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Exploring Motivational Drivers and Goal-Achievement Strategies among University Students

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Abstract

This article aims to explore the complex and often overlooked topic of motivation within the educational setting, particularly in the context of students learning English as a second language (ESL). By focusing on both student and educator perspectives, the study highlights how motivation is perceived, addressed, and sometimes neglected. The investigation is limited to classroom-based experiences and interactions, allowing for a focused analysis of the teaching environment. Despite the clear importance of motivation in language learning, many educators find it challenging to maintain or stimulate, while students themselves often struggle to stay engaged. These difficulties contribute to a mutual neglect of the issue, hindering learning outcomes. The article argues for a more organized and reflective approach to motivation, one that involves analyzing individual learning needs, responding to them effectively, and improving both knowledge and performance. Drawing on relevant literature and empirical observations, the study seeks to propose practical solutions to common motivational challenges in the pedagogical context and support more effective teaching and learning strategies.

Keywords: E*ffective Teaching, Learning Outcomes, Learning Strategies, