significant determinant of inflation (in the post Bretton Woods period).

Grill, Masciandaro and Tabellini (1991)\(^1\) created two indexes of central bank independence, one based on economic measures and one based on political measures. Grill argues that someone can clearly distinguish between the political independence and the economic independence of the central bank. A central bank is politically independent if it can choose its main objectives without taking into consideration the government’s goals. The economic independence is the capability of central bank to choose and implement all the policies and instruments that enable the achievement of these objectives. They found out that the economic independence is negatively related to the inflation rate. Also, the political independence had a negative correlation to inflation rate but it was not statistically significant. Alesina and Summers (1993) found out that the more dependent a central bank, the greater the variability in inflation rate.

Cukierman (1992) used not only legal measures of central bank independence, but also he used practical measures such as the frequency of the turnover of central bank governors and questionnaires completed by qualified staff at the central bank.

For Issing (1993) the independence of a central bank depends on the individual factors that determine the personality of the senior managers of the central bank. To measure personal independence there are used criteria like: how the governor and the members of the supervisory council of the central bank are elected, the period of time that they stay in these positions, the possibility of suspension and the procedures followed in this case.

Bakas (1994-95) suggests that the study the independence of the central bank must take into consideration three main aspects. *Institutional independence*, which refers to the position of the central bank in the hierarchy of the governmental system and to the procedures followed to appoint and dismiss its chief executive officers. *Functional independence*, which refers to the power and the capacity of a central bank to define and implement the monetary policy. *Financial independence*, which refers to the discretion of a central bank in accumulating and allocating the funds.

Fisher (1995) divides the autonomy of objectives from the autonomy of instruments.

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\(^1\) They studied even the relation between central bank independence and economic growth. They found no correlation between central bank independence and growth rate of real output. The same conclusion was drawn even from Cukierman, Kalaitzidakis, Summers and Webb (1993).
Luca Papi (2005) tried to define different aspects of the central bank independence. He defined the political independence as the possibility of central bank to fulfill independently from the political authorities the delegated objectives. The main elements of political independence are the institutional, objectives and instruments independence. Instruments independence is made up of two components: operational independence and financial independence.

The last kind of independence is related to the operational independence are: regulatory independence and surveillance independence.

**Independence of South Eastern Europe central banks and European integration**

Central Bank independence is especially important for the countries that want to access the European Union and the European Monetary Union because they have to meet certain criteria that guarantee the independence of their central banks.

Preconditions for European Monetary Union integration are: functional independence of central bank, institutional independence of central bank, personal independence, financial independence, independence in the central bank budget preparation, and the non – financing of the state budget. Further adoptions, according to Article 109 of Maastricht Tractate for total legal integration in Euro system, deal with the adjustment of monetary policy instruments, with foreign currency reserves management and preservation, etc.

The main objectives of South Eastern Europe central banks generally match the Maastricht criteria; the main objective of most of the central banks is price stability. So we can say that most of the central banks have achieved the functional independence.

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2 Papi referred to both vertical and horizontal aspects of delegated attributes.
3 Bakas gave the same definition as Papi for this type of independence.
4 Central bank is the authority that determines its own priorities through the selection of the objectives.
5 This definition is closely related with the concept of operational independence.
6 This is the first rule of Basic Principles of the Committee of Bazel for an effective banking supervision.
7 Bakas gave the same definition as Papi for this type of independence.
8 It defines the possibility to draw regulation and procedures for the financial sector.
9 This type of independence guarantees the sustainability and stability of financial sector. It includes leasing, regulatory supervision, licensing and revocation of licenses, and crises administration.
Table 1. Functional independence of central banks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Central Bank</th>
<th>Main objectives</th>
<th>Secondary objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ECB</td>
<td>Maintain price stability</td>
<td>Supports European Community economic policies that do not affect the objective of price stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>Achieve and maintain price stability</td>
<td>other objectives like exchange rate stability will not obstacle achievement of price stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia – Herzegovina</td>
<td>Achieve and maintain national currency stability..... by applying a currency board arrangement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>Contribute to the maintenance of the stability of the national currency…</td>
<td>will support economic policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Achieve and maintain price stability</td>
<td>will support economic policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>Maintain price stability</td>
<td>will support financial stability and economic policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>No conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>Ensure and maintain price stability</td>
<td>will support general economic policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>Achieve and maintain price stability</td>
<td>will support financial stability and economic policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Achieve and maintain price stability</td>
<td>will support economic growth and employment policies that do not interfere with the main objective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Euro zone model forbids the Central Banks European System to get instructions from other institutions or bodies, or from government’s
members\textsuperscript{10}. The European Central Bank members mandate is 8 years; minimum 5 years\textsuperscript{11} and they can not be reappointed.

According to the statute, the governor of a Central Bank can be dismissed only when he doesn’t accomplish his/her duties or when (s)he is a bad manager of the central bank\textsuperscript{12}. To avoid bad management, chief executive officers must have a high level of professional qualification\textsuperscript{13}.

Southeastern Europe central banks have \textit{a high level of institutional independence} because these banks generally are independent from other institutions in achieving their objectives. We say “generally” because the law of the central bank in Macedonia and the law of the central bank in Serbia states that the central bank must coordinate with the respective government for the achievement of its objectives. So, these central banks are not free to state their monetary policy.

Southeastern European central banks match one of the conditions of the Tractate - the mandate of the governor and the mandate of Supervisory Council members is generally above 5 years, and the governor and chief executive officers must be experienced and have academic titles. The laws determine the incompatibility of the position of Supervisory Council member with other functions. Also the governor is dismissed when he commits a crime, makes fake declarations, misses the Council meetings, etc.

The laws of Southeastern Europe countries are somewhat problematic when we discuss about the Supervisory Council members dismissal. Some of the articles must be reduced and simplified. Financial independence is made of two components: limits to government lending and budgetary independence. Some of the countries that we are studying prohibit direct credit to the government. So, they have solved the problem of financial independence. Albania and Serbia do not prohibit direct credit to the government\textsuperscript{14}. Croatia, Albania, Montenegro and Serbia do not prohibit indirect credit to the government\textsuperscript{15}. Only Bosnia – Herzegovina prohibits both direct and indirect credit (they have currency board). Also to the ownership and management of the budget is a very important component. In Albania, Croatia, Macedonia and Romania the capital is owned by the state. In table 2 is given the information about the second component (budgetary independence). There can be noticed that the central banks allocate part of their profit to the reserve fund. These banks also allocate the residual profit to government budget.

\textsuperscript{10} Article 108 of Tractate and article 7 of Statute
\textsuperscript{11} Articles 11 (2) and 14 (2) of the Statute
\textsuperscript{12} Article 14 (2) of the statute
\textsuperscript{13} Article 112 (2) (b) of Tractate and article 11.2 of statute
\textsuperscript{14} Direct crediting is allowed in special cases and it is well controlled
\textsuperscript{15} Central banks can buy treasury bonds in the secondary market.
### Table 2: Financial independence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Reserve fund allocation</th>
<th>Allocation of residual profit</th>
<th>Coverage of potential losses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>25 percent of profit</td>
<td>Residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>net losses covered by Ministry of Finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia – Herzegovina</td>
<td>40 percent of leftover profit</td>
<td>60 percent of residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>net losses covered by general reserve or to capital account and residual is covered by Ministry of Budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>25 percent of profit</td>
<td>Residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>net losses covered by general and special reserve, and residual covered by Ministry of Finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>defined limits</td>
<td>Residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>losses covered by general reserve residual covered by state budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>20 percent of net income allocated to general fund</td>
<td>Residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>Losses covered by general reserve residual covered by state budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>till 5 percent of the sum of credit balance</td>
<td>Residual profit to state budget</td>
<td>Losses covered by general reserve or by capital procurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>20 percent of profit surplus because 80 percent of the profit goes to the budget</td>
<td>residual to statutory reserves, own financing sources and employees profit-sharing scheme</td>
<td>Losses covered by special revaluation account and statutory reserves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>30 percent of profit</td>
<td>Profit surplus in budget</td>
<td>Losses covered by special reserves Residual covered by state budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>20 percent of profit</td>
<td>Profit surplus in budget</td>
<td>no conditions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Sandra Dvorsky “Central Bank Independence in Southeastern Europe with a view to European integration”, *International Journal of Monetary Economics and Finance, Volume 1, Number 3 / 2008* Pages: 302 - 328*
Losses (negative profit) of central banks are covered from reserve fund or from Ministry of Finance; it depends from the situation and the law of each country. When we talk about financial independence we must mention a positive fact. Southeastern Europe central banks are free to determine and approve their budget and these banks can manage it independently from the Council of Ministers, but there are some problems. Maastricht Tractate prohibits the state to be the owner of central bank capital, profit disbursement in the state budget, direct credit to government and losses coverage.\textsuperscript{16}

The president and the members of the European Central Bank must report to the European Parliament when commissioners or parliament members request for the report\textsuperscript{17}. So, accountability of European Central Bank (ECB) is a legal and not a political obligation. ECB must send to the European Parliament, to the European Council and Commission the annual report on the activity of European System of Central Banks and on the monetary policy. (article113 (3) of Tractate, article 15.3 of Statute). Discussions of Governing Council of ECB are confidential and can be presented to the public only if the Governing Board decides that. Southeastern Europe central banks must report in their respective parliaments and these banks publish periodic reports of monetary policy.

These central banks must increase the level of transparency and this will further help in increasing the real independence that is different from legal independence.

\section*{Albanian Case}

\textit{Legal independence}: In the recent years, the law on the Bank of Albania has been amended several times and these amendments provided a modern legal framework. The changes contributed to the increase of the legal independence of the Bank of Albania. During the last decade, the elements of legal independence (management, policy formulation, final objectives, lending constrains) have been improved time after time. The coefficient of legal independence of Bank of Albania is high but there is still need for improvements, and it doesn’t indicate that the coefficient of \textit{real} independence is high. The law on Bank of Albania is good enough but in order to become a member of European Union there is needed a better

\textsuperscript{16} Must be very clear who is responsible for central bank loss financing
\textsuperscript{17} Article 113 (3) of Tractate
approximation of this law with *acquis communautaire*. The National Plan of implementation of MSA gives the main directions that must be followed to increase the independence of the Bank of Albania.

*Personal Independence:* All the versions of the law on Bank of Albania respected the criteria of the duration of the mandate of the governor and the members of its staff. Even in the last law on Bank of Albania (2002) the mandate of the governor is 7 years, so it is bigger than the mandate of political parties that win the elections. The law matches the Maastricht criteria and is in line with the statute of ESCB.

The governor may be dismissed only for nonpolitical reasons that are related with the ethics of work behavior or the conflict of interest. In these concerns, the law is not very clear and this is a handicap of this law. According to the theory, this shows a high level of independence of BoA. Cani and Baleta (2002) emphasized that the independence is negatively influenced by the fact that the governor dismissal is a competence of the parliament. In practice, during the transition period, the substitution of the governor of BoA is done very easily. In order to increase personal independence, the law on Bank of Albania must change. Article 44 of the law on Bank of Albania gives the number of the members of Supervisory Council that is 9, 5 proposed from the parliament, 2 deputy governors, the governor and 1 member proposed from the government. Cani suggests that, it is better to reduce the number and leave only 5 members that are proposed from the parliament.

*Institutional Independence (formulation of monetary policy):* The primary objective of Bank of Albania is the price stability. For this reason BoA has the right to draw, approve and implement the monetary policy. Also, during its normal functioning, it is independent from any other institution. But the situation has not always been as good as it is now. The first law on Bank of Albania (1992) didn’t mention the independence in drawing up the monetary policy. BoA was independent only in implementing monetary policy. In 1997, the law on Bank of Albania was updated and from that year the BoA is independent in both drawing up and implementing the monetary policy. The Constitution is evasive in defining clearly the independence of the BoA because the drawing up and the approval of monetary policy can be done even from other institutions. This is an indicator that the independence of the BoA is not 100percent sure. The Constitution will be amended in 2010 but

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18 The duration of political mandate is 4 years.
19 European Standards of Central Banks
20 Bank of Albania
till then we can’t say that the BoA is independent. The constitution states that: “The Bank of Albania has the exclusive right to independently implement the monetary policy....” So it is clear that the BoA is independent to choose the instruments of monetary policy, but the policy formulation independence is not clearly stated. The constitution doesn’t allow (but it doesn’t even prohibit) the exclusive right of the BoA to formulate the monetary policy. Article 161 must be improved because, as we argued above, it is very important to clearly specify the institutional independence of the BoA.

IMF is another factor that influences the drawing up of monetary policy. The presence of IMF has determined the BoA’s monetary policy to a large degree, but not completely. IMF helped to set quantitative constrains. IMF has always stressed the importance of real and legal independence of BoA. Even the amendments of the law on the Bank of Albania are prepared based on the models recommended by IMF.

**Objective Independence:** At the beginning of the transition period, the main objective of the BoA stated in the law of 1992 was “to maintain domestic and foreign value of national currency”. After the amendment of 1996, the main objective of BoA is “to achieve and maintain price stability”. The intermediate objective is the growth rate of money base (M3). Luçi (2005) concludes that during the transition period the correlation between M3 and inflation was very weak. The BoA gradually redefined its main objective. First of all, it announced the inflation objective in the form of an interval from 2percent to 4percent. In 2006, the BoA announced a new inflation target. It is 3percent with a deviance of ± 1percent. But, the BoA has the right to follow even secondary objectives (incitement, based in the market principles, of preservation of liquidity, payment capabilities and normal functioning of banking system) that do not osculate the main objective.

**Instruments independence:** De jure the BoA is independent in the choice of the instruments of monetary policy. During the past decade, the BoA’s decision on the instruments to be used was conditioned even from historical factors, as the lack of financial markets. At the beginning of the decade BoA used direct instruments. After the first phase, these instruments lost their effectiveness. This happened because the limits were not respected. Another factor was the development of the informal sector that decreased the credit

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21 National currency of Albania is called LEK
22 Law on “Bank of Albania” 2002
23 Direct instruments were: credit limit for commercial banks, minimal interest rate applied from state owned banks.
demand of the banking system. The reaction of the market toward the change of the administrative interest rate was also very weak. For these reasons the BoA decided to use the market instruments that are affected from the fix rate of REPO. The BoA has decided on the exchange rate regime. It chose the flexible exchange rate regime since at the beginning of the transition period it was quite impossible to implement fixed exchange rate regime because of the low level of foreign currency reserves and a very big deficit of the balance of payments.

**Financial independence:** When discussing about government’s borrowing, the law on the Bank of Albania is not strict. During the ‘90s the maximal level of government borrowing was 15 percent and the maturity was 1, 3 and 6 months. Actually, the credit ceiling is reduced (5 percent of the average revenues of the budget for the last 3 years). Dvorsky (2007) thinks that this is a handicap of the Albanian law. The existing law includes the limitation of the category of secondary market assets. Reading carefully the law on the Bank of Albania we can notice that the way the profit of the bank is allocated provides another possibility to monetize the budget deficit. The law states that part of the profit will be used to cover (buy) government’s bonds. The law on the Bank of Albania should prohibit public sector direct financing, prohibit the overdraft and all other ways of public institutions crediting. It should also prohibit the direct purchase of every type of public debt instrument from Bank of Albania. For this reason, in the article 30 of the law on the Bank of Albania it is necessary not to include “except cases foreseen in the law”. Even points 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 of this article, that allow direct financing of budget deficit in special cases, must not be part of.

**Real independence:** What is the real situation of the independence of Bank of Albania?

Real independence is not equal to legal independence. It relates to the standardization of the behavior. Even in Albania it is difficult to approximate these two indicators.

Cani and Baleta (2002) measured the real independence of BoA and one of the indicators that they used is the governors’ turnover rate. When the mandate of the governor is 8 or more years this indicator gets the maximum value. In Albania, till 1996 the mandate of the governor was 6 year. Then, it became 7 years. This fact shows a high level of real independence of BoA, but till 1997 the real average mandate was 18 months instead of 84 months.

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24 Only in 1996 the maturity goes in 1 year.

25 Law on “Bank of Albania: article 10.1; in the past this part of the profit was used to cover the bank’s loss.
of a full mandate. Based on the calculations, at that period this ratio was 0.48 (see the table below).

Table 3: Governors turnover rate in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Governors</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Turnover Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>Ilir Hoti (May 92 – September 93)</td>
<td>16 months</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dylber Vrioni (September 93 – December 94)</td>
<td>15 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kristaq Luniku (December 94 – April 97)</td>
<td>40 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qamil Tusha (April 97 – August 97)</td>
<td>5 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shkëlqim Cani (August 97 – September 2004)</td>
<td>84 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ardian Fullani (October 2004 - ...)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cani, Sh., Baleta, T. “Elementet e pavaresise se bankes qendrore”. Material diskutimi Nr.1/9913

This very high rate was mainly the consequence of the political instability that characterized our country during 1997 and not of the limitations of the legal framework. But, exploring the other side of the coin, it can be argued that sometimes a low governors’ turnover rate is not an indicator of high level of real independence. Cani (2008) suggests that a governor may prolong his/her stay because he has toady behavior. If we recalculate the turnover rate of governors in this period, this rate decreases from 0.48 to 0.40. This is a good sign because according to this indicator we can conclude that the level of the real independence of the Bank of Albania has increased.

26 In 1997 we had 3 different governors
Table 4: Governors turnover rate in Albania (re-estimated)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Governors</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Turnover Rate</th>
</tr>
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<td>5 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shkëlqim Cani (August 97 – September 2004)</td>
<td>84 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ardian Fullani (October 2004 - ...)</td>
<td>60 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ calculations

Another indicator that measures the real independence is the indicator of governors’ change within 6 months from the elections. In Albania the governor was changed only after the elections of 1992 and the election of 1997. In 1992 Albania created its Central Bank two months after the political election and in 1997 Albania experienced a very difficult period. A new political party won the elections and it approved a new law on the Bank of Albania. For this reason, they needed a new governor. So, the indicator mentioned above shows a good level of real independence.

Another factor that is important in defining the real independence of the central bank is the accountability and transparency of Central Bank. Responsibility and transparency are very important for the achievement of real independence. For this reason, they have been taken in consideration from the BoA, but more work is needed to achieve a good level of responsibility (accountability to the public for the monetary policy). This must be followed by transparency increase. Many authors believe that the achievement of the main objective increases the confidence of the public on monetary policy. They think that objectives like internal and money reserves (government borrowing) are not transparent. Imagine publishing a report about these objectives. Can the people create a clear idea about what the inflation rate is expected to be in the future? Is it better to wait and see the results of the policy and than to convince the public for the advantages of a

\[27\] In that year Albania had a high level of political instability caused mainly from the fall of pyramids.

\[28\] Shkëlqim Cani was the first governor of Bank of Albania that finished his mandate of 7 years.
given policy? Cani (2008) suggests that a higher transparency level will increase the monetary policy efficiency and transparency through its impact (effect) on the expectations of economic agents. Also a well informed public may help the Central Bank in the case of a conflict with the government. The high level of transparency and responsibility is positively related to the increase of central bank reputation.

Even the implementation of Inflation Targeting Regime requires a high level of central bank transparency. One of the elements that may increase the level of transparency is the Supervisory Council meetings results publication. Article 50 states that these results are confidential. For this reason Cani (2008) recommended to change this article.

Conclusions

The literature review suggests that different economists give different definitions on the central bank independence. But the most important thing is that they all agree when they discuss about the real independence. They measure it with different indicators but the most important is that they draw the same conclusion. Having a good law 29 on central bank is a plus but it isn’t enough. If this law is left apart than central bank isn’t independent.

In the comparative analysis of Southeastern Europe central banks’ independence we noticed that there are a lot of problems. We analyzed four kinds of independence and we concluded that Albania has a high level of legal independence, but still there are problems with financial independence. For these reasons, we recommended some improvements.

The first law on Bank of Albania was approved in 1992. It was a problematic law and it was amended 3-4 times. Nowadays, the law is relatively good, and it can guarantee the independence of the Bank of Albania. The situation with the real independence is a little bit different. One of the indicators used to measure the real independence is the governors’ turnover rate. In Albania this indicator is 0.48. It is relatively high and it shows that Albania suffers from other “diseases”. These problems are mentioned in the last section of the paper and we think that there is still a lot left to do before we can say that we have a real independent central bank.

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29 Good law is a law that guarantees the political, instruments and objective independence.
Literature


2. Banka e Shqipërisë “Strategjia e Bankës së Shqipërisë”

3. Banka e Shqipërisë Ligji nr. 8269 datë 23.12.97 ” Për Bankën e Shqipërisë”


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An Empirical Investigation into the Capital Structure Determinants of Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies

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Abstract

In this article we sought to analyze some factors influencing companies’ leverage. We have selected two samples. The first one is from Macedonian non-financial companies registered on Macedonian Stock Exchange covering the period of 2005-2007 and comprised 32 listed companies. The second one is from Slovenian non-financial companies registered on Ljubljana Stock Exchange covering the period of 2005-2007 and comprised 18 companies. The data used for the empirical analysis were derived from companies’ annual reports. We analyze whether decisions of companies concerning the leverage are in conformity with the theoretical expectations proclaimed in previous studies. Profitability, tangibility, size, growth rate and non-debt tax shield are used as independent variables, while leverage is the dependent variable.
Profitability was confirmed relevant determinant for Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies.

Tangibility, size, non-debt tax shield, and growth were confirmed not to have effect in capital structures decisions for Macedonian listed companies, and just growth was confirmed not to have effect in capital structure decisions for Slovenian listed companies.

The results are consistent with implications of “Pecking order theory” and “Static-trade off theory”.

Key Words: Capital structure, listed companies, leverage.

Abstrakt


Profitabiliteti u kërkoi determinante relevante për kompanitë e listuarat në Maqedonisë dhe Slovenisë.

Trupëzimi, madhësia, kursimi fiskal dhe rritja u konfirmuaj që nuk kanë efekt në vendimet e strukturës së kapitalit për kompanitë e listuarat në Maqedonisë, dhe vetëm rritja u konfirmuaj që nuk ka efekt në vendimet e strukturës së kapitalit për kompanitë e listuarat në Slovenisë. Rezultatet janë në harmoni me implikimet e teorisë “Pecking order” dhe “Static-trade off”.

70
Апстракт


Податоците кои се користени за емпириска анализа се земени од годишните извештаи на компаниите. Се анализира дали одлуките што ги претемаат компаниите во врска со нивниот левериџ се во согласност со теоретските очекувања кои се прокламираат во претходните студии. Профитабилноста, големината, стапката на пораст, тангibiliноста, не-задолжената даночна заштита се користат како независни променливи, а левериџот е во функција на зависна променлива.

Профитабилноста се докажа како релевантна за Македонските и Словенските компании.

Се потврди дека тангibiliноста, големината, растот и не-задолжената даночна заштита немаат ефект во одлуките за структурата на капиталот за македонските компании, а само растот се потврди дека нема ефект врз одлуките за структурата на капиталот на словенските компании.

Резултатите се конзистентни со импиликациите на „Pecking order theory“ и „Static-trade off theory“.

Introduction

The theories of capital structure are among the most interesting in the field of finance. They give explanations in questions like how much a company should borrow, what is relationship between capital structure and its company value, how a company chooses its capital structure, and so on. Even though there is no exact formula available for establishing optimal target debt and capital ratio, the empirical studies indicate that profitability, types of assets, taxes, differences across industries, uncertainty of operating
income, etc; should be considered when formulating capital structure policy. However, financial decisions for financing company’s activities face with lot of risks and uncertainties for realizing business objectives in circumstances when companies have insufficient financial resources (Osmani, 2007).

The subject matter of leverage decisions and the factors influencing these decisions has been attracting attention, since the pioneering work of Modigliani and Miller in 50’s. Modigliani and Miller (1958) stated that the valuation of a company will be independent from its financial structure under certain key assumptions. In their frictionless world there is no optimal capital structure since debt-equity decisions made by the company can be imitated by the investors. Studies developed since then have gradually incorporated new variables not considered by MM in that initial study and consolidating the idea that there should indeed be an optimal capital structure to maximize the firm value and that this optimal structure should be pursued through long-term policies (Martin et al., 2001).

The purpose of this article is to analyze the determinants of capital structure of Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies, in the light of the Static Trade-Off theory, Pecking Order theory and Agency cost theory. We attempt to find whether companies’ features are important concerning financial borrowing (companies view) or financial lending (banks view).

This article is organized as follows: Theoretical framework concerning capital structure and determinants of company leverage. The regression model and methodology. Analysis and discussion of results. Conclusions. References.

**Theoretical framework concerning capital structure and determinants of company leverage**

Since Modigliani and Miller published their seminal paper in 1958, the issue of capital structure has generated unforeseen interest among financial researchers. Hence it has fulfillment with new elements over the years, such as taxes (Modigliani and Miller, 1963; Miller, 1977), bankruptcy costs (Stiglitz, 1972; Titman, 1984), agency costs (Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Myers, 1977) and the information asymmetry (Myers and Majluf, 1984), the results of which suggested over time that the determination of the optimal capital structure should take into consideration a trade-off between benefits and costs derived from debts. Thus, theories suggest that the capital structure
affects company’s value. Among them, we are going to discuss briefly static trade-off theory, pecking order theory and agency cost theory.

Trade-Off theory, imply that company’s capital structure decisions involve a trade-off between the tax benefits of debt financing and the costs of financial distress. Cost of financial distress depends on the likelihood of distress and cost of bankruptcy. The implication is that there is no an optimum amount of debt for any individual company. Thus, optimal debt ratio (debt capacity) varies from company to company. Company having safe and tangible assets and plenty of taxable income have high debt ratio. According to Titman and Wessels (1988), tangible assets end up helping companies to accumulate debts, as if the investment proves a failure, the creditor will charge the guarantee offered. The trade-off theory also clarify that profitable companies take more benefit of the tax shield by debt financing because there is fewer chance for them to go bankrupt. Thus, profitable companies are capable to raise theirs debt ratio more than a less profitable companies.

Although the trade-off theory has dominated corporate finance circles for a long time, interest is also being paid to the pecking-order theory. Pecking order theory is proposed by Myers and Majluf (1984), by explaining the affects of the information asymmetries between insiders and outsiders of company. According to theory, companies follow a preferential order of financing sources, and that before seeking debts, they would use internal funds. Thus, the more profitable companies would tend to have fewer debts and conversely low profitable companies use debt financing due to insufficient resources generated internally.

When a company has debt, conflicts of interest arise between stockholders and bondholders. Because of this, stockholders are tempted to follow self-seeking strategies. These conflicts of interest, which are overblown when financial distress is incurred, impose agency cost of the company. Jensen (1986) argues that debt has to be paid back in cash. Therefore, the amount of free cash flow that could be derived by the manager is reduced by debt. Thus, debt serves as a mechanism to discipline the manager from encouraging in self-serving activities e.g. perquisite consumption, empire building, etc.
Determinants of company leverage

We use five explanatory attributes as proxy for the determinants of Macedonian and Slovenian companies’ capital structure and by using them as independent variables in our regression model, we attempt to analyze the reliance of leverage (dependent variable) on these proxies.

Following Rajan and Zingales (1995), we calculate leverage of company as the ratio of total liabilities to total assets.

The proxy used in this study to measure the company profitability is the ratio of earnings before tax (EBT) scaled by total assets.

The proxy used in this study to measure the value of tangible assets of the company is the ratio of fixed assets to total assets.

The proxy used in this study as measure to calculate the company size is the natural logarithm of revenues sale.

The proxy used in this study to measure the company growth rate is the percent change of total assets.

Wald (1999) uses the ratio of depreciation to total assets to measure non-debt tax shield. In this study, we use the same ratio, i.e. depreciation over total assets as proxy to measure non-debt tax shield.

We use also qualitative variable (dummy). Hence we give 1 for listed companies on Macedonian Stock Exchange and 0 for listed companies on Ljubljana Stock Exchange.

The regression model and methodology

Using panel data methodology, we attempt to analyze some factors that supposedly determine the level of leverage of companies. Panel data analysis is performed by regression model for both samples separately. It makes combinations of data in cross section with time series data, for treatment of the variables analyzed in this article. We use the same model for both samples. Generalized form of the regression model is:
\[ \text{LEV}_{it} = \alpha + \sum_{i}^{n} \beta_i X_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \]  

(1)

Where \( \text{Lev}_{it} \) is the dependent variable and it is the leverage of company (i) to the period t, respectively to the year 2005, 2006 and 2007.

\( \alpha \) is the intercept of the equation.

\( \beta \) is the slope coefficient for \( X_{it} \) independent variables.

\( X_{it} \) represents to five independent variables.

\( \epsilon \) represents the error term.

We can transfer equation (1) to more detailed equation (2) as below:

\[ \text{LEV}_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Profitability}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{Tangibility}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{Size}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{Growth}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{Non-debt tax shield}_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \]  

(2)

Where \( i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, 32 \) for the first sample (Macedonian companies) and \( i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, 18 \) for the second sample (Slovenian companies), and \( t = 1, 2, 3 \) for both samples.

The analysis uses a data panel originating from annual reports of the 32 companies listed on Macedonian Stock Exchange, respectively 18 companies listed on Ljubljana Stock Exchange. For analyzing data we have used the program Stata 10.

It is well known the fact that once regulatory bodies adopt a financial reporting paradigm, it becomes the guiding principle for accounting regulation (Strouhal, 2008). Since, in both countries from listed companies is required to prepare financial statements according to International Accounting Standards, data should not be a problem in our study. Different accounting practices in different countries make it difficult to compare accounting information (Deari, 2008).
**Hypothesis**

In this section we formulate three capital structure respective hypotheses, in light of Agency cost theory, Static Trade-Off theory and Pecking Order theory. First hypothesis is formulated for Agency cost theory. Second hypothesis is formulated for Static Trade-Off theory. Third hypothesis is formulated for Pecking Order theory.

We test these hypotheses to find which of those theories are relevant for Macedonian and Slovenian companies. Null hypothesis (Ho) is rejected if result is significant at 1 percent or 5 percent, otherwise alternative hypothesis (Hi) is accepted.

**Hypothesis 1**

H1: There is positive relationship between leverage and size.
H0: There is negative relationship between leverage and size.

**Hypothesis 2**

H2a
H1: There is positive relationship between leverage and size.
H0: There is negative relationship between leverage and size.

H2b
H1: There is positive relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.
H0: There is negative relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.

H2c
H1: There is positive relationship between leverage and non-debt tax shield.
H0: There is negative relationship between leverage and non-debt tax shield.

**Hypothesis 3**

H3a
H1: There is positive relationship between leverage and growth.
H0: There is negative relationship between leverage and growth.

H3b
H1: There is negative relationship between leverage and profitability.
H0: There is positive relationship between leverage and profitability.
H3c
Hi: There is negative relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.
Ho: There is positive relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.

Analysis and discussion of results

This section describes descriptive the statistics summary, testing hypothesis, regression tests and discussion of results. The determinants of capital structure for Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies are studied separately.

Descriptive statistics and analysis

Descriptive statistics includes the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for the period 2005-2007. The data contain the 32 Macedonian listed companies, respectively 18 Slovenian listed companies.

Table 1 shows that there is negative value at minimums values, i.e. some Macedonian listed companies have operated with losses during the period 2005-2007.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of 32 Macedonian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lev</td>
<td>.4169926</td>
<td>.2627791</td>
<td>.03723</td>
<td>1.86611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tang</td>
<td>.4876893</td>
<td>.2087219</td>
<td>.10442</td>
<td>.87425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit</td>
<td>-.009362</td>
<td>.173898</td>
<td>-1.07935</td>
<td>.15423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>5.847029</td>
<td>.6056435</td>
<td>4.19712</td>
<td>7.29599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nondebtax</td>
<td>.0333247</td>
<td>.0197036</td>
<td>.0087</td>
<td>.13181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>5.139136</td>
<td>19.29243</td>
<td>-44.21245</td>
<td>104.3237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Descriptive statistics of 18 Slovenian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lev</td>
<td>.4776516</td>
<td>.2209778</td>
<td>.103995</td>
<td>.990766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tang</td>
<td>.4586295</td>
<td>.1810682</td>
<td>.187142</td>
<td>.982299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit</td>
<td>.0538372</td>
<td>.0427116</td>
<td>.001213</td>
<td>.1756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>10.61323</td>
<td>.5908027</td>
<td>9.318569</td>
<td>11.70373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nondebtax</td>
<td>.0389734</td>
<td>.0204049</td>
<td>.001561</td>
<td>.106546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>39.37203</td>
<td>181.453</td>
<td>-35.70695</td>
<td>1338.776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A correlation analysis was performed to verify a possible association between and among the variables, in order to test whether there is any linear correlation between and among the variables. Collinearity explains the dependence of one variable to other. When variables are highly correlated they both express essentially the same information.

In general, independent variables having collinearity at 0.70 or greater should not include in regression analysis. Table 3 and table 4 show that highest correlation value is -0.5278 for Macedonian listed companies, respectively -0.5700 for Slovenian listed companies. Hence collinearity should not appear problem in our regression analysis.

Table 3: Correlation matrix-Macedonian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lev</th>
<th>Tang</th>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Nondebtax</th>
<th>Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lev</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tang</td>
<td>-0.2770</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit</td>
<td>-0.5278</td>
<td>0.0446</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>0.2113</td>
<td>-0.3253</td>
<td>0.0287</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nondebtax</td>
<td>0.0036</td>
<td>0.3827</td>
<td>-0.1796</td>
<td>0.0106</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>-0.0997</td>
<td>-0.1293</td>
<td>0.4320</td>
<td>0.0669</td>
<td>-0.1458</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To test hypotheses that we formulated above, we perform regression test. Results below (table 5 and table 6) show that while tangibility, profitability and non-debt tax shield are negatively correlated with leverage in Macedonian listed companies, profitability and non-debt tax shield are negatively correlated with leverage in Slovenian listed companies. But, growth and size are positively correlated for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies.

\[ P>|t| \] provides an alternative approach to reporting the significance or regression coefficients. The figures in columns below (table 5 and table 6) give the probability of obtaining the corresponding t statistics as a matter of chance, if null hypothesis \( H_0: \beta_{1,2,3,4,5} = 0 \) were true. A p-value of less than 0.01 means that the probability is less than 1 percent, which in turn means that the null hypothesis would be rejected at the 1 percent level; a p value between 0.01 and 0.05 means that the null hypothesis would be rejected at the 5 percent, but not the 1 percent level; and a p-value of 0.05 or more means that it would not be rejected at the 5 percent level (Dougherty, 2002). Usually, p-values of 0.05 or lower are considered low enough for researcher to be confident that the estimated is statistically significant.

Table 5 shows that p-value of tangibility is 0.075. This means that there are only 750 in 10,000 chances that the true coefficient of tangibility is actually zero. So, the coefficient of tangibility implies that it is statistically significant at the 7.5 percent level. Thus, we can say that based on p-values, in our model for Macedonian listed companies just profitability is statistically significant, and rest determinants are statistically insignificant. This is verified also by t-statistics.

Results in table 5 show that t-statistics for parameters estimated are lower than 2 in absolute values, except profitability. This is in conformity with rule
of thumb for using t-statistic which declares that if the absolute value of a t-statistic is greater than or equal to 2, then the corresponding parameter estimate is statistically different from zero.

For Macedonian listed companies we have $\beta_1 = -0.8711869$, $\beta_2 = -0.2229747$, $\beta_3 = 0.0706576$, $\beta_4 = 0.0015388$, and $\beta_5 = -0.2313482$, and the interception of equation is statistically insignificant.

**Table 5: Results of regression analysis-Macedonian listed companies**

|       | Coef.    | Std. Err. | t     | P>|t| |
|-------|----------|-----------|-------|-----|
| Tang  | -.2229747| .1238255  | -1.80 | 0.075 |
| Profit| -.8711869| .1432103  | -6.08 | 0.000 |
| Size  | .0706576 | .0387883  | 1.82  | 0.072 |
| Nondebt | -.2313482| 1.247757  | -0.19 | 0.853 |
| Growth| .0015388 | .0012747  | 1.21  | 0.231 |
| _cons | .1042437 | .2490291  | 0.42  | 0.677 |

Table 6 shows that p-values of tangibility, profitability, size, and non-debt tax shield are lower than 0.05, which in turn means that are statistically significant. Growth has p-value of 0.430 and it is higher than 0.05, which in turn mean that is not statistically significant. While tangibility, profitability, size, and non-debt tax shield have t-statistics greater than 2 in absolute values, growth has t-statistics lower than 2 in absolute value. Thus, Slovenian listed companies’ tangibility, profitability, size, and non-debt tax shield are statistically significant at the 5 percent level and growth is not statistically significant.

For Slovenian listed companies we have $\beta_1 = -2.896902$, $\beta_2 = 0.3533347$, $\beta_3 = 0.1794011$, $\beta_4 = 0.0000808$, and $\beta_5 = -2.829334$, and the interception of equation is statistically significant.
Table 6: Results of regression analysis-Slovenian listed companies

|     | Coef.     | Std. Err. | t     | P>|t| |
|-----|-----------|-----------|-------|-----|
| Tang| .3533347  | .1002947  | 3.52  | 0.001 |
| Profit| -2.896902 | .4620824  | -6.27 | 0.000 |
| Size | .1794011  | .0323512  | 5.55  | 0.000 |
| Nondebtax| -2.829334 | .9844137  | -2.87 | 0.006 |
| Growth| .0000808 | .0001015  | 0.80  | 0.430 |
| _cons| -1.325376 | .3310509  | -4.00 | 0.000 |

R-square (coefficient determination) measures the proportion of the variance jointly explained by the explanatory variables, and generally increases, if we add another variable to a regression equation. Adjusted R-square attempts to compensate for this automatic upward shift by imposing a penalty for increasing the number of explanatory variables.

The maximum value of R-square is 1. This occurs when the regression line fits the observations exactly. The closer the R-square is to 1, the “better” the overall fit of the estimated regression equation to the actual data.

With time series data, R-squared are often in excess of .9; with the cross-sectional data, .5 might be considered a reasonable good fit (Baye, 2005). In our case, R-square explains that 37.65 percent of the variation in leverage can be captured by independent variables for Macedonian listed companies, respectively 68.94 percent for Slovenian listed companies. The rest of leverage’s variance is due to factors other than determinants studied in this article.

F-statistic provides a measure of the total variation explained by the regression relative to the total unexplained variation. The greater the F-statistic, the better the overall fit of the regression line through the actual data. Regression that have F-statistics with significance values of 5 percent or less are generally considered significant. In our case, F-statistic shows that overall models are significant.
Table 7: Regression statistics-Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Macedonian listed companies</th>
<th>Slovenian listed companies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of obs</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.3765</td>
<td>0.6894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj R-squared</td>
<td>0.3418</td>
<td>0.6570</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing hypothesis

In this section we test hypothesis formulated above. We compare whether p-values are less than 0.01, between 0.01 and 0.05, and 0.05 or more.

Hypothesis 1-Agency cost theory

Hi: There is positive relationship between leverage and size.
Ho: There is negative relationship between leverage and size.

Since p-value of 0.072>0.05, means that the null hypothesis would not be rejected at the 5 percent level for Macedonian listed companies. Since p-value of 0.000<0.01, means that the null hypothesis would be rejected in favor of Hi at the 1 percent level for Slovenian listed companies.

Hypothesis 2-Static Trade-Off theory

H2a
Hi: There is positive relationship between leverage and size.
Ho: There is negative relationship between leverage and size.

Results here are same with Agency cost theory. It finds out that larger Macedonian listed companies tend to borrow less than smaller companies, and larger Slovenian listed companies tend to borrow more than smaller companies.

H2b
Hi: There is positive relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.
Ho: There is negative relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.
Since p-value of 0.075>0.05, means that the null hypothesis would not be rejected at the 5 percent level for Macedonian listed companies. On other hand, p-value of 0.001<0.01, means that the null hypothesis would be rejected in favor of Hi at the 1 percent level for Slovenian listed companies. This conform that while at Macedonian listed companies tangible assets are not considerable for borrowing, at Slovenian listed companies are.

H2c
Hi: There is positive relationship between leverage and non-debt tax shield.
Ho: There is negative relationship between leverage and non-debt tax shield.

Since p-value of 0.853>0.05 for Macedonian listed companies and 0.006<0.01 for Slovenian listed companies, means that the null hypothesis would not be rejected at the 5 percent level for Macedonian listed companies, respectively would be rejected at the 1 percent level for Slovenian listed companies.

Hypothesis 3-Pecking Order theory

H3a
Hi: There is positive relationship between leverage and growth.
Ho: There is negative relationship between leverage and growth.

Since p-value of 0.231>0.05, and 0.430>0.05 means that the null hypothesis would not be rejected at the 5 percent level for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. This conform that Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies with high growth rate borrow less those with low growth rate.

H3b
Hi: There is negative relationship between leverage and profitability.
Ho: There is positive relationship between leverage and profitability.

Since p-value of 0.000<0.01, and 0.001<0.01 means that the null hypothesis would be rejected at the 1 percent level for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. It implies that high profitable Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies borrow less. It seems that they prefer more internal funds and equity to finance their business activities compared to debt.
Hi: There is negative relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.
Ho: There is positive relationship between leverage and value of tangible assets.

In this case, null hypothesis would not be rejected at the 5 percent level for Macedonian listed companies and it would be rejected in favor of Hi at the 1 percent level for Slovenian listed companies.

Discussion of results

In this section we discuss obtained results in term of the signs and statistically significance of the coefficients for independent variables.

Table 8 and table 9 show obtained observed signs for five independent variables at Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. As we can see at Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies, profitability is negatively associated with leverage. This result is consistent with implication of Pecking order theory. This in turn means that listed companies follow a preferential order of financing sources, and that before seeking debts, they would use internal funds. Thus, the more profitable companies would tend to have fewer debts and this is consistent with tested hypothesis. It is in line with other studies as Rajan and Zingales (1995), Booth et al., (2002) and Gaud et al., (2005). Profitability was statistically significant for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. Consequently, we can claim that profitability does have significant role in making debt ratio and determining the capital structure of Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies.

Table 8: Expected and observed theoretical signs with independent variables–Macedonian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proxy</th>
<th>Static-trade off</th>
<th>Pecking</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profitability</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangibility</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-debt</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9: Expected and observed theoretical signs with independent variables–Slovenian listed companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proxy</th>
<th>Static-trade off</th>
<th>Pecking</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Observed sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profitability</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangibility</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-/+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-debt tax shield</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tangibility is negatively associated with leverage for Macedonian and positively for Slovenian listed companies, and it is consistent with implication of Pecking order theory. According to Gaud et al., (2005) a possible explanation for a negative relation between tangibility assets and leverage could be based on the assumption of Pecking order theory. The authors believe that companies with lower level of tangible assets are more subject to information asymmetry problems, and consequently, more willing to use debts to finance their activities. In our case this is true, because Macedonian listed companies are evaluated from lenders not just based on tangibility assets, but also from others perspectives, i.e. goodwill, etc. In a questionnaire realized with managers of Macedonian unlisted companies, major of them believe that for approving loans, in their business plan profitability and growth are onward than tangibility. Their access to financial market is difficult in terms of cost and technical difficulties. In the same questionnaire, in question if they are aware for financial market in Macedonia, major of them gave negative answers. For them is very important trade credit. Trade credit (difference between accounts payable and account receivable) is considered relevant source in business financing for Macedonian unlisted companies, i.e. small and medium businesses. Trade credit is the highest short-term financing and represents about half of short-term liabilities at trade businesses (Ciceri and Xhafa, 2005). Hence in our case we claim that while tangibility doesn’t have significant role in determining the capital structure of Macedonian listed companies, it has for Slovenian listed companies. Thus, we confirm tested hypothesis.

Size is estimated to have positive impact on leverage. It is not significant for Macedonian and significant for Slovenian listed companies. This is consistent with implication of Static-trade off theory and Agency cost theory for Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. Since our observations in case of Macedonian listed companies don’t have significant statistics, we
claim that size doesn’t have significant role for deciding the capital structure decisions. It is conversely for Slovenian listed companies.

Growth is positively associated with leverage for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. It is not significant at Macedonian listed companies and tested hypothesis cannot be confirmed. For Slovenian listed companies, growth is significant and tested hypothesis cannot be confirmed.

Non-debt tax shield is negatively associated with leverage for Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. Non-debt tax shield is found insignificant for Macedonian and significant for Slovenian listed companies. Thus, are verified tested hypothesis for Macedonian, but not for Slovenian listed companies.

**Concluding remarks**

This study sought to analyze some determinants of the capital structure decisions of some Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies in light of the Static-trade off theory, Pecking order theory, and Agency cost theory. We have selected five independent variables with purpose to see their effect on capital structure.

The analysis was conducted based on panel of data obtained from the published annual reports for the period 2005-2007.

The results are consistent with implications first of all of Pecking order theory and then of Static-trade off theory. Agency cost theory was not confirmed in our results, except size variable for both, Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies; and just tangibility for Slovenian listed companies. It seems that poorness of financial market and absence of bondholders in Macedonia are reflected in our study. Thus, they don’t prefer to issue bonds to borrow money. Macedonian listed companies prefer internal funds more than external funds. This explain that Macedonian listed companies prefer and have access to equity financing once they go public as most companies enjoy a favorable high stock price. Another possible explanation is the fact that the Macedonian financial market is still in an infant stage of development.

Profitability was confirmed relevant determinant for Macedonian and Slovenian listed companies. Creditors seem to be very careful in line of companies’ profitability. More profitable listed companies would tend to
have fewer debts. On the other hand, banks are the major or even the only source of companies’ external debt, and trade credit is very important source for unlisted companies. On average, Macedonian listed companies were confirmed to use fewer debts than Slovenian listed companies.

Tangibility, size, non-debt tax shield, and growth were confirmed not to have effect in capital structures decisions for Macedonian listed companies, and just growth was confirmed not to have effect in capital structures decisions for Slovenian listed companies.

Finally, we can conclude that Macedonian listed companies have to rely on equity financing rather than debt financing. In order to provide more financing opportunities for Macedonian companies, it is desirable for Macedonia to accelerate the development of its financial markets.

For future studies it might be interesting to focus on following aspects:

- Company age and industrial feature should be included as new variables,
- Extension of the data series and macro economic factors should be included, and
- Differentiating between long term and short term debt.
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Reviewers:
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Prof. Dr. Skender Kacupi
Health protection and safety of employees under the provisions of the Albanian legislation of labor and the legal responsibility for their violation

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Abstract

Health protection and safety at work is an important part of Albanian Labour Legislation, which includes measures for technical and hygiene-sanitary security at work. Determination of general obligation of the employer aims at protecting the employees’ health and security.

With regard to health security and protection, Albanian Labour Code foresees that the employer is responsible in cases of accidents and professional diseases considering that it should clearly define rules for technical security.

There are four Institutions entitled to control and take actions with regard to employers’ rights: Labour Inspectorate, Labour Office, Social Security Institute and Public Health Institute.

The aim of Law no.9634 dated 30.10.2006 “On State Labour Inspectorate” is to define the state controlling structures for the employees.

With the regard to employers’ responsibility, it should be mentioned that this might be administrative or penal, depending on the occurred violations which contain elements of criminal acts.
An important step forward in regulating labour relations is to strengthen inter-institutional cooperation and cooperation between employees, employers, trade unions and state and to further dialogue between those.

However, implementation of the Labour Law plays an important role in the stabilization of labour relations in general. An important role in this field is played by institutions such as Ministry of Labour and Equal Opportunities, National Labour Council and State Labour Inspectorate.

**Key words:** work, labour inspectorate, responsibility, security, employee.

**Abstrakt**

Mbrojtja në punë lidhur me shëndetin dhe sigurinë e punëmarrësve në punë është një nga institutet kryesore në legjislacionin shqiptar të punës. Ai përfshin këto elemente të rëndësishëm siç janë: respektimi i rregullave teknike dhe atyre higjeno-sanitare me qëllim sigurimin e shëndetit të punëmarrësve. Punëdhënësi është i ngarkuar të përmbushë një sërbë detyrimesh për të siguruar shëndetin e punëmarrësve në punë.

Lidhur me mbrojtjen e shëndetit dhe sigurisë së punëmarrësve, Kodi Shqiptar i Punës parashikon që punëdhënësi është i detyruar të respektojë detyrimin për të marrë të gjitha masat me karakter teknik dhe higjeno-sanitar në punë dhe ngarkohet me përgjegjësi në rastin e shkaktimit të aksidenteve në punë dhe sëmundjeve profesionale. Institucionet të cilat ushtrojnë kontroll të vazhdueshëm mbi respektimin e këtyre detyrimeve nga ana e punëdhënësit janë: Inspektoriati Shtetëror i Punës, Zyra Kombëtare e Punës, Instituti i Sigurimeve Shoqërore dhe Instituti i Shëndetit Publik.

Qëllimi i Ligjit nr. 9634 dt. 30.10.2006 “Për Inspektimin ne Pune dhe Inspektoratin Shtetëror të Punës, është pikërisht ngritja dhe funksionimi i strukturave të specializuara për të ushtruar kontrollin ndaj punëdhënësve.

Përgjegjësia me të cilën ngarkohen punëdhënësit në rastet e shkeljes së rregullave mbi sigurimin teknik në punë mund të jetë administrative ose penale në rastet kur ekzistojnë elementët e veprës penale dhe shkelja e ligjit është e rëndë.

Forcimi i bashkëpunimit ndërin institucional si edhe forcimi i bashkë-punimit midis punëdhënësve, punëmarrësve dhe organizatave sindikale dhe
shtetit, si edhe zhvillimi i mëtejshëm i dialogut social është një hap i rëndësishëm në rregullimin e mëtejshëm të marrëdhënive të punës.


**Fjalë kyçe:** punë, inspektoriati I punës, përgjegjësi, siguri, punëmarrës.

**Апстракт**

Заштитата при работа врзана со здравјето и сигурноста на работниците во работа е една од најбитните институции во Албанскоот законодавство. Таа опфаака овие најбитни елементи како сто се ; почитување на техничките одредби и тие хигиено санитарни со цел да се осигурува здравјето на работниците. Работодавацот е задолжен да исполнува ред обврски за да го осигурава здравјето на вработените во работа.

Во врска со заштитата на здравјето и сигурноста на вработените, Албанскоиот работен код покажува дека работодавацот е задолжен да ги почитува обврските и да ги земе сите мерки со технички и хигиено санитарен карактер во работа и се задолжува со одговорност во случај на причинување на аксиденти при работа и професионални болести. Институциите кои вршат континуирана контрола врз почитување на овие обврски од страна на работодавацот се: Државниот Работен инспекторат, Националната Работна канцеларија, и институтот на јавното здравство.

Целтна на законот број 9634 дата 30.10.2006 за Државниот инспекторат за труд е точно градење и функционирање на специализираните структури за да вршаат контрола над работодавачите, одговорноста со кое се задолжува работодавецот во случај на прекршок за техничка сигурност при работа може да биде административна или кривична во случај кога постојат елементи на кривично дело и прекршокот на законот е тежок.

Зајакнувањето на меѓуинституционалната соработка како и зајакнувањето на соработка меѓу работодавецот, работникот и
Introduction

The Constitution of the Republic of Albania and the Albanian legislation in general, have been inspired and perceived in accordance with the principles, aims and goals of international acts, proclaiming the protection of freedoms and human rights, in general and the protection of the rights of workers in particular as the foundation of the Albanian legal system.

Chapter IV of the Constitution, the sanction on "Freedoms and Economic, Social and Cultural Rights", respectively in articles 49-52 explicitly states that anyone is entitled to make his livelihood by lawful work that he/she has already chosen or accepted. Anyone is free to choose his/her profession, kind of job and his/her system of professional qualification. Employees are entitled to social protection at work and are entitled to freely join trade unions for the protection of their interests at work. The right of employees to strike that has to do with the working relationships, is guaranteed as well.

Article 52 of the Constitution expressly says that anyone is entitled to Social Insurance both at an old age or when he/she is incapable of working, under a system established by law.

Also, the Albanian State through Law No.8960, dated October 24, 2002, has ratified the European Social Charter as amended. In Articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, it is provided respectively:

- The right to labor,
- The right to fair working conditions,
- The right to safe and healthy working conditions,
- The right to have a fair salary,
- The right to get organized,
- The right to negotiate collectively.

The fact that our country is a ratifying country of the European Social Charter as amended, according to Article 122 of the Constitution, it is obliged to meet obligations and commitments stemming from the latter, as it constitutes a part of domestic legislation.

In addition, a whole range of conventions and recommendations of the International Organization of Labor, have been ratified by our country.

Our Code of Labor which entered into force in 1995 has been changed by law No 8085 in 1996 and by law No 9125 in 2003. Basic principles of this Code are: prohibition of forced labor; prohibition of discrimination; union freedom and fair remuneration.

I-Techinical Safety and health protection at work

Regarding safety and protection of health, it is provided that the employer is responsible in cases of accidents and occupational diseases, as he/she is the one who shall clearly establish the rules of technical safety. A work-related accident is considered the immediate injury of employees during the work or during a process relevant to work which results in the loss of temporary or permanent ability to work or even death. In cases of serious guilt of the employer, the latter should pay the difference between the damage and the remuneration taken by the employee through social insurances. Occupational diseases are called those diseases that constitute exclusively a characteristic of the work carried out by the worker or employee. Occupational diseases should include not only those presented in the list of diseases but also their complications and consequences.

When the employer fails to enforce the obligation to register the employee in the Social Insurance system, he must afford all costs made by the employee as a result of an accident or occupational disease, as well as all damages as a result of non registration.

The employer is obliged to take care of the hygiene of workplaces. Having consulted hygiene in the workplace with the employees, the
employer should take the necessary protective measures against special risks posed by substances and toxic agents, vehicles, transport of heavy loads, air pollution, noise and vibrancy, as well as risks in some branches of the economy, such as construction, civil engineering, mining and chemical industries.

Dangerous substances are those substances that in small concentration in the air are toxic, disturbing, corrosive, flaming, explosive, carcinogenic and teratogenic and mutagenic capable of causing death, injuries and mass fire at work environments.

The employer is required to install distinct signals in each workplace that poses a threat to life and health of employees.

When works pose particular risks, the employer should organize medical visits for employment and in the course of employment, periodically and under his own expenses.

Under Article 42 of the Code of Labor, special insurance measures and protection of health are determined by Council of Ministers’ Decisions.

After the changes made to the law No 9125 dated July 29, 2003, the employer must obtain permission from the inspector of work before his/her company starts its activity (even partially), prior to opening of work environment, and for every significant change in the work style, products used, vehicles and equipment, according to a procedure established by a decision of the Council of Ministers.

Under Article 41, protective measures set by the inspector of work should not bring non proportional costs in relation to the purpose of the activity.

The title on the qualification of employees and undertaking of protective measures by the employers, provides that the employer must inform employees about the risks associated with the work and must qualify employees to respect the requirements in the field of health, safety and hygiene. Training and information are made during the employment and are reiterated according to the relevant needs. The employer should explain the necessity of implementation of technical safety measures and hygiene to employees exposed to risks. Under Article 45 and 46, only qualified persons may drive mechanical and electrical machinery and other transport equipment.

In details, provisions of the Labor Code stipulate detailed measures about the hygiene of work environments. Under these provisions, the workplace
must be adapted to the nature of works that will be conducted there. Surface and volume of the workplace must be sufficient for the employee so that he can perform his own work without impeding circulation in the environment. Walls, floors, ceilings should be frequently cleaned to ensure cleanliness of the environment and prevent any risks of infection. Walls and ceilings should be checked periodically to eliminate and replace parts that pose risk to life and health of the employees.

The Council of Ministers or a body under its authorization determines the permissible limits for protection from air pollution, chemical classes, radioactivity, noise and vibrancy in the workplace. To avoid contamination from powders, in Article 49 it is provided that the work environment should have a ventilation system. Special devices that do not allow complete deviation of the production of harmful polluting materials to human health and body, must be used during the work processes.

If the intensity of the noise and the vibrancy in the work environment is too high every measure must be taken by the employer in order for the noise level, to be compatible with the health of employees through relevant depreciation or reduction at their very origin.

In accordance with the provisions on the use of insecure machinery and equipment in the workplace, no employee should use the machine without preliminary taking all necessary protective measures. Dangerous parts of machinery must be equipped with protective devices.

Code of Labor pays particular attention to the maintenance of the working tools. Under these provisions the employer must be careful that repair, maintenance and control of machinery be made only after the vehicles have stopped. In detail, the provisions of the Code of Labor regulate the working conditions. If the work is such that the employee must stay seated, he is made available a suitable working chair. If the performance of work requires a standing position, breaks no less than 20 minutes every 4 continuous working hours, should be provided. For pregnant women, it is provided that breakings are made every 3 hours.

If an employee needs to carry cargo during his work (as amended by Law No 9125 dated 29.7.2003) he should not carry a load greater than 55 kg. The employer is obliged to make available to employees all the necessary tools that facilitate carrying of the load. For women, the permissible load is up to 20 kg. Following the recent changes to the Law No 9125 in 2003, administrative or penal, depending on the occurred violations which contain
elements of criminal pregnant women and breastfeeding mothers, are not allowed to carry loads that might put the mother’s and child’s life at risk.

The Code of Labor provides a detailed regulation of the workplace environment so that placing of the materials or means of working do not prevent the free circulation in case of danger near exits, corridors and passages. Work locations on the floors or underground, should always have stairs with sufficient width.

Article 58 of the Labor Code provides that floors and raised platforms, footbridges and entrance into them, should be built, put and protected in such a way as to provide safety to employees who work in them.

Scaffolds, work and circulation platforms, footbridges with exits into space, should be equipped with protective devices at a height of 1.45 meters above the floor level and plinths at a height no less than 15 cm or through other means that provide the same protection.

The stairs should be resistant, the weight they can carry should be figured out and they should be equipped with stair steps on equal distance from each other and well fixed into the propping parts. They should have sufficient length to provide opportunity for safe prop.

Stair steps should be properly fixed in such a way that they can neither waver nor slip.

Article 60 of the Code of Labor provides that troughs, pits with water or reservoirs shall be built, placed and protected in such a way as to protect the employees from tumbles and risks that might be caused in case of removal of side partitions, filling, streaming out or sprinkling by different products which might cause burn of chemical origin. The employer should undertake all the necessary measures to avoid tumbles or slipping on land with slipping material, wet or with stains of different agents.

Lighting of the environment, of the workplace, should be sufficient to ensure normal performance of work.

Pursuant article 63 of the Code of Labor, the employer shall make analysis of the risk of fire or explosion and accordingly undertake the necessary measures to prevent them, taking into account the nature of the materials used as well as the work environment.
The environments, where materials that emit flammable vapor are processed and stored, shall have a ventilation system and the employer must not permit introduction of equipment that might cause sparkling.

Smoking is banned in such environments.

Each work environment must necessarily be equipped with an adequate number of fire extinguishers, which should be kept in good functioning state. Water and sand supplies must also be kept near workplaces that pose more risks.

The employer should make the employees aware of threats from fire and other explosions, as well as the use of protective means to prevent such threats and also show to the employees where the exit routes to be used in case of danger are.

Article 67 on protection against atmospheric conditions provides that when employees work in nature, site construction, public works, agriculture or industry, they should be provided to a shelter at a distance that could be freely used by the employees.

In addition, it is provided that the employer should put individual equipment for protection from risks at work as well as the necessary means to ensure the personal hygiene, water in sufficient quantities, soap, cleaning and wiping means at the disposal of employees. In every work environment, the employer is obliged to put the first aid box equipped with the necessary means and materials.

**II-Legal responsibility concerning the violation of the labor legislation**

Regarding the safety and the protection of health, the Code of Labor provides that the employer is responsible in cases of accidents and occupational diseases, as he/she is the one who should clearly establish the rules of technical safety. The responsibility of the employers may be either administrative or criminal depending on the specific violations established, some of which contain elements of criminal offence.

Specific inspection institutions have been brought into permanent effect serving to the full implementation of the labor legislation.
There are four state institutions entitled to control and act the protection of the employees’ rights: Inspectorate of Labor, Bureau of Labor, Institute of Social Safety and the Institute of Public Health.

The goal of Law no.9634 dated October 30, 2006 “On State Inspectorate of Labor “On State Labor Inspectorate”, is to ensure enforcement of the labor legislation by employers.

Tasks of the inspector under this law include:

a) Ensuring the implementation of the labor legislation, especially in terms of implementing the contract of employment, working conditions and protection of persons employed during the work, for instance working hours, salaries, insurances, health and welfare, employment of minors, etc.

b) Inspection of workplaces as many times and to the extent it is necessary to ensure effective implementation of provisions of the labor legislation.

c) Providing technical information and advising employers in relation to effective means for implementing the labor legislation.

d) Notifying the competent authorities regarding the shortcomings or the irregularities that are not covered by the provisions of the labor legislation.

Inspectors equipped with the relevant official document, have the following competences:

- To enter freely and without prior notice at any hour of the day or night in any workplace that is subject to inspection.
- To carry out any control, test or survey.
- To order the modification of installations of the company within a certain time period.
- To take steps of immediate implementation character in case of apparent risk to health and safety of the employees.

The employer is entitled to receive all the required information in relation to the labor legislation, especially the working conditions and safety at work and require a written opinion of the inspectorate regarding any particular issue relevant to the implementation of the labor legislation by the inspectorate.
Pursuant article 22 of this law, the employer is obliged to implement all provisions of the labor legislation. He should provide all the necessary conditions for safety at work and should regularly inform employees so that provisions of the labor legislation are implemented. Another obligation for the employer is to notify the inspectorate about accidents at work and cases of occupational diseases.

The law guaranteeing protection and safety at work provides for rights and obligations not only for employers and competent bodies of control, but also for employees.

The employed person is entitled to file a complaint with the inspectorate, if the employer violates a provision of the labor legislation. The employees are entitled to undergo trainings on safety measures and they should respect all the safety rules.

According to this law, the employers who are registered to be subject to regular inspection should annually report to the inspectorate regarding all jobs, the number of employees and classification of employees.

The inspectors and the local offices of inspectorate are obliged to submit periodic reports to the Inspectorate-General, and Inspector General shall an annual report on the work of inspection services, which he/she already directs.

Persons who violate or fail to respect the legal provisions, whose implementation is provided by inspectors, are subject to legal procedures without prior notice.

Article 31 of the Law no.9634 dated October 30, 2006 “On State Inspectorate of Labor” provides procedures and sanctions regarding the violation of provisions of labor legislation, whose implementation is provided by inspectors. In cases of violations of provisions of labor legislation, the relevant inspector can penalizes the violator with a fine totaling up to fifty times of the minimum salary. Meanwhile objection and prevention of inspectors in their job, constitutes infringement and is punishable by a fine ranging from ALL 5.000 to ALL 50.000.

A complaint might be filed against the decision of the inspector with the Inspectorate-General, within 30 days from the date of receiving the notice. Inspector General shall be accordingly expressed on this complaint within 20 days from the date of registering the complaint.
An appeal can be filed against the decision of the Inspector General within 30 days from the date of receiving the notice before the Court of First Instance in the district where the infringement has occurred. The decision of Inspector General which has become final constitutes an executive title. In case these decisions are not voluntarily executed, the Bailiff’s office executes them by sequestering a part of the infringer’s property in the value of the fine. This sequestration is temporary and lasts 6 months. If the deadline expires and the decision has not been yet executed, the confiscation of property is made in the value of the fine.

Article 202/5 of the Code of Labor, amended by law no. 9125 dated July 29, 2003, provides that any infringement is punishable by a fine. When the infringement is repeated, or at the expense of some employees, the overall amount of fines determined, will be no greater than the fivefold of the maximum fine.

One of the main obligations for the employer is to respect the form of the contract of employment. Failure to implement the provisions of the Labor Code in relation to the form of the contract concluded affects the validity of the contract and is reflected in the responsibility of the employer, under Article 202 / 2 of this Code.

When the infringement is committed by a person assigned by the employer to represent the company, the responsibility for paying the fine in this case is solitary.

If infringements of the provisions of this Code constitute a criminal offence, provisions of the Criminal Code are accordingly applied. Article 289 of this Code on the violation of rules at work, provides that death or serious injury of person’s health caused as a result of violation of rules related to work, production and service as established by law, Council of Ministers Decisions and the regulations for technical security and discipline, protection at work, hygiene, protection from fire, by persons assigned to respect these rules and undertake measures to implement them, is punishable by fine or imprisonment of up to ten years. When death or serious injury of the health of some employees is caused as a result of the criminal offence committed, then the sentence regarding the person responsible, is not less than five years.

The Criminal Code also provides for other criminal offences concerning the responsibility of the employer in some particular cases. Article 201 of this Code provides for air pollution from the emitted smokes, gases and other toxic and radioactive materials beyond the limits of the permissible norms.
In this case, when the offence does not constitute an administrative offence, it constitutes a criminal offence and is punishable by fine or up to two years imprisonment. When serious consequences to people’s life and health are caused, it is punishable by up to ten years imprisonment.

Transport of toxic and radioactive waste constitutes another criminal offence provided for in article 202 of the Criminal Code. This offence is punishable by up to five years of imprisonment and when serious consequences to people’s life and health are caused, it is punishable by up to fifteen years imprisonment.

In certain cases, the employer might even be responsible for the pollution of sea water, lakes, or cumulative and distributive network resources of water with toxic agents, radioactive or other substances that disrupt ecological balance. This constitutes a criminal offence according to article 203 of the Criminal Code, and is punishable by imprisonment up to five years and when serious consequences to people’s life and health are caused, it is punishable by five to ten years of imprisonment.

When the employer violates the rules set for possession, production, use, storage, transportation and sale of toxic agents bearing strong effect, he/she is charged with responsibility under the provisions of Criminal Code and respectively under article 281 and is punishable by a fine or up to two years imprisonment. Violation of the rules set for possession, production, use, storage, transportation and sale of explosive, radioactive or fuel material, constitutes a criminal offence under article 282 of the Criminal Code and is punishable by fine or up to two years imprisonment. When death or serious injury to people’s life and health is caused as a result of the criminal offence or serious material consequences are inflicted, is punishable by fine or up to ten years imprisonment.

Conclusion

Albania has officially expressed its application to join the great European family. This requirement dictates the prerequisite of a multi-dimensional effort, which will take place on time. Further regulations of labor relations along with approximation of our legislation with international standards, plays a very important role in the country’s democratization process.
Albania has ratified several conventions of the International Labor Organization and has to do more in this direction by selecting and deciding the priorities in ratification.

We may state that the today’s Labor Code has met the standards, but evidently it is not the most perfect one towards creating the desired space for a democracy of industrial developed relations according to the Western European model.

The Code of Labor regulates the working relationships, but not the labor market and other economic, political and social factors that influence it. When the labor market is in a high degree of informality, the Law should intervene to regulate it. The Law which regulates the working relationships should be more active and dynamic.

However, implementation of the Labor Code plays an important role in the normalization and stabilization of the labor market. State institutions such as the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, National Council of Labor and State Inspectorate of Labor, play a crucial role as well.

In conclusion, I would like to make some recommendations in relation to the labor legislation, particularly regarding the institution of protection at work as a very important constituent part of this legislation:

- Legislation on protection at work and on social protection need to adapt European standards.
- Code of Labor should provide greater protection for women, children and persons with disabilities.
- Provisions of the Labor Code that regulate the signing of collective contracts should create greater spaces in terms of cooperation among the parties concerned.
- Strengthening of cooperation between the Employers, Employees and the State along with further development among them in terms of the social dialogue, serves to a better viable harmonization of employer-employee interests and its approximation with international standards of labor.
- Strengthening of inter-institutional cooperation makes up an important step for further regulation of working relationships and improvement of legal framework where the cooperation among
executive institutions will rely. It is important to aim at increasing cooperation between tax authorities, the State Labor Inspectorate, the Institution of Social Insurance, Tax Police, Order Authorities, etc.

- Consolidation of the State Labor Inspectorate through structural reforms, expansion of control not only in urban areas, but also in rural areas and increasing of the level of professionalism.

- Improvement of methods and means of control as well as strengthening of mechanisms for implementation of legislation in practice, mechanisms of supervision, increasing the degree of workers’ qualification of the control structures; these all play an important part in the process of minimizing the informal labor market.

- Raising advisory and public awareness.

- Developing a state policy of promoting employment and a strategy aimed at reducing unemployment.

- Expansion and strengthening of trade union structures in the private sector and organization of structures of employers’ organizations both at local and regional level would help to sign collective contracts in various public and private sectors.
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Contemporary challenges of the concept for sustainable development

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Abstract

The development of the concept for sustainable development is one of the main topics of the modern world. This concept gets into every sphere of the human existence. The sustainable development is an open concept which outlines the needs for changes of the economic and social development which have to be related to the needs for protection and advancement of the environment. The unsustainable usage of natural resources resulted in global threat to the environment, and according to many evidences by different world scientists, even in a threat to the human survival in general. Therefore the awareness that urgent measures need to be undertaken is increasing constantly, which means a more intensive implementation of this concept at a global level. But, global activities mean measures and activities at a national, regional and local level as well.

The successful implementation of the concept of sustainable development means series of activities towards the development of new technologies oriented towards the more sustainable and ecologically cleaner production, energy efficiency, and a greater energy production from renewable sources, as well as a scientific, economic and social progress from which the global society will benefit. This also implies reduction of poverty and balance of huge disproportions in the development, as well as intensive caretaking for the needs of future generations. This modern concept is one of the most serious challenges the humanity is facing with nowadays.
Zoran Sapuric, PhD and Vullnet Zenki, MSc.

Abstrakt

Zhvillimi i konceptit për zhvillim të qëndrueshëm është një nga temat kryesore të punës bashkëkohore. Ky koncept gjen vend në çdo sferë të ekzistencës njerëzore. Zhvillimi i qëndrueshëm është koncept i hapur i cili thekson nevojën për ndryshime në zhvillimet ekonomike dhe sociale të cilat duhet të lidhen me nevojat e mbrojtjes dhe avancimit të mjedisit jetësor. Përdorimi jo i qëndrueshëm i burimeve natyrore rezultoi në kërcënim global për ambientin dhe sipas shumë dëshmive nga shkencëtarë të ndryshëm botërorë, bile edhe kërcënim për ekzistencën njerëzore në përgjithësi. Së këndejmi, vetëdija se na duhen masa urgjente po rritet vazhdimisht, që nën-kupton një implementim më intensiv të këtij koncepti në nivel global. Por, aktivitetet globale nën-kuptojnë masa dhe aktivitete në nivel nacional, rajonal dhe lokal.

Implementimi i suksesshëm i konceptit për zhvillim të qëndrueshëm nën-kupton një sërë aktivitetesh drejt zhvillimit të teknologjive të reja të orientuara drejt prodhimeve më të qëndrueshme dhe ekologjikisht më të pastra, më efikase në kuptimin të harxhimit të energjisë, si dhe prodhim më të madh të energjisë nga burimet e ripërtërimit dhe shkencor, ekonomik, dhe social nga i cili do të përfitojë shoqëria globale. Kjo gjithashtu nën-kupton reduktim të varfërisë dhe baraspehish të dallimeve të mëdha në zhvillim, bashkë me përkuqyesje intensive për nevojat e gjeneratave të ardhshme. Ky koncept modern është njëri nga sfidat më serioze me të cilat po ballafaqohet njerëzimi sot.

Абстракт

Развојот на концептот на одржлив развој е една од главните теми на современото постоење. Овој концепт ја допира секоја област на човековото делување и постоење. Одржлив развој е отворен концепт кој указува на потребата на тесно поврзување на економскиот и социјалниот развој со потребите на животната средина. Неодржливото користење на природните ресурси резултира со бројни закани по животната средина, а по мислење на многу научници, истото може и да го загрози опстанокот на човекот. Свеста за потребата на преземање на итни мерки за побрза имплементација на концептот на одржлив развој на глобално ниво, перманентно се зрогеумува, при што не сме да се
Introductory remarks

The sustainable development has been in the focus of economic, legal and political sciences, and other social and natural sciences, for almost three decades now. Today, there is almost no natural or social science which does not rely on the principles of the sustainable development. Also, the modern socio-economic practices are based upon the sustainable development. The huge interest about this concept is a result of swift changes in natural and social sciences, the quick technological development and the raise of the awareness that human beings and their survival can seriously be endangered if the unstable way of doing economic policies and the wrong human activity continue further on. The unsustainably exploitation of any kind of natural resources just adds to this. The sustainable development is a complex concept and a complex view on the world, even more than that. It persists in changing the existing global approach towards the world and the future of our civilization.

The meaning of the concept of sustainable development

The complexity and expansibility of the sustainable development in every area of human life brings to considerable difficulties in terms of the determination of the notion and meaning of the sustainable development.
This creates possibilities for different understandings of this concept in the world literature, sciences and practices. We will mention as a first definition, the well-known and most popular definition for the sustainable development, established by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development, the so called “Brundtland Commission” from 1987. The report has been titled as “Our Common Future”. The Commission got its name from its own chairman, the Norwegian Gro Harlem Brundtland. According to this commission, the sustainable development is “development that meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” According this definition sustainable development is a balance between needs of the present and the future. The report addresses the need of undertaking urgent measures in terms of the economic and social development which will be just and which will integrate the needs for environment protection.

The intergenerational approach as well as the interconnection of the economic and social development with the environment by placing the human in the center is actually the basis of defining the sustainable development according to the Brundtland Commission.

Quite logical, the concept of sustainable development is related to the concept of sustainability. In general sustainability means capacity, ability for certain phenomena or processes to be able to survive or be maintained for a longer and undefined period.

In this respect, we can discuss about the ability for sustainability of plenty of phenomena and processes, such as sustainability of different communities, certain states, local and regional communities, organizations and institutions, etc. When we are talking about sustainability in the field of environment, first of all we mean sustainability of eco-systems, biodiversity as a whole, or separate types of biodiversity, sustainability in exploitation of various natural resources, etc. The sustainable development is a global development which is oriented towards the preservation of the planet’s integrity and towards the economic development and social protection. In this respect, the successful development and implementation of this concept are possible only if we take into consideration that it is needed both at a local and national level.

The sustainable development means integrating the environmental points in all areas of human activity, especially in the economic area. In this respect, sustainable development means sustainable, prudent, rational and planned exploitation of all kinds of natural resources.
Due to this, the sustainable development can be characterized as a sui generis balance between the economic development and the environment. But, this does not explain and absorb the whole concept of sustainable development. It also means integrating social, economic and environment issues altogether. According to many authors, the economic and social policy as well as the policy on the environmental policy, are the three pillars of the sustainable development, which should not be understood as sufficient in order to determine the concept of sustainable development; a lot of other spheres should be taken into consideration to get closer to the concept we are discussing about. Those areas will be explain later in this paper. Some of the definitions of the sustainable development relate it to the moderate use of natural resources, and in this respect it is seen as a development that tends to build strategies which will enable economic and social development that avoids the effusive exploitation of natural resources and will not harm the environment itself.

Similar to this is the definition by which the sustainable development is determined as management of natural resources which enables their sustainability. Other authors point out that sustainable development is a dynamic category in which economic, social and ecological components are integrated and which represent only the basic components, because the sustainable development has other components too, which are oriented towards better education, development of renewable energy sources and rational and sustainable use of energy, reduction of wastes, technological and scientific development, reduction of poverty, improvement of quality of life and sufficient amount of food for people (which is quite worrying having into consideration that more than 900 million people in the world are facing the permanent famine and lack of food), reduction of negative effects from climate changes, especially droughts, as well as other aims that come out of these basic objectives. For some authors, the downfall of sustainable development is the most crucial that humanity is facing nowadays. Along this line there are even more radical claims that sustainable development has to offer solutions for saving the world, especially through fighting the negative effects from climate changes and development of renewable energy and application of new clean technologies which will reduce these negative effects. These were only a part of conceptual definitions of the sustainable development, given by eminent world authorities, which only verifies the complexity of the definition of the concept of sustainable development. This is quite understandable having in mind the volume and actuality of the concept of sustainable development.
Even though sustainable development insists on strong relationship and conditionality of the economic development with the protection and improvement of the environment, it does not oppose the economic growth and does not strive for reduced economic growth, namely for the so-called "zero," economic growth, for which some radical "green" economists support. On the contrary, the sustainable development supports the dynamic economic and social development, opposing at the same time any kind of degradation of the environment.

The human represents the attention focus of the sustainable development. It insists on intensive economic development which is balanced by the protection and improvement of the environment and it endeavors for parallel economic and ecological benefits with which all parties will be satisfied, this is the so-called "win-win" approach. In this case, it is not easy at all to determine precisely the people's needs, since they are prone to changing, therefore, the needs of future generations, according to some authors, need not to be made absolute. But, this should definitely not be understood as negation of the intergenerational approach of the sustainable development. On the contrary, it is a very important factor for defining the sustainable development. This kind of approach highlights the moral caretaking of people for future generations.

As we mentioned above, there are many definitions for the sustainable development. A large part of them connect the sustainable development with prudent and rational exploitation of natural resources, and in this respect, the sustainable development is explained as such which strives for strategy building which enable economic and social development avoiding at the same time the excessive exploitation of natural resources and not being a threat to the environment.

From what was mentioned so far we could see the broadness of definition of the concept of sustainable development. This is quite understandable having in mind the volume and actuality of the concept of sustainable development.

In the last decade, the adaptation of national strategies has been very characteristic, when certain countries verify their priorities in the realization of the concept of sustainable development.

Even though based on its essence, the sustainable development insists on having long-term measures, policies and activities, it also strives for short-term and quick steps that should be taken by countries, regions, local communities and the business sector, scientific institutions, the non-
governmental sector and other subjects at national and international level. That is why, it is justly emphasized that sustainable development is a job for everyone, every individual, organization or institution, regardless of the field they operate in (sustainable development is business of everyone). Some authors explain the sustainable development as a necessary condition for qualitative life, relating the concept of sustainable development to the progress of science on which the development and implementation of that concept depends. Science has to recognize the problems, not only to describe them. It has to analyze, understand and evaluate the cognizance, confirm and foresee the upcoming situations and determine next activities and directions of the sustainable development, as well as determine the way of managing the development processes of this concept. In this respect, the hyper-disciplinary character of the sustainable development is mentioned which sometimes can cause difficulties in exploring the concept of sustainable development. We fully agree with this conclusion especially if we consider the huge complexity the phenomenon of sustainable development. In researches related to this concept a lot of scientific disciplines have to be included, for instance the economic area (including macroeconomics, microeconomics, developmental economic sciences, corporate economic sciences, etc.) Then, law and social sciences also need to be included, without leaving out areas like biology, geology, geographical, medicine, chemistry, technology, machines and electronics, information, construction and spacious planning, physics, agriculture, political sciences and a lot other scientific disciplines.

In theory and practice there are also other definitions for the sustainable development. Therefore, being aware of not mentioning all important components of the sustainable development, we tried to synthesize certain definitions of the concept of sustainable development, by revealing some of our personal views as well. The sustainable development is a very complex phenomenon which keeps open the possibility to add even more definitions and explanations for the notion itself, such as in terms of the deep ethical value of the concept, the special carefulness towards the most sensitive groups, etc.

The concept of sustainable development and the natural resources

The appearance and development of the concept of sustainable development is a result of awareness strengthening in people about the
quality of the environment within the overall quality of human living and the importance of the issue on environment. The concept of sustainable development emerges as a result of the invigoration of the awareness about the negative effects of the industrial and economic development from the 18th century to the 20th century. This development was based only upon the exploitation of natural resources and the swift increase in industrial production without any serious analysis about the negative effects of this kind of development on the environment and without relating it to the elementary needs of people. The idea that in order to successfully realize the concept we need to reduce the differences between the developed and developing countries is constantly gaining importance. The developed countries should also offer greater real (not only declarative) technological, scientific and financial support. This is an absolutely just approach if we take into consideration that developed countries have greater opportunities and capacities but at the same time they are also the most responsible for the unsustainable exploitation of natural resources and degradation of the environment.

The sustainable development emphasizes the danger of limited natural resources and promotes the development of new technologies which help more rationally use these resources. In this context, the term “Ecological footprint” is quite often used, which points out the needs of a certain population in a city, municipality, region or country for a certain kind of resources for a defined period of time, e.g. water or other resources such as forest or mine resources. According to Sharon Beder, “Ecological Footprint” is a tool which can determine and estimate present and future needs for certain natural resources, taking into consideration the level of pollution and endangerment of a certain kind of natural resource for a given area. When talking about sustainable usage of natural resources, the needs of present and future generations should be seen through the prism of natural renewability of resources, such as the qualitative and quantitative estimation of the regenerative ability of the nature. In this context, we should bear in mind that a lot of resources cannot simply be replaced and that there is no possibility to compensate for their loss. That is the case with, for instance, the damage to the ozone layer. That is why one of the crucial messages of the sustainable development calls for more reasonable and moderate human approach and behavior towards all areas of his activity.
The evolution of the concept of sustainable development

Even before being determined by the Brundtland Commission, the concept of sustainable development was a topic of discussion among people. Namely, in the beginning of the 1970s, the notion sustainability was used by a large number of economists, ecologists, sociologists, political scientists and lawyers, in order to define the economy which is strongly oriented towards social and ecological issues and respects the protection of the environment. The first conference of the UN devoted to the issue on the environment held in Stockholm in 1972 resulted in the Stockholm Declaration. This declaration does not directly mention the sustainable development, but within the whole text emphasizes all crucial elements of the sustainable development. In this respect, the preamble of the declaration mentions that the protection and advancement of the environment should be the main issue which the people’s welfare and the economic development is associated with and that this is the direction that all governments should follow so that a better quality of life is achievable and more benefits are gained from the economic development. Further on, in the declaration, it is said that 2 million people in the underdeveloped countries live under the minimal tolerable circumstances whereas developed countries should show greater will to support those countries financially and technologically. It is stated in the preamble that the protection and the advancement of the environment will contribute towards better living of present and future generations and that this is associated with the economic and social welfare. This declaration points out clearly and undoubtedly the caretaking of future generations, i.e. the intergenerational approach and the inseparability of the environment from the basic pillars of the sustainable development.

The declaration of Rio in 1992, promotes in details and more explicitly the sustainable development where it actually represents one of the central points in the declaration. At the very first principle of the declaration, it is said that the human is the focal center of the sustainable development. The third and fourth principles of the declaration say that the right of development cannot be realized without equal treatment of the environment and the development and that all processes of development cannot be separated from the protection of the environment. Further on, in the declaration the duty of developed countries to help the underdeveloped ones is mentioned, in terms of supporting their efforts to achieve the aims of the sustainable development. The need for intensive collaboration among countries for purposes of exchange of scientific achievements and new technological innovations has also been mentioned as well as the need for an
open international economic and political system which will contribute towards the overall development of the concept and better handling with the problems of environment degradation. The role of women and young people is especially highlighted in terms of the sustainable development, for a better future of the whole world population and the need to establish an international legal framework for the sustainable development.

Apart from the Declaration at the conference in Rio, the most important international document in the field of sustainable development has been adopted, known as Agenda 21, with which the sustainable development acquires an international normative framework.

The Declaration of the General Assembly of the UN on millennium goals, adopted at the conference in New York in 2000, also pays much attention to the concept of sustainable development. The conference was attended by presidents and prime ministers of almost all UN member countries. The declaration emphasizes the collective responsibility of states as well as their individual responsibility for the global development. The declaration on millennium goals positively evaluates the globalization process and mentions that in the future globalization should bring more economic benefits, equality and justice all over the world. The respect for nature has been determined as a wise and rational management with all natural resources in accordance with the sustainable development and the interests of future generations. It should be insisted in stopping the further excessive exploitation of natural resources. The Declaration clearly reveals the need to intensify the collective efforts for sustainable management, conservation and sustainable development of all kinds of forests as well as a stronger implementation of the Kyoto Protocol and reduction of emissions of greenhouses gases, implementation of the Convention on protection of biodiversity, management of droughts, devastation and lack of water, as well as bigger efficiency in predicting and dealing with natural disasters.

In terms of the intensification of the concept of the sustainable development, a great role is played by the Conference about sustainable development in Johannesburg which was held in 2002. An evaluation of the ten year period of the implementation of the concept of sustainable development was made at the conference, i.e. the period after the Rio conference. The Declaration for Sustainable Development was adopted at the Johannesburg’s conference. The Declaration emphasizes the common global responsibility for the implementation of the concept of sustainable development, whereupon the three basic pillars are reaffirmed and they represent basic aims of the sustainable development: economic and social development and protection of the environment and their implementation at
The legal positioning of the sustainable development

The above-mentioned information that referred to the concept of sustainable development tried to explain more international acts which regulate this matter. But, the most important international act which regulates this subject is Agenda 21, adopted at the conference in Rio in 1992. Agenda 21 is a result of long negotiations and compromises within the international community that took place from 1989 to 1992. Agenda 21 represents a complex political, legal and economic document, which confirms the vision for further development and general progress of manhood. The number 21 refers to the 21st century. This document for the first time regulates fully and generally the concept of sustainable development. Agenda 21 is a program guide for measures and activities at a global, regional, national and local level which should be undertaken by respective governments, institutions, and organizations at different levels. Apart from this, Agenda 21 is a guide for activities and measures in the business sector, NGOs, professional associations, trade unions, scientific organizations, etc., as well as for individuals. It expresses the view that the sustainable development is a job for everyone, for every individual and organization. Agenda 21 promotes cooperativeness on a broad spectrum of areas at various different levels.

This document stimulates the implementation and the development of the concept of sustainable development and offers policies and programs for achieving a sustainable balance between expenditures and demographic growth and supports life on earth in accordance with sustainable usage of planet’s capacities. By determining the concept of sustainable development in a complex way in the document, there are for the first time serious opinions about changing the measures of the economic development. Until then, it was measured only by the quality and the quantity of products, the circulation and the profit expressed in money, without taking into...
consideration the ecological benefits and the degradation of the environment. Agenda 21 has forty chapters which refer to separate areas of the concept of sustainable development.

Agenda 21 calls all the countries to adopt their national strategies for sustainable development which harmonize and integrate all sector policies. As a result, a lot of countries undertake activities about determining their national strategies for sustainable development. As a first country, it was Great Britain to adopt its national strategy, followed by Finland, France, Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and Denmark.

Other EU member states adopted their national strategies for sustainable development after the EU adopted this strategy within the framework of the Union itself, starting with Germany, Sweden, and Austria, and then followed by Spain, Portugal, Greece, and the Netherlands. New EU member states also adopted their national strategies for sustainable development. By doing this, states are actually implementing the dispositions of the concept of sustainable development determined by Agenda 21 and other international documents, whereas EU member states are implementing and refining the dispositions of the strategy of the Union, too. The basic elements of the sustainable development in national strategies are adapted to concrete conditions of each state separately. In this case, there are differences in determining these priorities. In this context, developing countries pay more attention to the economic and social development and, somehow, leave behind issues relating to the protection of the environment and the sustainable exploitation of natural resources.

The EU in accordance with the harmonization of its own policies adopted a strategy at Union level. The first EU strategy for sustainable development was adopted at the Summit of the European Council held in June 2001 in Goteborg in Sweden and was called the Goteborg Strategy. This strategy expresses the strong determination for a new approach towards the decision making process within the EU whereupon the obligation that all decisions made in the EU should have into consideration the economic and social aspects as well as aspects relating to the environment is confirmed.

According to this strategy, the sustainable development will create economic progress, development of new technologies and new investments, new jobs and better quality of living for all EU citizens. For member states, an obligation for adaptation of their strategies with the strategy of the EU has also been foreseen. The compilation of national strategies has to be in conformity with the EU institutions. The strategy anticipates that all sector policies in the EU will have to take into consideration the sustainable
development as a crucial component whereupon a better and quicker information exchange among individual EU institutions is required. In this way, the Union clearly shows the determination for a dynamic development of the concept of sustainable development which is confirmed by the decision to further upgrades that strategy.

Republic of Macedonia a month ago adopts the national strategy for sustainable development. In this way it creates assumptions for more intensive implementation of the concept. Of course, the implementation of the concept for sustainable development is quite a complex and difficult task compared to its adoption.

**Concluding recommendations**

The great disproportion in the development represents a big obstacle for an all-embracing implementation of the concept of sustainable development and at the same time for more efficient protection of the environment at a global level. Even though there is solid progress in the development of the concept of sustainable development, it still is not sufficient and notable. All this requires changes in the concept of global production and consumption in terms of a more rational exploitation of all natural resources. We should bear in mind that developing countries are more vulnerable to numerous global threats. The huge disparities in the development can cause not only worsening of economic, social and ecological differences, but a total obstacles for democratic processes in a many developing countries and the emergence of totalitarian regimes.

There are still evidences of different kinds of degradation of the environment and excessive exploitation of all kinds of natural resources, as well as great danger of devastation and lack of food and water in many regions in the world. There is also big poverty, especially having in mind the fact that more than one billion people live in great poverty. When critically reviewing the concept of sustainable development, we should consider the long-term aspect of the concept and expect gradual and continual results, not quick and spectacular ones. There are also negative and contradictory opinions about the concept of sustainable development but they still do not minimize its meaning. The concept of sustainable development has to be open to criticism but also prepared to give arguments to them.

In the future, the concept of sustainable development has to be realized as a complex, global and universal concept and has to be positioned as one of
the most important duties of present and future generations. More attention should be paid to the energy efficiency and rational consumption of energy sources as well as perfection of technologies for energy production from renewable sources. The benefits of new technologies should be felt not only by developed countries but by developing countries ones too, otherwise, the effects from new technologies will be unimportant and partial.

The sustainable development means constant education, care for cultural values and sustainable industrial production. The industrial production has to take into consideration the necessity for protection and improvement of the environment, accomplishing the ecological standards. In this case, the rational usage of energy sources and raw materials is very important. The sustainable development stipulates the need for changing the habits of consumption of products and services in terms of reducing the degradation of the environment.

The concept of sustainable development is one of the most important priorities in today’s world, and according to many, it is the only chance for the survival of manhood which is being threatened by various different aspects. This concept determines changes in policies in all spheres of social life and work. It also requires an institutional framework which is very important for its implementation and the application of practices of “good governance”.

The all-encompassing feature of the concept does not minimize the importance of its realization at a local, national or regional level, since with these activities we can confirm and make this concept happen. That is why the challenges that we are facing in terms of the realization of the concept of sustainable development are very evident.

In this context, Republic of Macedonia has foreseen certain activities for the implementation of this concept. After adoption of National Strategy for Sustainable Development, there are other urgent measures to be undertaken in order to implement it. It is logical that the strategy has to be all the time evaluated in accordance with actual circumstances hence its priorities. The experiences from the countries which have already adopted their own strategies indicate that even though they represent long-term strategies (twenty to thirty years), they still need to be renewed and upgraded which would again mean openness to critical analysis and evaluation as well as change of some parts of the strategy.
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Abstract

In this research an attempt is made (i) to assess the students level of environmental education in the Republic of Macedonia and (ii) to make an analytical and critical review of environmental education (henceforth EE). We have investigated the level of students EE through attitudes toward environment, environmental knowledge, feelings, and willingness to actively participate in the protection of the environment. In accordance to the objectives we applied the following instruments: Test of environmental knowledge (TEK–1), Scale of values of environmental orientation (SV–2), Scale of satisfaction (SS–3), Scale of activity (SA–4), Questionnaire for students (QP-5) and Questionnaire for teachers/professors (PT/P-6). In this investigation more than 450 students from 8 secondary schools in The Republic of Macedonia were included.

Results showed that there is an unequal distribution of the aforementioned elements of environmental education. Many factors determine this situation, e.g. the lack of a national EE strategy, traditional teaching methods, poverty etc. We must look at the students EE achievement in the context of the overall social-economic conditions in which we carry
out the education process. The results of this research may help to determine the resolutions and possibilities for EE in the Republic of Macedonia.

**Key words:** environmental education, Republic of Macedonia, students, schools, analytical and critical review

**Abstrakt**

Në këtë hulumtim është bërë një përprjekje:

(i) për të vlerësuar nivelin e edukimit të nxënësve për mjedisin jetësor në Republikën e Maqedonisë dhe

(ii) të bëhet një shqyrtim analitik dhe kritik në lidhje me edukimin për mjedisin jetësor (tani e tutje EM.) Ne kemi hulumtuar nivelin EM tek nxënësit nëpërmjet qëndrimeve, njohurive, ndjenjave dhe gatishmërisë për të marrë pjesë aktive në mbrojtjen e mjedisit. Në përputhje me objektivat, kemi aplikuar këto instrumente: Testimin e njohurive për mjedisin (TNJM-1(TEK–1)), shkallën e vlerave të orientimit mjedisor (SHV-2 (SV–2)), shkallën e kënaqshmërisë (SHK-3(SS–3)), shkallën e aktivitetit (SHA–4(SA–4)), pyetësorin për nxënësit (PN-5(QP-5)) dhe pyetësorin për mësimdhënësit (PM/P-6 (PT/P-6)). Në këtë hulumtim janë përfshirë më shumë se 450 nxënës nga 8 shkolla të mesme nga Republika e Maqedonisë.

Rezultatet treguan se ka një shpërndarje të pabarabartë të elementeve të lartpërmendurë të edukimit mjedisor. Shumë faktorë e përcaktujojnë këtë gjendje, p.sh. mungesa e strategjisë shtetërore për EM, metodat tradicionale të mësimdhënësisë, varfëria etj. Ne, duhet t’i shikojmë arritjet e nxënësve për EM në kontekst të përgithshëm social-ekonomik, duke i pasur parasyshe kushtet në të cilat realizohet procesi mësimor.

Rezultatet e këtij hulumtimi mund të ndihmojnë në përcaktimin e zgjidhjeve dhe mundësive për EM në Republikën e Maqedonisë.

**Fjalët kyçe:** edukimi mjedisor, Republika e Maqedonisë, nxënësit, shkollat, rishikimi analitik dhe kritik
Абстракт

Во ова истражување се вложуваат напори за (i) да се оцени нивото на еколошкото образование кај учениците во Република Македонија и (ii) да се направи аналитички и критички осврт на Еколошкото Образование (во понатамошниот текст ЕО). Ние го истражување нивото на ЕО кај студентите преку ставови кои се однесуваат на животната средина, еколошкото знаење, чувствата и подготвеноста за активно учество во заштитата на животната средина. Во согласност со целите ние ги примениме следниве инструменти: Тестирање на еколошкото знаење (ТЕЗ–1), Скала на вредности за еколошката ориентација (СВ–2), Скала на задоволство (СЗ–3), Скала на активност (СА–4), Прашалник за студентите (ПС–5) и Прашалник за наставниците/ професорите (ПН/П–6). Во ова истражување беа вклучени повеќе од 450 ученици од 8 средни училишта во Република Македонија. Резултатите покажаа дека има нееднаква распределба на горе наведените елементи на еколошкото образование. Оваа ситуација е одредена од многу фактори мегу кои се и недостаток на национална стратегија за ЕО, традиционални наставни методи, сиромаштија итн. Ние мора да ги земеме предвид и достигнувањата на учениците во ЕО во контекст на севкупните општествено-економски услови во кои го изведуваме образовниот процес. Резултатите од ова истражување можат да придонесат во одредувањето на решенијата и можностите за ЕО во Република Македонија.

Ключни зборови: еколошко образование, Република Македонија, студенти, училишта, аналитички и критички осврт.

Introduction

Formal EE in the Republic of Macedonia dates from a long time ago. Thus environmental contents are present in curricula from the academic year 1959/60. Since then, many reforms and projects in education on all levels were carried out. Their purpose was to improve and modernize the educational system. Unfortunately we can state that these reforms did not fulfill the expectations, which in turn had had a negative impact on EE. (Srbinovski, M., 2002-2009; Abazi, A., Ismaili, M. & Srbinovski, M., 2008; Srbinovski M., Ismaili M, Abazi A., 2009; Srbinovski, M., Palmer, J., Ismaili, M. & Abazi. A., 2007; Ismaili, M, Abazi A. & Srbinovski, M., 2009;

Methodology of work

The purpose of the research is (i) to estimate the level of environmental qualification of students from the Republic of Macedonia and (ii) to make a critical assessment of the current state of affairs. Beginning with the fact that the projection of perspectives in any teaching area is a complex process and requires extensive knowledge not only of the schools but also of the social conditions in which they are operating. Therefore, to fulfill all objectives the results of previous research were taken into consideration, such as (i) the analysis of the syllabuses, program and didactic material for all courses, classes in primary and secondary education, (ii) comparative analysis on the positioning of the formal EE in our country and in the world, (iii) the analysis on the chronological development of EE in our country and in the world etc.

We assume that the level of environmental knowledge meets the criteria that emanate from the objectives and tasks of EE and most of the pupils are positively inclined towards the protection of the environment and are unsatisfied with the current state of affairs, in addition to being prepared to engage in its protection.

In accordance with the objectives, we applied the following instruments: Test of environmental knowledge (TEK–1), Scale of values of environmental orientation (SV–2), Scale of satisfaction (SS–3), Scale of activity (SA–4), Questionnaire for students (QP-5) and Questionnaire for teachers/professors (PT/P-6). These instruments have been adapted from the literature (Srbinovski, 2005). 450 pupils from 8 secondary schools were included in the research.
With regard to the specifics of EE and in accordance with the objectives and tasks of the research, several methods were applied (empirical- non-experimental, method of theoretical analysis, synthesis etc.), procedures (work on documentation, survey, testing etc.), approaches (transverse and longitudinal), instruments (survey, tests etc.) and statistical procedures (arithmetic mean, coefficient of correlation, standard deviation etc.).

Results and discussions

The area of EE is complex and encompasses several sectors. One of these sectors is EE that is realized within the framework of educational institutions such as schools, universities etc. EE is a process that aims for the improvement of environmental knowledge as well awareness raising in students about the environment and challenges that are connected with it. Additionally, this process entails the development of necessary skills and expertise in order to deal with these challenges, development of attitudes, motivation and obligation for decision making based on knowledge and information and undertaking responsible action. (National Environmental Education Advisory Council, U.S. Environmental protection Agency, 1996).

Srbinovski M. (2005) after the analysis of the most significant documents in which this concept is being defined imposed the following definition of the concept EE: “ecological education is developmental process of active learning in which individuals and groups acquire necessary knowledge, understanding, attitudes and skills for decisive, motivating, responsible and above all common action in direction of accomplishment and maintaining of dynamic equilibrium in the environment”.

From the definition we can note that basic pillars of ecological education are knowledge, attitudes, skills and practical activities. Therefore, environmental education of students was done through several parameters: knowledge, attitudes, emotions and readiness for practical action of respondents in the conditions when their environment is endangered. We will give a review of the gathered results for every tested variable.

On the following figure the percentage of the correct answers of the last research for every question from the test of knowledge is presented:
Figure 1 Results of the test of knowledge by questions (in %)

We can notice that the percentage of the correct responses is in the range of 16.15% (for 28th question) to 57.12% (for 12th question). We can note that the knowledge of students in the area of environment is on a low level. Compared with the results from the last period, gathered results from the last research are weaker. The average grade of knowledge of students is 35.13%. Results on the scale of values are given on the following table.

**Table1. Attitudes of youth towards values of the environment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Average value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The advancement of the society is reflected in how much they have used the nature.</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survival of the human is conditioned from the survival of the other organisms.</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protecting the environment we protect ourselves and our next generation.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The human destroys the nature in the amount in which it can be regenerated by itself.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The assets should not be saved when protection of the environment is in question.</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The only way to survive on this planet is ecological reasoning.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The nature is common wealth and we should all take care of it.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The nature is inexhaustible and indestructible.</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apart from technological successes of this millennium, humans are still dependant of plants.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Material wealth has not got practical value if we live in an endangered environment. 3.80
Only humans have a privilege to behave in nature as they want. 3.20
Humans are the most responsible factor for protection of the environment. 4.10
Many things in human life are more important than the ecological one. 3.20

We can note from the table that respondents have a positive attitude towards the environment. It is distinctive that there aren’t 5 points for any of the above statements, and on the other side only 8 statements have an average grade 4. The biggest number of the respondents agrees with the statement “Protecting the environment we protect ourselves and our next generation.” On the second place is the statement “The nature is common wealth and we should all take care of it”. The average grade of the evaluation of the environment is 3.2 or 64%. This component compared with the results from the previous researches is decreasing.

Table 2. Satisfaction of students with the state of environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SATISFACTION</th>
<th>Grade of satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the air</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of drinking water</td>
<td>2.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of food</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of rivers</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of schools and school yards</td>
<td>2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tidiness of touristic spots</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noisiness</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining green areas</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of the authorities</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State’s care for nature in practice</td>
<td>2.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students are less satisfied from the “cleanliness of rivers”, “involvement of the authorities” and “state’s care for nature in practice”. The average grade of satisfaction for the quality of the environment is 2.458 or 49.16%. This component has seen a slight decrease in comparison to the results from the previous research.

Results from the scale of activation are given in the following table.

A-indifferent, B-passive-active, C-self-initiative and D-collective involvement

*Figure 2. Readiness for action in modalities.*

Self-initiative and passive-active involvement of pupils is dominant. Pupils acquired average grade 2.56 or 64%. In the following figure the summary of the EE of students is shown.

*Figure 3. Environmental qualification of the respondents.*
If we assume that all constituents are equally important, the environmental qualifications of the respondents would be about 53.26%.

In the context of explanation of these results, previous research show that the response to this question should be sought in many factors within the schools (curricula, textbooks, work conditions, teachers, pupils, methods and forms of work, teaching object, atmosphere etc.), and outside in the broader social environment (family, media, friends etc.).

**Conclusions**

Environmental knowledge of the respondents is weak. A large majority is positively oriented toward the values of the environment. Their satisfaction from the state of the environment is on medium level. Most of the pupils are prepared to participate actively in situations when the environment is endangered. EE of the respondents is about 53.26% from the maximal. Many factors from schools and broader social community influence its quality.
References


Reinforcing student motivation in the EFL classroom

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to discover the role of university teachers in motivating students in foreign language classrooms. Many scholars in the field of education and particularly scholars of foreign languages have been concerned about the issue of motivation because it is viewed as a key factor in foreign language classrooms. The relationship between students’ motivation and teacher’s impact on their motivation was analyzed through three methods of data collection: classroom observations, student and teacher questionnaires. The most important finding showed that in classes where the teachers used most of the factors for motivating students, the students confirmed that they were motivated and justified their opinion through the given comments and vice versa. The importance of this study is that it should have a positive impact on the teaching of English as a Foreign Language, especially in universities such as South East European (SEE) University and elsewhere. If the teachers attempt to increase student motivation and consider their needs then the students will be eager to attend those classes and study the subject.

Keywords: motivation, classroom management, behaviour of the teacher, learning activities, EFL

Abstrakt

Synimi i këtij studimi është që të zbulojë rolin e mësimdhënësve universitarë në motivimin e studentëve në orët e gjuhëve të huaja. Shumë studiues në fushën e arsimit dhe veçanërisht studiuesit e gjuhëve të huaja
kanë qenë të interesuar për çështjen e motivimit pasi ai perceptohet si faktor kyç në mësimdhënien e gjuhëve të huaja. Me qëllim që të zbulohet raporti në mes motivimit të studentëve dhe ndikimit të mësimdhënësve në motivimin e tyre, janë përdorur tre lloje të grumubullimit të të dhënave: observimi i procesit të mësimdhënnies, pyetësorë për studentë dhe pyetësorë për mësimdhënësit. Gjetja më e rëndësishme e këtij studimi dëshmojë se në klasat ku shumica e faktorëve për motivimin e studentëve kanë qenë të pranishëm në mësimdhënien e një mësimdhënësi, studentët kanë pohuar se janë të motivuar dhe e kanë justifikuar opinionin e tyre me komentet e bëra dhe anasjelltas. Rëndësia e këtij studimi është, pasi ai duhet të ndikojë pozitivisht në mësimdhënien e gjuhës angleze si gjuhë e huaj, veçanërisht në Universitetet si Universiteti i Evropës Juglindore (UEJL) dhe të tjerë. Në qoftë se mësimdhënësit përgjegjë motivimin e studentëve dhe ti marrin paraqysh kërkesat e tyre, atëherë studentët mezi do të presin që ti ndjekin ato orë dhe ta mësojnë lëndën.

**Апстракт**

Намерата на овој научен труд е да се открие улогата на универзитетските предавачи врз мотивацијата на студентите во часовите за странски јазици. Многу научници во полето на образованието, и посебно научниците за странски јазици биле заинтересирани за мотивацијата, бидејќи таа се перцептира како главен фактор во наставата за странски јазици. За да се откриват односот помеѓу мотивацијата на студентите и влијанието на предавачите врз нивната мотивација, три начини за собирање на податоци се употребени: опсервации на наставниот процес, питања за студенти и питања за професори. Најзначајниот пронајдок на ова истражување покажа, дека во училиштата каде Што поголем број на фактори за мотивирање биле присутни во наставата на еден предавач студентите подврзиле дека се мотивирани, и нивното мислење го оправдале со дадените коментари и обратно. Значајноста на ова истражување лежи во фактот Што тоа ќе влијае позитивно врз начинот на предавање на англискиот јазик како странски јазик посебно во универзитетите како Што е Југоисточно Европскиот Универзитет (ЈИЕУ) и други. Доколку предавачите се потрудат да ја зголемат мотивацијата на студентите, и да ги земат во предвид нивните потреби, тогаш студентите нестрпливо ќе чекаат да ги следат нивните часови и да го научат предметот.
Introduction

The issue of motivation has been a topic of interest for educators throughout the years. Even though its peak was in the 1980s and 1990s (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Rodin, Rennet & Solomon, 1980) it is still important today because generations change and there is always a demand on teachers to motivate their students in their language classrooms (Guthrie, 2001; Brewer and Burgess, 2005). Effective teaching and learning is associated with motivation.

In this paper the focus is on university level studies because more attention should be paid to university students’ motivation (Brewer & Burgess, 2005). University teachers should possess motivational qualities and build new strategies to motivate their students. Moreover, teachers should be careful about the direction in which they take their students since motivation plays a decisive role in changes to student behaviour and learning. “Whatever level of motivation your students bring to the classroom will be transformed, for better or worse, by what happens in that classroom” (Davis, 1999, para.1). Davis (1999) also points out that there is not a “single magical formula for motivating students” (para. 2) but there are many factors that teachers should be aware of.

The teacher’s role is of great importance. A lack of a motivational environment may be a cause for many other problems occurring in the classroom. Since there is not only one way of motivating students, and motivating adults is an especially challenging topic, in this research an attempt was made to find out the strategies that motivate students and to see the link between teachers using those strategies and students’ confirmation that they are really motivated in those classes.

Literature Review

What is Motivation as Defined in an Educational Context?

According to Williams & Burden (1997) the notion of motivation is created by many factors which are “interest, curiosity, or desire to achieve” (p.111). Moreover, they present a definition of motivation which is interpreted as:
• a state of cognitive and emotional arousal
• which leads to a conscious decision to act, and
• which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort
• in order to attain previously set goal (or goals) (p.120)

From this definition it can be understood that motivation can stimulate somebody emotionally and cognitively. Then if a person is stimulated, s/he can make a decision to do something.

Moore (1998) defines motivation as forces that “energize and direct us to act as we do” (p.233). He divides motives into “primary motives” which are the inborn ones and “secondary motives” with which we will deal in the classroom. He further states that motivation can come from inside or outside the person.

The definition that can be generated form the given statements is that motivation is present in each of us and it can be stimulated by an outside force. In language classrooms, with the teacher and the students as the two main forces, the teacher should play the role of the stimulus.

What do Scholars Cite as Important Factors of Motivation in Education?

Moore (1998) states that the most significant aspect in classroom learning is motivation. He states that it is extremely difficult to give a definition of motivation and that it is even more difficult to find a definite method for motivating students because what works for some students might not work for others. Many authors, including Moore (1998) agree that there are different types of motivation. Moore writes that there are two types of motivation: intrinsic, which comes from inside the person and extrinsic, which is influenced by the environment. In the classroom environment, the teacher is the most important influence for extrinsic motivation.

Likewise, according to Brophy (1987), cited in Lumsden (1994), motivation to learn is accomplished “through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)” (p.2).
According to Eggleton (1992), motivating students is not a simple process, and it depends on the teacher’s individuality and methods of teaching. He states that the personality of a given teacher is the most difficult element of motivation to change. “The classroom environment can be one of the most demanding environments on individuals’ perceptions of their self-worth” (para. 3).

Another author that views the role of teachers in a different way is Dewey (cited in Simpson, Jackson, & Aycock, 2005), who states that no matter how motivating the teachers are, they cannot learn for the students, but they can guide them and encourage them to study by engaging them in certain tasks.

Since learning is something that the pupil has to do himself and for himself, the initiative lies with the learner. The teacher is a guide and director; he steers the boat but the energy that propels it must come from those who are learning (p.49).

In summary, many scholars cited in this section agree that there are different types of motivation and that the teacher influences students’ motivation. Whereas some authors identify the teacher as the most important influence, others state that the teacher is only the guide, and the rest of the responsibility lies with the learner.

What do Scholars of Literacy Cite as Important Factors of Motivation in Education?

According to Ambard and Ambard (2004), motivating students to use all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) is a key factor in a foreign language classroom. The role of motivation is seen as important in engaging students to read and use language skills as well, and according to Guthrie (2001), classroom circumstances are important in order to make students read. He presents the engagement model of reading development in which he includes motivation as one part of the model, together with strategy use, conceptual knowledge and social interactions. He sees motivation as the main contributor in children’s commitment to reading. Moreover, he states that motivation is many-sided and different; individuals possess different types of motivation within themselves. As a result, some of those types of motivation are more dominant than others.

Gambrell (1996) states that motivation plays an important role in learning, and is very influential in helping to increase students’ willingness
to read and use the other language skills. As with Guthrie (2001), Gambrell describes the engaged reader as motivated as well as knowledgeable, socially interactive and strategic. According to her, motivation is stated as the first element in this model because “motivation is at the heart of many of the pervasive problems we face in educating children today” (p. 17). The importance of the teacher’s role is mentioned as the one which should serve as a “reading model” (p.20) for students. Such a teacher should be enthusiastic and value reading as a motivating activity for children.

**What do Scholars of Foreign Language Cite as Important Factors of Motivation in Education?**

Williams & Burden (1997) claim that learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects. Furthermore, they cite Gardner (1985) who states that:

> Languages are unlike any other subject taught in the classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills and behaviour patterns which are characteristic of another community (p.115).

Gardner (1985, cited in Williams & Burden, 1997), also makes a distinction between two types of motivation which are “integrative” and “instrumental” orientations of motivation. Specifically, integrative orientation has to do with the desire of the learner to associate with the culture of that language and to be involved to a greater extent. Instrumental orientation has to do with outside factors such as learning a language only for the job opportunities that might motivate the learner.

According to Krashen (1982, cited in Foundations Seminar in Foreign Language Teaching, 2003) and his affective filter hypothesis, language acquisition can happen only if the learner is motivated, self-confident, and has a low level of anxiety. Richardson, Morgan and Fleener (2009) support the previous comments in stating that the teacher should consider the “affective domain” in order to make their classes more enjoyable by making them funnier, rewarding and functional (p.439). Students’ capability to learn is influenced by some affective constructs such as “feelings, emotions, attitudes, self-concepts, values, self-esteem, and locus of control” (p.439).
Summary

In summary, it can be said that most authors view motivation as central in education. In addition, teachers play a very important role in student motivation. Some of the most oft-cited strategies are teachers’ attitudes, personality, and the relaxing and stress-free atmosphere that the teacher should create. Moreover, beyond the teacher’s personality and attitudes, the materials and tasks the teacher uses are important as well as classroom management. After reviewing the literature about motivation, a list of factors of motivation was created. (See Appendix A for the list of Factors of Motivation)

Methodology

Hypothesis and Data Collection

The hypothesis of this research is that: in foreign language classes at university level where teachers use several identified factors for motivating students, students will confirm that they are motivated. Such a hypothesis would be difficult to prove without appropriate methods of data collection. In order to obtain relevant results about students’ motivation and the teachers’ role in this motivation, this research focused on the perspectives of the students, teachers and the researcher, all of whom were participants in this study. The study used mixed methodologies because both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed. The three methods of data collection were: classroom observation, students’ responses -- both numerical selections and written comment -- and teacher’s responses -- both numerical selections and written comments. These methods of data collection were selected because the researcher could observe what was happening in the classroom (qualitative) and then collect both comments (qualitative) and percentages (quantitative) to demonstrate perceptions. Having all three sides involved in the research is important because discovering what motivates students requires more than observation alone; it also requires a thorough study of students’ opinions and responses.

The research took place at South East European University, in the end of the summer semester 2008. Requests were made to all teachers of English at intermediate and upper-intermediate level. Of the teachers who agreed, six were selected because they fit the times the observers could be present.
Classrooms were observed from 45–60 minutes. The first step in conducting this research was to create an appropriate questionnaire for the students and teachers, and a checklist for the researcher. First, the researcher reviewed the literature in order to identify what factors were featured in the literature as contributing to motivation, and then listed all of them, grouped them into categories, and wrote either questions or a list of choices that would elicit whether those factors were present in the classroom.

**Present Study I: Classroom Observation**

Classroom observations and administration of questionnaires took place over a span of 2 weeks. The total number of observed classes was six. For the purpose of observing carefully and specifically factors related to motivation, the researcher relied on a checklist with the items that measure what are considered to be motivating factors (See Appendix B for Observation Checklist). The checklist had three main sections on which the observer focused, which were *Personal Characteristics and Behaviour of the Teacher, Classroom Management* and the *Learning Activities*. In order to establish inter-rater reliability for the study, a co-observer (co-observer holds a Masters degree in Reading and has English language experience) was present in some classroom observations. While observing, the researcher and the co-observer tried to identify and check whether the teacher used the strategies that are considered to increase motivation and what the students’ reactions to those strategies were.

**Present Study II: Student Questionnaire**

Subsequently, a questionnaire consisting of nearly the same items as in the observation checklist but here posed as questions, was distributed to students in the observed class. The number of students varied in each class, but the total number of student questionnaires that were delivered and returned was 99. After the teachers were observed, they were asked to leave the classroom for few minutes so that students would feel secure and have privacy to complete the anonymous questionnaire (See Appendix C, for Student Questionnaire). The questionnaire consisted of both open and closed questions in order not to limit students to only the given options. The researcher, through this questionnaire, wanted to discover if there would be
consistency between what most of the students in one class confirmed to be motivating and what factors they considered to be mostly positive.

**Present Study III: Teacher Questionnaire**

A similar questionnaire to the student questionnaire was given to the six teachers that were observed. Since six classrooms were observed, six teachers received a questionnaire. The teachers filled in their questionnaires (See Appendix D, for Teacher Questionnaire) while the students completed theirs. The purpose of the teacher questionnaire was to see the comparison between the teachers in evaluating their own teaching and the students’ answers. Although the teachers might be subjective at some points and have a higher opinion of their teaching, the student questionnaires and certainly the observation checklist together helped to create a clearer picture of the actual teaching and to get reliable and valid results.

**Findings**

In order to obtain results in a more effective way, the rubric was created and some categories were designed. The rubric created was supposed to collect and compare the findings from all three sources -- the student questionnaires, the teacher questionnaires and the observation checklist. The rubric was divided into four parts and it included the information about: Learner, Teacher, Materials + Tasks and Classroom Management. For a better clarification and identification each class was given a letter from A-F, since the names of the teachers were not displayed anywhere. (See Appendix E representing the rubric used to compare the findings from each class).

The findings for class A revealed that the students relied on the teacher for their motivation because the teacher was mentioned as a motivating factor many times. Students’ responses seemed to indicate that they needed to have their teacher encourage their self-motivation and goals in the class in order to learn. Generally, according to the researcher this teacher used most of the strategies that measure motivation. Finally, the students were highly motivated by the teacher and there was good understanding and mutual trust between teacher and students. It can be seen that the students, while generally very positive, also indicated that the researcher’s observation captured some of their viewpoints too. Since the teacher possessed most of
the characteristics that make one teacher a motivating one, such as being an energetic teacher, having positive attitudes, and having a good rapport, it was anticipated that most of the learners would confirm a motivation to learn.

The findings for Class B showed that the students relied on their teacher for their motivation and indicated that the teacher’s ability to be clear enough in explaining the new material was very important to them. The findings showed that the students had a desire to learn, but they were not highly motivated. The teacher used to a great extent the behaviors that measure motivation such as positive attitudes, patience, knowledge of the subject, a relaxing atmosphere, but because the teacher did not possess all the characteristics of a motivating teacher, the students were not motivated a lot. The conclusion about class B is that, although not entirely the same, the researcher’s observation in many ways matched the teacher’s own perceptions.

The results of Class C were highly positive and all three sides -- the students, the teacher, and the researcher--agreed that this teacher was a motivating teacher. The students relied on the teacher for their motivation and 100% of them believed that the teacher played a big role in their motivation. The teacher was evaluated as highly positive in almost all categories. The strengths of this teacher were the positive character, treating all the students equally, using different techniques in teaching and engaging all the students by making them independent learners.

The conclusion for Class D is that the researcher’s observation in many ways matched the students’ own perceptions more than the teacher’s perceptions. Unlike the students and the researcher, the teacher had a more positive opinion about his/her way of teaching. The students stated that they did not rely on their teacher for their motivation and less than 50% said that the teacher played a role in their motivation. The students were interested in learning English, but not highly motivated by their teacher. The students were more motivated by themselves and indicated that they were leaning English because it was their favourite language, and they would need it for their job. The students confirmed that they were only somewhat motivated and this correlates with the fact that the teacher was only somewhat using the motivational items.

The findings of Class E showed that the students did not have a very positive opinion about the teacher. For the most part, in this class, the researcher’s and the co-observers observation matched students’ perceptions. The students stated they were not generally positive about their teacher and
the observer’s observation confirmed this. The findings in this class are that as a result of a lack of motivational behaviours used by the teacher, only 45% were either motivated a lot, or somewhat. Something that was different from other classes is that in this class there were students (9%) who were not motivated at all by their teacher. Since this teacher did not use many of the behaviours that measure motivation or used some of them infrequently, it was expected that the students would not be much motivated in this class.

The analysis of the last class, which is Class F, revealed that the general opinion about the teacher is highly positive. The researcher’s observation, although not completely in agreement, in many ways matched both the teacher’s and the students’ perceptions. The findings from all three sources were positive, which showed that the teacher can be regarded as a motivating teacher. A high percentage of the students relied on their teacher for their motivation and they considered that the teacher played a role in their motivation. Given that the teacher used motivational behaviours most of the time during the teaching, it could be expected that the students were highly motivated. They confirmed that their motivation was high in the class and that the teacher played a big role in their motivation to learn English.

In summary, it could be said that out of six classes only in one class, (class E) the students were not interested in the class and were only somewhat or not at all motivated. Moreover, in classes A, C and F the teachers were highly motivating whereas in classes B and D the teachers were still considered motivating, but not as motivating as in the previous three classes because they did not use all the behaviours that measure motivation. The strengths of the teacher which were appreciated by the students as motivating ones were: the teacher’s friendly attitudes towards the students, the positive energy, patience and kindness towards the students. The weakness of most teachers was not having prepared any additional activities and the focus on instrumental learning, rather than on integrative learning that would relate the topics to students’ lives. Also, few teachers used a sense of humour or asked students to participate in group work.

### Discussion of Findings

This study had some limitations, which did not really hinder the quality of the research. The limitations were:
• Not all the teachers accepted the request to be observed.
• The observations were conducted at the end of the semester, which was not the best time for doing it.
• The students had difficulties in understanding some of the items in the questionnaire where technical terms were used.

Moreover, this study revealed eight findings and all of them are explained separately. The first and the most important finding is that the findings support the hypothesis of this research. In classes where the teachers used some or most of the factors for motivating, the students confirmed that they were motivated. However, in classes where few factors for motivating students were present the students were not that motivated, or were not at all motivated. All other findings are related to this one.

The second finding is that there is a correlation between what the literature says and this study. This study has revealed some useful and valuable outcomes from the data that was collected. It was proved that in classes where the teachers used the majority of the factors for motivating students as cited by scholars (the teacher was positive, showed enthusiasm, created a stress-free atmosphere, had reasonable expectations, was knowledgeable of the subject, praised the students, used creative techniques, applied group work and planned the lesson effectively by creating authentic and relevant materials) the students were highly motivated.

The third finding is that students, and the observers -- and often the teachers -- identified most of the same factors for motivation. The researcher, together with the co-observer, confirmed the validity of student responses by being present in those classes and in many cases agreed with the students’ perceptions more than with the teachers’ perceptions that in some cases tried to show themselves in a better light and were more subjective.

The fourth finding is that not all motivational factors identified in the literature were valued equally by the participants in this study. The most important factors that were valued mostly by the students were the attitudes and the behaviour of the teacher. Next, classroom management seemed important. Finally, the materials used were valued by the students.

Finding five is that motivation depends on the number of factors used and the value placed on them. Classes where it was identified that the teacher used most of the factors for motivating students, the students were highly motivated. Then in classes where the teachers used some of them, the students were somewhat motivated. Finally, in classes where only few
factors for motivating were used the students were still somewhat or even not at all motivated.

Finding six is that the less motivating teachers were less self-reflective while the most motivating teachers were more self-critical. In classes where fewer motivational factors were applied by the teacher, the teachers stated that they did use those motivational factors. Generally, these teachers tended to be less reflective about their own teaching and gave more positive comments about themselves. Whereas, in classes where the students and the observer identified more motivational factors used by the teacher, in those cases the teachers were more reserved in saying that they applied all those strategies in their teaching.

Finding seven is about the students’ role in motivation. This study supports the findings from the literature that there are different types of motivation. Also, as it was stated in the literature it was found in this research that the lives of the students and background knowledge influenced their motivation and although in some classes the teacher did not apply group work, or focused on the textbook rather than on creating additional activities, the students were still motivated because they were used to experiencing the educational system in which the teacher is not very creative. Another correlation of the findings of this research with what the literature found is that the students should themselves show an effort to learn because the teacher can be a guide and can reinforce students to learn, but the other part of the responsibility depends on the students.

Finding eight is very important. Beyond what the literature said there was also new evidence identified in this research through the students’ comments, teacher comments and through the classroom observations.

Students commented that they wanted to have freedom of speech, and they wanted a teacher who is able to react to unexpected situations in class. Also, the students appreciated when a teacher is ready to listen to everything they want to say, when their teacher speaks the language fluently, and this is especially important in Macedonia because most of the teachers are non-native teachers and as a result the students are eager to have a teacher who can sound as much like a native one as possible. Finally, the students were motivated by their teachers to learn English because living in a non-English speaking environment they have only the teacher who can explain things in class.

Also, new evidence, beyond what previous studies have found, was identified from classroom observations. It was observed that activities can
Iranda Bajrami, MA

reinforce students’ motivation such as when the teacher brainstormed at the beginning of the lesson. Another important activity that one teacher used at the beginning of a lesson was the students’ report of the news. Such creative activities could be important for our students because, as it was stated, the only place where the students can communicate in English is their classroom, and this activity is an additional stimulator to help them speak in class.

Moreover, the teachers had their suggestions as to what can reinforce students’ motivation and some of the stimulators mentioned were: rewards, student-generated content (where students create activities for each other), relating the classes to social issues, allowing them to ask a lot of questions as well as being open with them.

Conclusions

The objectives of this research have been fulfilled to a great extent because what was planned in the original research design was achieved through this study and even new important evidence was found. The selected methodology for this research was well chosen and it yielded adequate information for interesting conclusions to be drawn.

The strengths of this study were that from the review of the literature it gathered all the items that are considered to measure motivation and, according to those items, the students’ and teacher questionnaires were compiled and the items in the observation checklist were collected. Those questionnaires can supply the teachers with the necessary factors that make one teacher a motivating one and instead of them searching the literature for those items they can simply refer to the questionnaires and use them as a guide in their teaching.

The overall importance of this project is that the topic of the study itself is very significant in education and it is still considered a current issue in teaching and especially in foreign language teaching. Its importance is confirmed by many scholars who cite its significance in classes where there is a lack of motivation or even where students are inclined to learn the subject but will learn more when motivated. Rost (2007) states that in classes where there is a lack of student motivation, there is “no pulse, there is no life in the class” (p.1). Moreover, there is a practical importance of this study, which is that the teachers can improve their teaching habits by becoming more aware, through the questionnaire assessing their ability to motivate
students, and can try to improve those strategies that they lack in their teaching.

This study differs from others in the field because it focuses only on the role of the teacher in reinforcing students’ motivation in foreign language classes, while most other studies analyze and compare more subjects. This study is practical because after all teaching is applying knowledge into practice; however it has theoretical importance as well because a good amount of literature is reviewed and summarized in a new context for foreign language teachers. Although it seems that everything was said about motivation and everything was known about it, it was shown that this term implied more than was assumed. Motivation in a way captures all aspects of teaching, starting from the teacher personality and behaviour, the way the teacher manages the classroom as well as the tasks and the teaching materials that the teacher uses. If teachers become aware that their job is not only delivering content but also motivating students then they could try to improve their attitudes and strategies of teaching, and make their classes more enjoyable, pleasant and worth attending.
References


Appendix A

Factors of Motivation

The teacher (T) is positive and kind
has a sense of humour
is patient
stimulates students (Ss) to learn
treats all the Ss equally
gives feedback and makes positive comments
gives clear instructions
is energetic
is enthusiastic
plans the lessons effectively
has reasonable expectations
shows interest in Ss’ progress
uses different styles and techniques of teaching
uses gestures and moves around the classroom
shows excitement
is knowledgeable of the content
serves as a model of enthusiasm and excitement for Ss
helps lower Ss’ affective filter and creates self-confidence
uses affective domain questions (variety of questions; inference; high level questions)
uses inductive learning
The students (Ss) are engaged in tasks
are involved in tasks
are involved in pair and group activities
enjoy pair and group activities
get enough attention in class
participate eagerly and take ownership

The materials and activities used are relevant for outside the classroom and for the Ss
are connected to Ss lives
are various
are interesting
are authentic
are engaging
involve visual aids (pictures, overhead transparencies, videos, charts…)

The learning environment is comfortable
is relaxing
is non-threatening
involves appropriate seating arrangement
### Appendix B

**Observation Checklist**

Diagram of seating:  
Date ______________  
Time of day ___________  
Teacher name ___________  
Course title ___________

| Personal Characteristics and Behaviour of the Teacher: | Rating:  
Always (+)  
Sometimes (√)  
Never (-) | COMMENTS |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher (T) shows enthusiasm for the subject and teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. T has a sense of humour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. T is positive and kind towards students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. T is patient</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. T is energetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. T uses gestures and moves around the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. T stimulates students (Ss) to learn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. T uses pauses (in questions, between activities)</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. T varies the styles of teaching</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. T treats all the students equally</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11. T uses different techniques in teaching (creative techniques; more than frontal techniques or traditional techniques;…)</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. T engages students (Ss) in tasks</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Ss are involved in tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. T knowledge of the content is evident</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Ss participate eagerly and take ownership</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16. T serves as a model of enthusiasm and excitement for Ss</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classroom Management:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Rating:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. T shows reasonable expectations of Ss</td>
<td>Always (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. T gives feedback and makes positive comments (praise; reward)</td>
<td>Sometimes(√)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. T helps lower Ss affective filter (creates self-confidence; relaxing atmosphere)</td>
<td>Never (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. T planning is evident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. T gives clear instructions</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Learning Activities: | Rating:  
| Always (+)  
| Sometimes(√)  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never (-)</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22. Classroom environment (appropriate sitting arrangement; Where the desks are? Where T &amp; Ss are sitting? What the T does?)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Materials used are authentic and relevant</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24. T uses affective domain questions (variety of questions; inference &amp; application; high level questions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. T uses variety of learning activities (visual aids, overhead transparencies; pictures; videos; charts…)</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. T includes inductive learning (Ss discover things on their own)</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. T respects learner in (selecting &amp; designing tasks that Ss will be interested in; giving equal time to ask &amp; answer the questions; not embarrassing Ss in front of their peers…)</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. T provides engaging tasks that make learners think &amp; involves them in the process; using topics learners are interested in; variety of activities; using colour, variety &amp; senses)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>29. Socialization of the Ss in group and pair activities</strong>  (friendly competition; How do Ss support each other?)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>30. T focuses more on instrumental teaching</strong>  (specific)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>31. T focuses more on integrative teaching</strong>  (general)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Other Observations:</strong></td>
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Appendix C

Student Questionnaire

Please read the following questions and statements and put a check mark (✓) next to the statement that is usually true for you, or give an appropriate answer where necessary.

1. Age ___________
2. Gender □ M □ F
3. Are you usually interested in your classes? □ Yes □ No
4. Are you interested in this class? □ Yes □ No
5. Rate this English course (Select only one)
   Not favourite □ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 Favourite
6. I am motivated in this class □ A lot □ Somewhat □ Not at all
   Why or why not?
   ____________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________
7. Who has an influence on your motivation? (Select as many as you like)
   □ Your teacher □ Yourself □ Your friends □ Parents
   □ Other _____________
8. What role does your teacher play in your motivation to learn English?
   A lot □ Somewhat □ Not at all
   Why or why not?
   ____________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________
9. What is your goal for learning the English language? (Select as many as you like)
For my job  ☐ For a grade  ☐ For my self knowledge  ☐ To enjoy the movies, music… in the language

10. What grade should you get?

☐ 5  ☐ 6  ☐ 7  ☐ 8  ☐ 9  ☐ 10

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The teacher (T) is positive &amp; kind towards me</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The T has a sense of humour</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The T is patient</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>The T stimulates me to learn</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The T treats all the students (Ss) equally</td>
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<th>Very often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The T engages me in tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I am involved in tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Students are involved in pair and group activities?</td>
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**COMMENTS**
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I enjoy pair and group activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The T makes positive comments</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>What I learn is relevant for outside the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>What I learn connects English language to my life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>The instructions given by the teacher are clear</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>The learning environment is comfortable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The T is energetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>The T shows enthusiasm for the subject &amp; teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>The T uses variety of learning activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>The tasks that the T prepares are interesting to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The T plans the lessons effectively</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>T expectations are reasonable</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>T style of teaching is appropriate to my needs</td>
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<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I get enough attention in class</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>T shows interest for my progress</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>The materials used are relevant to me</td>
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</table>

Could you please list other strategies which are not mentioned here, but you feel might reinforce your motivation to learn?

_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________

Thank you for your patience and cooperation.
All information is confidential.
Appendix D

Teacher Questionnaire

Please read the following statements and put a check mark (√) next to the statement that is usually true for you, or give an appropriate answer where necessary.

1. What is your educational background? University level completed______
   When?__________________

2. How long have you been teaching English?
_____________________________________________________________________

3. Do you consider yourself as a motivating teacher?
   □ Yes          □ No
   Why or why not?
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

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<th>Always</th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I show enthusiasm for the subject &amp; teaching</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I apply my sense of humour in my classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I am positive &amp; kind towards students (Ss)</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I am patient with Ss</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I am energetic</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I use gestures &amp; move around the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I stimulate Ss to learn</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I vary the styles of teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I treat all the Ss equally</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I use different techniques in teaching</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I engage Ss in tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I show excitement</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>My expectations are reasonable</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I make positive comments</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I create a non-threatening atmosphere in the classroom</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>I plan carefully my lessons</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>My instructions are clear</td>
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**Always** | **Very often** | **Sometimes** | **Rarely** | **Never** | **COMMENTS**
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>The materials that I use are authentic and relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I use questions that require critical thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I use variety of learning activities (visual aids,….)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>I include inductive learning (Ss discover things on their own)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I design tasks that are interesting to Ss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I give equal time to every Ss in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>My emphasis is on Ss specific uses for the foreign language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>My emphasis is for more general uses of the foreign language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Could you please list other strategies that you have discovered to be motivating for your students but which are not mentioned here?

_____________________________________________________________

Thank you for your patience and cooperation.

All information is confidential.
## Appendix E

### Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Learner**
Desire/Motivation to learn  
Consistent with SQ items # 3, 4, 5, 6 | |
| **Learner Effort to learn**  
Consistent with SQ item # 10 | |
| **Learner reason to learn**  
Consistent with SQ items # 7, 8, 9;  
chart items # 4, 11, 12 | |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Teacher Attitudes**  
Consistent with SQ chart items # 1, 5, 16  
Consistent with TQ chart items # 1, 3, 4, 9, 12  
Consistent with OC chart items # 1, 3, 4, 7, 10 | |
| **Teacher Personality**  
Consistent with SQ chart items # 2, 15,  
Consistent with TQ chart items # 2, 5  
Consistent with OC chart items # 2, 5 | |
| **Teacher Atmosphere**  
Stress-free + relaxing  
Consistent with SQ chart items # 4, 5, 14, 20 | |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Materials + Tasks</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with SQ items # 6, 7, 8, 9, 17, 18, 24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with TQ chart items # 10, 11, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with OC chart items # 11, 12, 13, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Classroom management</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with SQ chart items # 10, 13, 19, 22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with TQ chart items # 14, 16, 17, 23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent with OC chart items # 10, 18, 21, 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SQ = Student Questionnaire  
TQ = Teacher Questionnaire  
OC = Observation Checklist
Reviewers:
Prof. Dr. Kadri Sulejmani
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Ibrahimi
Automatic Syllable Identification for the Albanian Language

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Abstract

Syllables are treated as an elementary concept in phonetics and phonology. They represent the smallest individual phonetical unit. They are also phonological units containing phonemes carrying prosodic elements. In practice it is not difficult to differentiate syllables on a word or phrase, even without knowing their meaning. However, theoretical explanation of their nature and limitations is considered as one of the most difficult problems in lingual phonetics.

In principle it is impossible to talk about a universal method of separating words or phrases into syllables. This happens because there is not a single definition of the notion syllable. They are only defined as part of words, constituted of a single vowel or a group of phonems focused around a group of vowels. In most cases, when syllables appear alone they are not even a meaningful unit. Grouping them will define the meaning of a word. Later,
arranging words in a phrase and phrases on a paragraph can be considered as art in its own right.

Based on the theoretical knowledge regarding syllables in the Albanian language and on the explanations given by the linguists regarding the separation of words into syllables, it is natural to ask the question of whether computers can be integrated into this issue, in the context of finding a consistent and universal solution to identifying syllables and separating words into syllables. This paper attempts to answer exactly this question.

Keywords: Phonetics, Words, Frequence.

Abstrakt

Rrokjet trajtohen si koncept themelor në fonetikë dhe fonologji. Ato paraqesin njësitë më të vogla të mëvetësishme fonetike. Njëkohësisht janë edhe njësi fonologjike që përmbajnë fonema dhe janë bartëse të dukurive prosodike. Praktikisht nuk është vëshhtëri të përcaktohen rrokjet në kuadër të një fjalë ose fjalie, qoftë edhe pa e ditur kuptimin e tyre. Mirëpo, shpjegimi teorik i natyrës dhe i kufijve të rrokjeve konsiderohet si një ndër problemet më të vështhira të fonetikës gjuhsore.

Parimisht nuk mund të flitet për mënyrë univerzale të ndarjes së fjalëve ose fjalëve në rrokje. Ngase, edhe nuk egziston përkufizim i vetëm për nocionin rrokje. Por, ato sqarohen si pjesë të fjalëve, që përbëhen nga një të vetme e vetëm që përlikuja një grup fonemash të përqëndruara rreth një zanoreje të vetme. Në të shumë të rrokjet rastëve, rrokjet nga vetëm, pa përcaktoje rrokjetnga vetëm, të vetëm në fjalë dhe në fjali në periudhë konsiderohet si art në vetëm

Duke u bazuar në njohuritë teorike mbi rrokjet në gjuhën shqipe dhe në shpjegimet e gjuhëtarëve rreth ndarjes së fjalëve në rrokje, e arsyeshme është të shtrohet pyetja, se nuk është i mundur inkluadrëm e kompjuterëve në këtë problematikë, në kontekst të gjetjes së një zgjidhje të qëndrueshme dhe univerzale të identifikimit të rrokjeve dhe të ndarjes së fjalëve në rrokje. Pikërisht kjo përgjigje, kërkohet në kuadër të këtij punimi.

Fjalë çelës: Fonetikë, Rrokje, Frekuençë.
Апстракт

Слоговите се третираат како фундаментален концепт во фонетиката и фонологијата. Тие претставуваат најмали самостојни единици во фонетиката. Истовремено се и фонолошки единици кои се носители на феноменот на просодијата. Практично не е тешко да се одредат слоговите во оквирот на еден збор или една реченица, дури и без да се знае нивната смисла. Меѓутоа, теоретското објаснување на природата и на границите на слоговите се третира како еден од најкомплексните проблеми на јазичната фонетика.

Во принцип не може да се зборува за универзална метода на поделбата на зборови и реченици во слогови. Бидејќи и не постои единствена дефиниција за терминот слог. Во многу случаи слоговите како самостални и не претставуваат единици со полна смисла. Нивното групирање во зборови го детерминира смислата. Потоа е редењето на зборовите во реченици и на речениците во параграфи кое се третира како уметност во себе.

Врз основа на теоретското познавање на слоговите во албанскиот јазик и на објаснувањето на јазичарите околу поделбата на зборовите на слогови, оправдано е да се постави прашањето - дали е можно компјутерите да бидат вклучени во оваа проблематика, во контекст на пронаоѓање на издржливо и универзално решение за идентификација на слогови и за поделба на зборовите во слогови. Токму овој одговор се бара во рамките на овој труд.

Ключни зборови: Фонетика, Слог, Фреквенција.

Introduction

Linguistic computer products and their availability on the internet is an integral part of communication and of modern scientific concepts. Computer linguistics can be considered as a method of preserving, enriching and advancing any human spoken language. It can also represent a potential for enriching tradition and helping the continuous enhancement of society.
Starting from the fact that a language is a characteristic which organizes people into nations, advanced languages influence better communication among people of the same society, making it easier to organize social activities. In this context, the job of linguists is very complex in terms of giving answers to the problems introduced by the non-definite nature of a language. This is why the survival and integration of languages of small cultures into a global environment rely on the timely application of information technologies in the practical and theoretical aspects of linguistics.

This research complemented with statistical research data, aims to specifically advances the Albanian language. Using an application written in C# which will be in the function of this language, a number of texts from different areas and various authors were processed, all texts published in the Albanian language in Macedonia. The results can be used by researchers to analyze and do additional linguistic research. The findings from this research can reveal new perspectives in the digitalization of the Albanian language from the albanological point of view. Also, this paper will be used to find the optimal solution in order to design applications that will convert written texts in Albanian into speech.

I. The Albanian language and its alphabet

The Albanian language, which is the same as many European or world languages, has its own alphabet based on the Latin language. The Latin language consists of a total of 26 letters which are: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, x, y, z.

This set of letters is entirely used in the written English and Italian languages, and in a more adapted fashion in French, German and other languages. However, combining letters to create separate phonems are not counted as individual letters. Thus, the English language, a very advanced language, in order to interpret 40 elementary sounds, uses more than 200 different letter combinations.

Despite these methods of complicated writing, the Albanian language uses the Latin alphabet to accommodate its phonemic inventory. In order to
interpret all phonemes of the spoken Albanian language, a total of 36, it uses the same number of letters, namely graphemes.\(^\text{30}\)

Since the Latin alphabet has 26 letters, insufficient to represent all 36 phonemes of the Albanian language, the 25 Latin letters (without ‘ë’) are combined with other letters. The decision to use these rules was made at the Congress of the Alphabet, held in Manastir (Bitola) on 1908, where all the letters of the Albanian alphabet were defined with the following order \([4]\): a, b, c, ç, d, dh, e, ĕ, f, g, gj, h, i, j, k, l, ll, m, n, nj, o, p, q, r, rr, s, sh, t, th, u, v, x, xh, y, z, zh.

We can evaluate the graphical system of the Albanian language, viewed generally as a system among the most simple ones (compared to other languages) and the issue of writing is solved in the following form: 36 phonemes of the language are interpreted with 36 different letters, among which 25 are simple letters, 9 are letters containing two characters and two are letters differentiated by diacritical signs (‘ë’ and ‘ç’). In this manner, we can say that the elementary rules of graphy are respected, and the same phonem can be defined in all possible situations with the same letter (simple or in combination of two characters) \([5]\).

It must be noted that our proposed solution handles the practical typewriting of the texts in Albanian. The simple Latin alphabet uses homogenous letters, easily written and very useful in a printed form since it does not require any printing press with supporting special characters \([6]\).

II. Syllables in the Albanian language

As a general rule in most languages, each vowel creates a syllable on its own. \([8]\). There are, however, some languages where besides the vowels some sonar consonants can create syllables as well.

In the Albanian language the number of syllables always corresponds to the number of vowels in a word. This is why in Albanian vowels are syllable forming characters, and consonants on their own cannot create syllables. So, syllables can be individual vowels or vowels combined with consonants. In this case consonants are very important, since the whole information is focused on them. Vowels on the other hand are used to represent the vocal

\(^{30}\) On the phoenetic writing, as a minimal differentiating unit are used letters, same as phonemes on the phonological system. Thus, in analogy with phonemes, letters of a system are called graphemes.
around which the syllable is focused on and they also secure the unity and sonority of a syllable. Viewed as a configuration, syllables can have one or more consonants organized in front of a vowel, after a vowel or on both sides of a vowel. In this context, when syllables finish with a vowel they are called open syllables and when they finish with a consonant they are called closed syllables. Usually the accent on a syllable falls on its vowel, since it has a higher sonority.

A syllable can be defined from many standpoints. E.g.:

- Physiological – when accent is given to the human anatomy and the model of articulating syllables. Starting from the changes in the chest area, supporting organs and changes of the muscular tension of the speech apparatus, generated impulses are analyzed which actually represent concrete syllables from the speech point of view.
- Acoustic – syllables in this case are treated as a combination of sounds with different sonorities. The maximal sonority is treated as a peak of a syllable and in fact it is defined by the corresponding vowel, while the consonants are treated as supporting sounds and characterized by lower sonority.
- Listening – is based on syllable analyses compared with the height of the sound, where sound variations (low and high sounds) are treated as separate syllables.

The mechanism of forming syllables and splitting words into syllables is considered as one of the most complex problems in linguistics. There are different theories, but none of them solves the problem in a universal way for every language. Therefore, their application is limited and linked to issues in individual languages. Among the most popular theories of forming syllables and splitting words into syllables are: the expiration theory, muscular tension theory and the theory of sonority.

**II. 1. The theory of expiration**

The argument behind this theory is based on physiological criteria. This theory explains syllables as a group of sounds that can be pronounced in one breath during the breathing process. Each new outgoing air stream defines borders between syllables. This theory is considered as old since it does not give any objective criteria for defining borders between syllables and besides
that there is a possibility of pronouncing two vowels in one air stream only, which in fact counters the definition of this theory.

II. 2. The theory of muscular tension

This is characterized as a theory that bases its assumptions on the syllable articulation in separate impulses of muscular tensions of the speech apparatus. In this way speech is modeled by the sinusoidal signal, where syllables are ordered by respecting three phases of their composition: strengthening of the muscular tension impulse, its peak and its lowest point. Usually, syllables are placed on the amplitude of the sinusoid, while minimums are defining syllable borders [1]. However, the placement point of a syllable is relative. When a word has one consonant, the consonant will belong to the previous syllable if it has a strong starting point, and it will belong to the next syllable if it has a strong finishing point. This rule can be respected even though it is not convincing enough, but the problem gets even more complicated and does not offer a real solution when we have more consonants between vowels.

II. 3. Theory of sonority

This theory is one of the more popular and is considered as providing good results for different languages. Of course for some languages it is subject to small modification. The theory is based on acoustical criteria. Syllables are treated as a group of elements that are more sonor and less sonor. Minimums between sonorities represent the real borders between syllables.

Based on this theory, all letters must first be categorized according to sonority. For the Albanian language, as for many other languages, ten steps of sound sonority [6] are defined, as established by the Danish linguist Otto Jespersen. Alignment is as following (Tab. 1):
Tab. 1. Categorization according to the sonority of letters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>The category of sonority</th>
<th>Letters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[1]</td>
<td>Closed and deaf africant consonants</td>
<td>p, t, k, q, c, ç</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[2]</td>
<td>Pathway deaf consonants</td>
<td>f, s, h, th, sh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[3]</td>
<td>Closed and africant loud consonants</td>
<td>b, d, g, gj, x, xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[4]</td>
<td>Pathway loud consonants</td>
<td>v, z, dh, zh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[5]</td>
<td>Nose consonants</td>
<td>m, n, nj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[6]</td>
<td>Side consonants</td>
<td>l, ll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[7]</td>
<td>Fibrillation and medial consonants</td>
<td>r, rr, j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[8]</td>
<td>Closed vowels</td>
<td>i, u, y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[9]</td>
<td>Half opened vowels</td>
<td>e, ĕ, o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[10]</td>
<td>Open vowels</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the categorization of letters according sonority, the number of syllables within the word can be determined and can also determine the limits of the division of the syllable. The syllable is determined by the maximum local of the sonorities, while the syllable division boundary is determined by the local minimum where it has voice declination.

The following figure (Fig. 1) illustrates the application of this theory for the concrete division of the word university in the corresponding syllable: U-NI-VER-SI-TY where it is clearly noted that the number of syllables corresponds to the number of vowels and vowels simultaneously represent the maximum local sonority. While division boundaries between syllables are located in the local minimum, the declination of sonority represents the declination of voice.

Fig. 1. The division of words into syllables according to the theory of sonority
The theory of sonority although correctly doing the sharing of words into syllables, in most cases cannot be generalised again because there are identified cases where the syllable boundaries are selected in the wrong way. Such is the case with the word song, which in the correct division kë-ngë, is divided into kën-gë.

Finally, we can say that none of the three theories examined for syllables and their boundaries can be applied in a universal way to solve the problem of syllables in the Albanian language.

III. The possibility of involvement of the computer in the identification of syllables

Based on the theoretical knowledge of the syllables in the Albanian language and explanations of linguists about word division into syllables, it is reasonable to examine the possibility of involvement of computers in solving the problem in the context of finding a sustainable and universal solution for identification of the syllables and the division of words into syllables.

III. 1. Difficulties over texts processing written in the Albanian language

To examine this possibility, firstly the adequacy of the Albanian language should be analyzed, especially the Albanian alphabet for processing by computer because currently, most existing programs for text processing are dedicated to the English language and Latin alphabet. In this case, there is an important inclusion in the Albanian language of two diacritical letters “Ç ç” and “Ë ë” that do not belong in the Latin alphabet.

These two letters are problematic for the usage of computers in writing them and for performing analysis on texts in the Albanian language. For this reason, because the standard keyboards contain only the 26 Latin characters, a compromise is found by using one of the following options: keyboard configuration, installation of fonts for text processors, or using codes for the generation of these two symbols.
The compound letters, also known as bigrams, are formed by linking two Latin characters in one single letter for representing a single phoneme in the Albanian language. There are 9 in total [3]: dh, gj, ll, nj, rr, sh, th, xh, zh. These letters represent another challenge for computer analysis, because the combination of two characters should be treated as a single letter. Thus, one string should be treated as a single character. Usually, the problem is solved by implementing different algorithms in programming.

Based on the two above-mentioned characteristics, we can conclude that the existing software for textual analysis of other languages, for example the English language, cannot be used for a thorough analysis of texts written in the Albanian language because the Albanian language in this matter is more complex. For this reason, we do not have any other choice than to use programming languages and to write an original application specifically for the textual analysis of texts written in the Albanian language.

III. 2. Rules of the division of words into syllables and the respective algorithm

To use programming languages in searching for the identification of syllables, there must be previously defined strict rules which must be respected, based on theoretical and professional knowledge of linguistics and related to the possible configuration of syllables. So the design of an algorithm is needed, which will take into account all possible cases of letters combination in correlation vowel-consonant and due to the defined rules, will bring correct decisions for the division of words into syllables.

Respecting the rules of phonetic separation of words in the Albanian language, syllables of all possible configurations and in order to design an effective algorithm, there are five categories with the following conditions:

1. A word has got as many syllables as is the number of vowels within the V word. Also a single voice can represent a syllable.

2. Case VCV, always treated as a V-CV. So, a consonant between vowels, regularly goes with the second forming syllable. Ex: a-ra, di-ta, na-ta, je-ta, etc.

3. As a more complicated case is treated, when between two vowels there are two consonant VC1C2V, then two cases occur:
3.1 Consonants are divided between two syllables VC1-C2V

- When C1 is side, fibrillation or medial consonant \{j, r, rr, l, ll\}, while C2 is whichever of these consonants \{b, c, ç, d, dh, f, g, gj, h, k, p, q, s, sh, t, th, v, x, xh, z, zh\}.
- When C1 and C2 are nose, side, fibrillation or medial consonants \{j, r, rr, l, ll, m, n, nj\}.
- It is a very rare case when C1 is (r, rr, l, ll, m, n, a) and (j) is C2.

3.2. Both consonant go with the second vowel V-C1C2V
- In all other cases, which are not included in 3.1

4. Case VC1C2C3V is rarely found in the Albanian language, regularly it is divided into V-C1C2C3V so the three consonants form syllables after the coming vowel.

5. VC1C2C3C4V is an extremely rare case that occurs in the Albanian language. It can be determined by implementing previous regulations or manually since it is an extremely rare case.

IV. Application for identification and statistical analysis of syllables

Taking into account the specificities of the Albanian language and rules of the division of words into syllables, with the use of program package Microsoft Visual Studio 2008 and C # programming language is designed a program that fulfills the specific requirements for processing texts written in the Albanian language. The source code of this program, which is used to generate concrete results, is given in the additional section of this paper.
Fig. 2. Application for analyze and syllable identification

Application (Fig. 2) meets the need for analyzing written texts in the Albanian language and can be easily adapted for other languages, of course by respecting the rules of the division of words into syllables. It allows the division of individual words into syllables, reads the text files and identifies the syllables within the read text, provides direct calculation of the frequency of presentation of the syllables and also enables the recording of results in a particular file.

V. The results of text analysis

For verification of the functional correctness of the application, words in particular are analyzed that contain syllables of all possible configurations, foreseen in the five conditions of the above mentioned algorithm. The same results are identical with concrete examples in books such as Phonetics and Phonology of the Albanian language [6]. As illustration, some results of experimentation for the mentioned categories are given in the following:

1. With the first condition, there are no exceptions and the number of syllables within the word is always equal to the number of vowels.
2. For the VCV case, tests give the following results: hēna /hē-na/, djali /dja-li/, treni /tre-ni/, puna /pu-na/, buka /bu-ka/, etc.
3. The case VC1C2V2 offers two possibilities:


4. In the case of VC1C2C3V, these following divisions occurred: lundra /lu-ndra/, dhëndri /dhë-ndri/, centrali /ce-ntra-li/, kontrolli /ko-ntr-o-lli/, bindje /bi-ndje/, mashtroj /ma-shtroj/, komplimenti /ko-mpli-me-nti/, etc.

5. From the case considered rare VC1C2C3C4V, only one syllable was identified in the analyzed texts: shndrit /shndrit/, which is certainly as a result of writing the word shëndrit.

The general number of identified syllables within the analyzed texts is around ten thousand, while the frequency of their use is different and depends on the text context. The list of 43 more frequent syllables together with the frequency of their use is given in table below:

Tab. 2. Frequencies and attendance of 43 syllable used more often

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>Syllable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>0.01896</td>
<td>1.89585</td>
<td>1.89585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>0.01386</td>
<td>1.38611</td>
<td>3.28196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>0.01338</td>
<td>1.33752</td>
<td>4.61948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>0.01203</td>
<td>1.20306</td>
<td>5.82254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ci</td>
<td>0.01187</td>
<td>1.18678</td>
<td>7.00932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>në</td>
<td>0.01071</td>
<td>1.07096</td>
<td>8.08028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>shte</td>
<td>0.00966</td>
<td>0.96618</td>
<td>9.04645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>0.00933</td>
<td>0.93309</td>
<td>9.97954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ve</td>
<td>0.00841</td>
<td>0.84143</td>
<td>10.82097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>së</td>
<td>0.00825</td>
<td>0.82541</td>
<td>11.64639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>vi</td>
<td>0.00823</td>
<td>0.82252</td>
<td>12.46891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>një</td>
<td>0.00795</td>
<td>0.79547</td>
<td>13.26439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>kë</td>
<td>0.00751</td>
<td>0.75057</td>
<td>14.01495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>min</td>
<td>0.00719</td>
<td>0.71905</td>
<td>14.73401</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From this table we can realize that the first 8 syllables take place with 9.98% in the general number of syllables, while with the first 22 syllables are covered 19.9% and with 43 is covered 30.09% of the total number of syllables. Graphically, the number of syllables according to their frequency in the percentage of the total number of syllables is shown in the figure bellow:
A considerable part of the syllables make the vowels as unique. They constitute 1.75% of the total number of syllables. According to their frequency the alignment is as follows: \textit{i, Ė, e, u, a, o, y}. Most often \textit{i} is used as a unique vowel, while \textit{y} is less used. The alignment is not the same as in the frequency of the use of letters \cite{7}, where the alignment is as follows: \textit{e, Ė, i, a, o, u, y}, while the vowels leading the syllables accompanied by consonants are also distinguished by their presence in examined texts.

Their presence is showed in fig.4.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3.jpg}
\caption{Frequent syllables in relation with the total number of syllables}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure4.jpg}
\caption{The presence of vowels in forming of syllables}
\end{figure}
They also distinguish according to the number of letters, respectively grafemas that take place in forming of syllables. As more frequent are the two and three grafema syllables, it can be seen in fig.5.

Fig. 5. Syllables and the number of grafemas

These categories of syllables cover over 82% of the total number of syllables, within the analyzed texts.

By considering the length of the syllables included in Tab. 2, one can create a second Tab. 3, which shows the percentage of appearance of syllables with different lengths.

Tab. 3. Percentage of appearance of syllables with different length

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of a syllable (graphem)</th>
<th>Usage frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>30.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.539</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table we can reach the following conclusions:

- Syllables with one and four letters (1.456% and 2.539% respectively) have the lowest frequency in written texts.
- Syllables which appear mostly with 30.789% are those having two letters, namely syllables with two graphems.
- The second rated (by usage frequency) syllables with 15.316%, are those with three graphsems, which contain special two graphem letters such as: një, gji, shu etc.
Syllables with more than four graphemes in the Albanian language are not that frequent.

To have a better understanding of the results, the frequency of the 43 most used syllables is represented on the following graph (Fig. 7). Using only those syllables 30.093 of text in written Albanian is published.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Syllable</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>1.895</td>
<td>1.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>1.386</td>
<td>3.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>1.338</td>
<td>4.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>1.203</td>
<td>5.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ci</td>
<td>1.187</td>
<td>7.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ne</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>8.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>shce</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>9.947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>9.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ve</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td>10.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>sr</td>
<td>0.825</td>
<td>11.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>wi</td>
<td>0.823</td>
<td>12.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>nj</td>
<td>0.795</td>
<td>13.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>le</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>14.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>min</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>14.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>di</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>15.453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>par</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>16.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>16.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>drej</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>17.407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>0.648</td>
<td>18.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>si</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>19.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>zi</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td>19.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>gj</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>19.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>pro</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>20.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>shu</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>21.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>nga</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>21.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>mit</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>22.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>ndi</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>22.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>shci</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>23.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>fa</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>23.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>vro</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>24.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>24.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>ju</td>
<td>0.494</td>
<td>25.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>25.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>26.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>26.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>0.466</td>
<td>27.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>pi</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>27.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>27.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>li</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>28.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>gje</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>28.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>lu</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>29.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>0.413</td>
<td>29.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>ndo</td>
<td>0.412</td>
<td>30.093</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 6. A graph representing the frequency of 43 most used syllables

In the first part of this figure two more columns are displayed: one showing the frequency of distinct syllables (the column labeled with %) and a second column, labelled which represented the partial sum up to the given syllable. This graphic representation, clearly displays the domination of frequent syllables as well as the appearance of other syllables on the group of given syllables.
Conclusion

As a result of research within this paper, the following conclusions are generated:

- The identification of syllables in the Albanian language can be done through the computer, if the precise definition of the rules of the division of words into syllables is offered, based on the theoretical explanation of the nature and boundaries of the syllable according linguistic phonetics.
- Within the paper were analyzed texts from different areas published in the Albanian language in Macedonia. Therefore the overall results conditionally can be considered as local in character. We do not exclude the possibility of minor changes on the result set, depending on the field of textbooks and their publishing house, considering the dialects of the Albanian language.
- The gathered results will be available to linguists for further linguistic analysis and in the context of developing computer linguistics.
- The results provided were put at the full disposal of linguists for further language analysis and in the context of contributing to the development of computer linguistics.
- The research has a practical value since at the same time it offers a possibility for an optimal solution in the area of converting written Albanian text into speech. These results can also be used into optimization in the telecommunication field.
- The application is written in C# programming language and fulfills completely all the requirements for processing texts written in Albanian. It can also be modified easily and adjusted to suit textual analysis for other languages. The source code of this application is open and offered as an appendix with this paper, freely available to be used by anyone interested in this field.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Place and Year Publ.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Prof. dr. Asllan Bilalli dhe Prof. dr. Hajredin Kuçi</td>
<td>Zanafilla, zhvillimi historik dhe burimet e së drejtës ndërkombëtare private</td>
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<td>Dr. Asllan Bilalli dhe dr. Hajredin Kuçi</td>
<td>Kolizioni i ligjieve (Konflikti ndërkombëtar dhe interlokal i ligjeve)</td>
<td>Gostivar, 2006</td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>Shkup, 2003</td>
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<td>9.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>Mustafa Spahiu</td>
<td>Me buzëqeshje u dal përballë</td>
<td>Shkup, 2005</td>
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<td>Dashuria e paharuar</td>
<td>Shkup, 2005</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Literature:


2. **Fonetika dhe gramatika e gjuhës së sotme letërare shqipe**. Akademia e Shkencave e Republikës së Shqipërisë, Instituti i Gjuhësisë dhe i Letërsisë. Tiranë 1976.


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Reviewers:
Prof. Dr. Robert Schmitt-Brandt
Dr. Klaus Schuricht
Individual differences in second language acquisition

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gëzim Xhaferi
Ass. Prof. Dr. Brikena Xhaferi

Abstract

Second language learners differ in how they learn a foreign language. This article aims to describe in detail the individual factors that influence the route of Second Language Acquisition. Leading experts in the research of individual differences describe motivation, aptitude, age, learning strategies and personality as factors that significantly influence language learning. Motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic, integrative and instrumental) is a crucial factor in successful learning. This paper also presents a strategy model in enhancing motivation.

Aptitude is a specific talent for learning foreign languages. Learners differ greatly because it develops in early childhood and it is a result of parents’ and peers’ attitudes. However, it is questionable how to measure it.

Age, unlike other individual differences, can be easily and precisely measured. It is widely believed that the younger, the better; but this paper in some occasions confirms the opposite. Learning strategies and personality influence learning as well and they interact with each other. All in all, finding out how they precisely effect the SLA is a very difficult task for the researchers in this field and they struggle to make this process more understandable.

Key words: Second Language Acquisition, motivation, aptitude, age, learning strategies, personality
Abstrakt

Ky punim ka për qëllim të përshtiuru detalisht faktorët e rërësishëm që ndikojnë në përëvetësimin e gjuhës së huaj. Ekspertët më eminëntë në hulumtimet e tyre lidhur me dallimet individuale përshtruajnë motivimin, prirjen, moshën, strategjitet e mësimit dhe personalitetin, të cilat ndikojnë në mësimin e gjuhës. Motivimi (intern dhe ekstern, integrativ dhe instrumental) është një faktor vendimtar për një mësim të sukseshtëm. Punimi gjithashtu prezenton një model të strategjive për rritjen e motivimit.

Prirja është pari dyshim një talent specifik për mësimin e gjuhës. Studentët dallohen shumë në mes veti sepse prirja zhvillohet që në fëmijërinë e hershme dhe kjo vlen si rezultat i qëndrimave të prindërve dhe moshatarëve të tyre. Mirëpo, shtrohet pyetja se si të matet prirja.

Për dallim nga faktorët tjerë individual, mosha matet më lehtë dhe në mënryrë precize. Shumica e njerëzve mendojnë se sa më i ri të fillosh me mësimin e gjuhës së huaj, aq më i sukseshtëm do të jeshë. Mirëpo në këtë punim në disa raste do të konfirmohet e kundërta.

Strategjitet e mësimit dhe personaliteti ndikojnë gjithashtu ndikimin e mësimin e gjuhëve të huaja si dhe bashkëveprojnë me njëra-tjetrën.

Një detyrë shumë e vështirë që i prej hulumtuesit e kësaj fushe është është që të hesojnë se si ndikon përëvetësimi i gjuhës së huaj si dhe të përpiqen ta bëjnë këtë proces më të kuptueshëm.

Апстракт

Овој научен труд има за цел да ги опишува на детален начин најажните фактори кои влијаат врз изучувањето на странскиот јазик. Нај еминентните експерти, во нивните истражувања, около индивидуалните разлики, опишуваат фактори како мотивацијата, надареноста, возрастата, стратегиите на изучувањето на странскиот јазик, како и самата личност на ученикот, како кључни фактори кои влијаат врз изучувањето на одреден јазик. Мотивацијата ( било да е интерна или екстерна, интегративна или пак инструментална) како фактор е многу важен и кључен елемент, за успешно изучување и владеење на јазикот. Трудот исто така претставува нов модел на стратегии за подигнување на мотивацијата за изучување на јазикот.
Надареноста или талентот, без сумение е еден друг елемент кој влијае врз изучување на јазикот. Студентите, на пример се разликуваат многу помеѓу нив, токму заради самиот факт на различен степен на надареност, која може да ја стекнała уште од раното детство, а ова исто така важи и како резултат на ставовите на нивните родители и врсници. Поврзано со овој феномен се поставува прашањето како да се измери надареноста или талентот.

За разлика од другите индивидуални фактори, возраста може да се измери на по лесен и по прецизен начин. Повекето луѓе мислат дека што порано, или помлад да започнеш да научиш еден странски јазик, толку по успешен ке бидеш во тоа. Во овој труд во неколку случаи ке потврдува спортивното.

Стратегиите на изучувањето и личноста, имат влијание врз изучување на странските јазици, оти истите се надополнуваат еден со друг. Една многу тешка работа работа која ги чека истражувачите е како влијае изучувањето на странскиот јазик, за да се обидуваат овој процес што повеке да го објаснуваат и поедноставуваат.

**Introduction**

The term “acquisition” refers to the process by which learners learn any foreign language which involves natural acquisition (that is, the process of picking up a second language through exposure). Nevertheless, “learning” refers to the process by which the learners learn a foreign language through classroom instruction.

Language acquisition or language learning differ among individuals and there are many predictors that determine the second language learning success. Many people believe that young learners acquire a second language more successfully than adult learners. Adult learners are better at learning grammar (syntax and morphology) because they analyze the structure and are likely to make fewer mistakes than young learners. Young learners, on the other hand, are better in pronunciation and learning words more quickly but they are not able to analyze grammar structures.

There are also opinions that extrovert learners seek opportunities to practice and use a language in different occasions and therefore they are more successful than introvert learners who do not communicate a lot.
What is most important is that language learners differ in many aspects when they learn a foreign language and these individual differences significantly influence the route of second language acquisition. Brown (1980:80) suggests that “SLA involves cognitive processes that consist of many types of learning, and every individual utilizes a variety of strategies and styles in order to master the language”.

According to many researchers (Ellis 1985, Lightbown and Spada 1994, Dörney and Skehan 2005) in addition to personality characteristics, factors that are relevant in learning a language are: motivation, aptitude, age (the critical period that is the age at which learning begins), learning strategies and personality.

**Motivation**

Motivation is a very important factor that influences SLA. It concerns the direction and magnitude of human behavior, or, more specifically, the choice of particular action, the persistence with it and the effort expended on it. In broad terms, motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei and Skehan 2005:614). Ellis (1985: 119) points out that “there can be little doubt that motivation is a powerful factor in SLA. Its effects are to be seen on the rate and success of SLA rather than on the route of acquisition”.

It is one variable, which, combined with other factors, influences a learner's success. An attitude that a student holds about language learning, his learning experiences and the personal goal for learning a language effect motivation. In addition, the students’ use of learning strategies, which can be a subconscious process, and the teacher’s responsibility to assist students in developing the existing strategies (and developing new ones) are both crucial in enhancing learning. The students should strive to discover the strategies they are comfortable with and make use of them in many occasions. Once the power of motivation is discovered, we can set our students in the right way towards achieving excellence in learning. Maybe there is not a perfect way to motivate our students, but there are still some techniques that can enhance learning. According to Keller’s model ARCS described in Driscoll, (2005), he views motivational design as a sequence of events; this sequence includes attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction. Regardless of the
type of motivation the students have, intrinsic or extrinsic, instrumental or integrative, the motivation must exist and the progress will occur.

**Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**

There are two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. People are motivated intrinsically which means that motivation comes from inside and there is no need for outside factors. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation comes from outside factors and they effect personal decisions. Alternatively, extrinsically motivated students receive needed support from teacher and parents.

**Integrative & Instrumental Motivation**

Norris-Holt (2001) considers integrative and instrumental motivation as essential elements of success. It is a well-known fact that students who like people speaking a certain language and admire their culture are highly motivated to learn that language. He further states that this form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the learner to develop some level of proficiency in that language (Norris-Holt 2001:2).

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is understood as a tool to meet requirements at school (for example, studying for an exam). This is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000).

**Strategies for stimulating motivation**

Motivation is a complex issue that bothers all language teachers. It has a number of causes, many of which are of interest to my university students. In general they know what to study, for what reason they do it, how should they do it, but they are not always motivated to do so. Keller (1987a) suggests in
Driscoll (2005:334) a model that will enhance motivation. According to this model, the following are the strategies suggested:

- Gaining and sustaining Attention
- Enhancing Relevance
- Building Confidence
- Generating satisfaction

All the above-mentioned strategies will create a positive expectation for success and they should be effectively selected and implemented in an EFL classroom.

All in all, motivation is crucial in SLA success and there is no doubt that the teachers’, parental and peers’ role is very important and can effect students’ motivation positively. Passing through all the stages of learning, the students themselves can best observe their improvement in learning a language and to what degree their motivation has increased. The learner’s feelings of satisfaction with a learning experience will depend in part on whether he or she feels that it has achieved what was it meant to, whether the learning was interesting and useful for them and, after they have achieved the goal, whether the result was worth the effort. When these results are positive, then there will be continuation of motivation

**Aptitude**

Aptitude should be considered as another important factor that influences SLA. In the research literature, there is evidence that some individuals have ‘aptitude’ for learning languages, whereas some other individuals do not have it. Aptitude develops in early childhood and is a result of parents’ and peers’ attitudes and also of contact with other people who differ in many ways (Brown 1980). Dörnyei and Skehan (2005:590) believe that “there is a specific talent for learning foreign languages which exhibits considerable variation between learners”. Ellis (1985) states that:

Aptitude, however, can be expected to influence the rate of development, re formal classroom learning is concerned. Those learners with a gift for formal study are likely to learn more rapidly. Aptitude is also likely to affect ultimate
success in SLA, particularly if this is measured by formal tests of linguistic competence (Ellis 1985:113).

Skehan (2005) is of the opinion that aptitude should be equally relevant in second language contexts because learners have to face situations without pedagogical selection of materials. However, Krashen (1981) claims that aptitude is only relevant for instructed (learning-oriented) contexts.

The question raised by many researchers is how to measure individual aptitude. Ellis (1985:112) explains that aptitude is usually defined on the basis of the Carroll and Sapon’s Modern Language Test (1959) and Pimsleur’s Language Aptitude Battery (1966). These two tests measure the learners’ characteristics such as: the ability to identify and memorize new sounds, the ability to understand how words function grammatically in sentences, and the ability to figure out grammatical rules from language samples and memory for new words (Lightbown and Spada1993). Dörnyei and Skehan (2005:596) provide a table where aptitude can be related to stages of information processing.

Table 1: Taken from Dörnyei and Skehan (2005:597)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SLA stage</th>
<th>Corresponding aptitude constructs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Input processing strategies</td>
<td>Attentional control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Such as segmentation</td>
<td>Working Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Noticing</td>
<td>Phonemic coding ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pattern identification</td>
<td>Phonemic coding ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical sensitivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inductive language learning ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pattern reconstructing and</td>
<td>Grammatical sensitivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manipulation</td>
<td>Inductive language learning ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pattern control</td>
<td>Automatization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integrative memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pattern integration</td>
<td>Chunking Retrieval memory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen from the table that learners differ in terms of aptitude. Noticing, for example, is an ability where learners differ. Some learners are more likely to notice relevant information than others, or some learners might have a better working memory than others. All other segments presented can be analyzed in a similar fashion (Dörnyei and Skehan 2005).
In conclusion, aptitude seems to be a very important factor in SLA. It is my belief that such a talent is natural and I support Ellis’s view that talented students learn easily and faster. The individuals have talent not only in the field of learning foreign languages but also in other fields such as science, arts etc.

Age

Age is a factor that is a centre of discussion among individual differences. Age—unlike other individual differences—can be easily and precisely measured. It is widely believed that the younger the better. Lightbown and Spada (1993) have observed that children from immigrant families achieve native-like fluency when they speak the language of their community, which is not the case with their parents.

Adult second language learners may become very capable of communicating success in the language, but there will always be differences in accent, word choice, or grammatical features which set apart from native speakers or from speakers who began learning the language while they were very young (Lightbown and Spada 1993:42).

It is worth mentioning that there should be a difference between the effects of age on the route of SLA and the effects of age on the rate or success of SLA. Most studies were concerned with the second one but the evidence suggested that age does not influence the route of acquisition (Ellis 1985). Ellis further states that regarding the rate of SLA, older learners are better as far as the success of SLA is concerned. The findings showed that the longer the exposure to the L2, the more native-like L2 proficiency becomes.

Ellis (1985) provides a pattern of the effect of age on SLA:

- Starting age does not effect the route of SLA
- Starting age effects the rate of learning
- Both number of years of exposure and starting age effect the level of success

The effect of age on the SLA has been a debate for several years. Research carried out by Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) described in
Lightbown and Spada 1993, involved Dutch students who were learning English as a second language. The study involved children aged 3 to 10, adolescents aged 12-15 and adults aged 18-60. The results are presented in table 2.

Table 2: Comparison and contrast of language learning at different ages (Taken from Lightbown and Spada 1993:48)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TASK</th>
<th>Child</th>
<th>Adolescent</th>
<th>Adult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory discrimination</td>
<td></td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td></td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence repetition</td>
<td></td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence translation</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence judgment</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peabody picture vocabulary test</td>
<td></td>
<td>XY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story comprehension</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storytelling</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table indicates, the adolescents were far better in language learning than the other two groups of learners. Nevertheless, the children were rapidly catching up or even surpassed the adults on several measures like pronunciation, story comprehension and storytelling. Overall, the adolescents retained the highest levels of performance (Lightbown and Spada 1993).

Due to some neurological changes in the human brain, there is a so-called Critical period when language acquisition takes place naturally and effortlessly. A Critical period was first mentioned by Eric Lenneberg (1967). He in fact mentioned it for L1 acquisition but it is also of the greatest interest in SLA research. Ellis (1985) explains that Lenneberg’s assumption was that language acquisition was easier for children at least where pronunciation is concerned. He claimed that human beings are only capable of learning their first language between the age of two years and the early teens.

It seems that different aspects of language are affected at different stages in the whole process. It is interesting that young learners acquire some aspects of language better than the adults, however, adults are better in some other language aspects. Cook (2001:132) claims that the teachers should take
the advantage of this easy learning by teaching the child a second language as early as possible, hence various attempts to teach a foreign language in the primary school, such as the brief-lived primary-school programme in England (Cook 2001:133). In the research literature there are different opinions regarding the critical period and it is not known for sure when it occurs.

To conclude, age does effect success in SLA. Children will certainly have a better pronunciation than adults because they tend to be motivated to become part of the surrounding community and they will achieve greater communicative fluency. On the other hand, adults will acquire primary levels faster because of their greater cognitive abilities. There is no doubt that the longer exposure to the L2, the more native-like L2 proficiency becomes.

Learning strategies

Learning strategy is a very important factor in SLA and it is a central issue in the SLA literature. Learning strategies are ways and steps taken by the learners to learn a language. They are tools for active and self-directed involvement which is a key for developing communicative competence (Oxford, 1990).

First, the research was focused on a good language learner and his strategy use. Based on many findings, good language learners use different strategies for accomplishing different learning tasks while poor language learners use only a few of them. Language learning strategies support all aspects of learning and O’Malley and Chamot (1990) defined three main types of strategies used by L2 learners:

- Metacognitive strategies – the strategies that involve planning and thinking about learning
- Cognitive strategies – the strategies that involve conscious ways of tackling learning
- Social strategies – the strategies used to interact with others, teachers, peers, etc.

Many strategies are non-observable but students and teachers can discuss them or design questionnaires to find out more information and make more use of them. Researchers and scholars should put more effort into designing tools that could provide more information on the usage of non-observable
strategies. Related to this, Cohen (1987, cited in Oxford 1990) suggests three types of tools that could be used: 1) self-report in which the learners tell what they do or think in a particular situation, 2) self-observation taking place immediately (i.e. introspection, and self-observation taking place afterwards, retrospection), 3) self-revelation when the students think and talk aloud. On the other hand, observable strategies that the students use are often noticed by the teacher.

Most studies are concerned with learning strategies used by different learners and the teachers are concerned with helping poor learners make use of learning strategies. The first step is identifying strategies used by the students and then to follow a training program.

Dörney and Skehan (2005) explain that “strategy research also contributed to the growing awareness of cross-cultural differences in SLA, as attested by a collection of papers which examined the varying importance of certain strategies across diverse sociocultural contexts”. Strategy-training in a way is the conscious attention which suggests that learning strategies are helpful for learners, and it assumes that strategies are teachable (Cook 2001). In order to develop a more successful training program, the language teacher should be acquainted with a wide repertoire of learning strategies because the more a teacher knows about learning strategies the better a trainer he/she will be. Oxford (1990) suggests that

the best strategy training not only teaches language learning strategies but also deals with feelings and beliefs about taking on more responsibility and about the role change implied by the use of learning strategies…strategy training can cover more general aspects of language learning, such as the kinds of language functions inside and outside the classroom, significance of group work and individual efforts in language learning, trade-offs between accuracy and fluency, fear of mistakes, learning versus acquisition and ways in which language learning differs from learning other subjects (Oxford, 1990:201).

To conclude, learning strategies are a very important factor in learning a language. Individuals are not identical in how they learn a language and therefore they use different learning strategies. It is the teacher’s responsibility to offer them a wide repertoire of learning strategies, to give them a chance to experiment with new ones and finally help to them implement those that fit their style.
Personality

Personality is another important factor that influences SLA. It is believed that extrovert learners are more successful in learning languages than introvert ones. Teachers in the Western society believe that introversion is an undesirable behavior while the outgoing and talkative people are desirable and ideal. (Brown, 1980) But the research does not always show that extrovert learners are better than introvert ones.

It is obvious that extrovert learners are more appreciated than introvert learners who should be encouraged to speak more, especially in environments where the teachers are trying to shift from traditional to modern teaching and apply the constructivist approach. In constructivism, the students should communicate more and there are often students who are shy and do no talk which is considered as a disadvantage.

Nevertheless, Brown (1980) warns that some people tend to behave in that way in order to protect their own ego and with that behavior they tend to be symptomatic of defensive barriers and high ego boundaries. On the other hand, the introvert or a quiet person might be more empathic and understanding towards the others.

Cook (2001) reports the study carried out by Rossier (1975) who found out that extroversion enhances oral fluency and that more complex tasks were easier for these types of learners. The extroverts would probably prefer communicative teaching and introverts would probably prefer academic teaching.

Another study, however, conducted in Toronto by Naiman, Fröhlich and Stern (1975) did not find any effect of extroversion in SLA. What is more, extroverts are better in speaking but not in aural and reading comprehension. Therefore, the teacher should somehow “identify” the personality characteristics of his students.

Lightbown and Spada (1993) claim that identifying and measuring personality characteristics is very difficult.

Another explanation which has been offered for the mixed findings of personality studies is that personality variables may be a factor only in the acquisition of communicative
competence. The confused picture of the research on personality factors is due in part to the fact that comparisons are made between studies that measure communicative ability and studies that measure grammatical accuracy or knowledge of linguistic rules. Personality variables seem to be consistently related to the former, but not to the later (Lightbown and Spada 1993:17).

Despite all questionable results and problems related to personality, the researchers believe that this variable influences SLA. I personally believe that extroversion is important in communication but not in written tasks because it is very often the case that an introvert knows a lot but needs someone to encourage him/her to speak.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that individuals differ in many ways in learning a language. All these characteristics determine the second language learning success and influence SLA. Motivation is a strong factor that influences SLA and there are certain strategies to motivate the learners to learn. What is more important, the teachers, parents and peers can effect students’ motivation positively. Even though aptitude develops in early childhood it still can be supported by the learners’ parents and peers.

Learning strategies play an import role in learning a language and it is the teachers’ responsibility to give the learners a chance to try new ones because they are teachable. Definitely, language teachers should develop an effective strategy training program.

Finally, personality seems to effect SLA, but the research results are not always the same. This is probably due to the lack of proper tools to measure it. Ellis (1985:123) points out that “the major difficulty in investigating the effects of personality remains identification and measurements. At the moment, a failure to find an expected relationship e.g. between extroversion and proficiency may be because the test used to measure the personality trait lacks validity.”

All these characteristics are dependant on each other and they interact in a very complex way. Finding out how they precisely effect SLA is a very difficult task for the researchers in this field but the teachers can help learners become more successful if they create a learning environment based
on the learners’ needs and interests. The teachers should also mix their teaching methods so that they suit their learners’ styles and abilities.
References


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Extraction of Fe, Cu and Ni with N,N-Dioctyl-1-Octanamine

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Abstract

This paper is a continuation of our earlier research for the application of liquid anion exchange extractants, for multi element extraction from the artificially prepared mix of elements. Research has been done in the selective nature of extractions reagents and parameters have been established which determine the solvent extraction, the effectiveness of the extraction and the possibility of their application in establishing the analysis of the elements. Detailed research has been done with regards to the effect of concentration of HCl and concentration of salts of KCl, KI and CH₃COONa in extraction of elements from aqueous solutions. Concentrations of salts in the aqueous solutions of acids contain important parameters which heavily effect the outcome of the percentage of the elements extracted. This can be
considered as a prerequisite that enables the controlled extraction of an element.

**Abstrakt**

Ky punim paraqet vazhdimësi në hulumtimet tona për aplikimin e anion këmbyesve të lëngët për ekstraktimin multielementar nga përzierja e elementeve të përgatitur në mënyrë mënyrë artificiale. Është hulumtuar selektiviteti i mjeteve ekstraktuese dhe janë përcaktuar parametra të cilët ndikojnë në ekstraktimin solvent, efikasitetin e ekstraktimit dhe për mundësinë e aplikimit të tyre në përcaktimin analitik të elementeve. Në mënyrë të detajuar është hulumtuar ndikimi i përqendrimit të HCl dhe i përqendrimit të kripërave KCl, KI dhe CH$_3$COONa në ekstraktimin e elementeve nga tretësirat ujore. Përqendrimi i kripërave të tretura në tretësirat ujore të acideve përmbajnë parametra të rëndësishëm të cilët dukshëm mund të ndikojnë në përqindjen e elementeve të ekstraktuar. Kjo mund të merret, si një nga kushtet që na mundëson ekstraktimin e kontrolluar të ndonjë elementi.

**Абстракт**

Овој труд представува продолжение на насите истражувања за примена на течните јонизменувачи за екстракција на на поедини елементи од смеса. Тука се испитува селективноста и се одредени параметрите кои влијаат на ефикасноста на екстракцијата како и можноста за нивна практична примена за аналитичка идентификација. Подробно е испитувано влијанието на концентрацијата на HCl и на концентрацијата на солите KCl, KI и CH$_3$COONa при екстракција на елементите од водениот раствор. Констатирано е дека концентрацијата на солите има значајно влијание на количината на елементок кој се екстрактира. Ова воедно представува услов за контролирана екстракција на некој елемент.

**Introduction**

Organic molecules capable of complexing with metal ions will increasingly become the method of choice for metal ion recovery from hydrometallurgically generated solutions.$^{1-6}$ Thus, these organic compounds, generally referred to as liquid ion exchange extractants, or solvent extractants, have dominated these recovery processes. This has been largely
due to their excellent selectivity for the targeted metal ion and the very rapid kinetics exhibited by these reagents.

Alkylamine extractants have been one of the major classes of solvent extraction reagents since the inception of solvent extraction as a large-scale hydrometallurgical technique. Numerous amine compounds of all three classes have been screened and evaluated as extractants for inorganic species. Experience has shown that for practical solvent extraction applications, an amine has to fulfill certain basic requirements, such as compatibility with a practical diluent, sufficient extraction power, rapid phase separation, low aqueous solubility and sufficient chemical stability. Although exceptions are known, usually only saturated nitrogen compounds fulfill these requirements of a useful extractant.

Solvent extraction by high molecular weight organic bases has become increasingly popular in recent years in studying metal complexes.

The main interest of metal extraction by the reagents reviewed in the forthcoming sections lies in their selectivity towards anionic metal complexes, reversibly formed in an aqueous solution, rather than towards simple anions. The extraction by high molecular weight amines is considered to take place by the formation of an ammonium salt, by the reaction:

\[
R_3N + H^+ + A^- \leftrightarrow R_3NH^+A^- \quad (1)
\]

\(R_3N\) is a water-insoluble, high molecular weight tertiary alkylamine, and the amine salt \(R_3NH^+A^-\) is a polar ion-pair with a high ion-association constant characteristic of ion-pairs composed of bulky unhydrated ions in a non-ionizing medium. The amine salt may undergo, under proper experimental conditions, an anion exchange reaction:

\[
R_3NH^+A^- + B^- \leftrightarrow R_3NH^+B^- + A^- \quad (2)
\]

Bearing apparent similarity to the process on solid anion exchange resins.

Materials and Methods

In this work the selection of the elements for extraction was made from the table of elements where information can be found on extraction of the elements and their form whilst applying tertiary amine with high molecular mass. Since the possibility of a wide exchange exists, we decided to extract
elements which land themselves to extraction as halogen complexes. With the help of organic solution of \( \text{N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine} \) we have extracted Fe, Cu and Ni. Methyl isobutyl ketone has been used as a carrier of the organic phase, meaning, the solution for dissolving of amines with high molecular mass. Methyl isobutyl ketone is very useful as it mixes with both reagents and because of its affinity to form ion oxonium coupling with high number of halogen complexes.

\( \text{N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine} \) is a water insoluble, saturated, straight chain, amine.

**Table 1. Typical analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tertiary amine content</th>
<th>95-97%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary amine content</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary amine content</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the \( \text{N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine} \) reagents contain basic nitrogen, they typically react with a variety of inorganic and organic acids to form amine salts, which are capable of undergoing ion exchange reactions with a host of other anions. The general reactions shown below describe this behavior.

\[
\begin{align*}
[R_3N]_{\text{org.}} + [HA]_{\text{aq}} & \leftrightarrow [R_3NH^+A^-]_{\text{org.}} \quad (3) \\
[R_3NH^+A^-]_{\text{org.}} + [B^-]_{\text{aq}} & \leftrightarrow [R_3NH^+B^-]_{\text{org.}} + [A^-]_{\text{aq}} \quad (4)
\end{align*}
\]

The extent to which \( B^- \) will exchange for \( A^- \) is a function of the relative affinity of the two anions for the organic cation and the relative salvation energy of the anions by the aqueous phase.

Only chemically pure substances have been used in all solutions. All measurements have been done with atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS). To atomize, the flame of acetylene-air was used.

**Results and Discussion**

For extraction a 10 % solution \( \text{N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine} \) in methyl isobutyl ketone is prepared.
These extractions have been derived from aqueous solutions of HCl with \(c=2, 4\) and 6 mol dm\(^{-3}\), and in the presence of salts of KCl, KI and CH\(_3\)COONa, which are prepared with the different concentrations. Extraction of Fe, Cu and Ni was done in the separation funnel of 150 cm\(^3\). The problem of analyzing the elements in their organic phase has not been taken in to consideration here, because according to similar research (of aqueous phase) percentage of elements in their organic phase can be measured with accuracy.

This is how we can determine the percentage of the elements in the aqueous phase in comparison with the initial amount of the elements during the extraction with the organic solutions.

The separation of the elements is done with organic solution resulting from multi element extraction from solutions of HCl with \(c=2, 4\) and 6 mol dm\(^{-3}\) and in the presence of salts of KCl, KI and CH\(_3\)COONa, prepared with the different concentrations.

**Extraction of Fe, Cu and Ni with N,N-Dioctyl-1-Octanamine**

The experimental results achieved are showed in the table through curves, hereby each curve presented is based in three experimental dots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(c(\text{HCl})/\text{mol dm}^{-3})</th>
<th>(\gamma(\text{KCl})/\text{g dm}^{-3})</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Extraction of elements with the help of organic solution of N,N-Dioctyl-1-Octanamine in presents of KI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>c(HCl)/mol dm$^{-3}$</th>
<th>$\gamma$(KI)/g dm$^{-3}$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fe</td>
<td>Cu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Extraction of elements with the help of organic solution of N,N-Dioctyl-1-Octanamine in presents of CH$_3$COONa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>c(HCl)/mol dm$^{-3}$</th>
<th>$\gamma$(NaAc)/g dm$^{-3}$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fe</td>
<td>Cu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>96.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iron in entirety extracted from the solutions which contains KCl and CH$_3$COONa (table 2, 4 and figure 1a,b,c ; 3a,b,c). Percentage of Fe extraction from the solutions containing KI will fall drastically and is sited round the boundaries of 6.6 – 20.6% (table 3 and figure 2a,b,c).
Figure 1. Extraction curves of elements with N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine expressed as a function of concentration of HCl and KCl:

a) $\gamma$(KCl)=50 g dm$^{-3}$,  
b) $\gamma$(KCl)=75 g dm$^{-3}$,  
c) $\gamma$(KCl)=100 g dm$^{-3}$.

Copper from the solutions that contain KI is extracted at a rate of 100% (table 3 and figure 2a,b,c). Copper extraction from the solutions that contain KCl and CH$_3$COONa is very similar and the graph curves of extraction have similar shape (table 2, 4 and figure 1a,b,c; 3a,b,c). A common characteristic is the low yield extracted copper from solutions of HCl with c=2 mol dm$^{-3}$. And the high yield from solutions with c=6 mol dm$^{-3}$. Concluding that the effect of concentration of HCl on the percentage of the extraction is high, whereas the effect of concentration of salt is low.

Figure 2. Extraction curves of elements with N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine expressed as a function of concentration of HCl and KI:

a) $\gamma$(KI)=50 g dm$^{-3}$,  
b) $\gamma$(KI)=75 g dm$^{-3}$,  
c) $\gamma$(KI)=100 g dm$^{-3}$
Nickel in limited amounts is extracted from the KCl solutions whereby the extraction percentage reaches the value 4.2% (table 2 and figure 1a,b,c). Nickel is not extracted from the KI solutions (table 3 and figure 2a,b,c).

**Figure 3. Extraction curves of elements with N,N-dioctyl-1-octanamine expressed as a function of concentration of HCl and NaAc:**
a) $\gamma$ (NaAc)=50 g dm$^{-3}$, b) $\gamma$ (NaAc)=75 g dm$^{-3}$, c) $\gamma$ (NaAc)=100 g dm$^{-3}$

**Conclusion**

Liquid extraction of anion complexes of metals by applying organic solutions offers the possibility of selective separation of elements. This is simple and can applied for separation of metallic ions present in traces, and also in the macro-separating of metal ions.

The organic solutions applied in extraction have shown the suitability and they also possess desirable characteristics like: high solubility in applied organic solvent (methyl isobutyl ketone), low solubility in the aqueous acid solutions, they can be dissolved also in other suitable solvents, they can be applied in extraction directly without any previous conversion in another form, it can be done the multielement extraction and these are not costly.

By applying amines in the extraction of the researched elements it is obvious that the extracting phenomenon and reactions of different parameters, very often are similar for both chemical reagents (tri-n-octylamine). But apart from the similarities, there are big differences, which suggests the extractive specification in relation to applied reagents, which in turn is linked with the conditions that the extraction of elements should take place in. This is what can make it possible to develop the extraction system.
References


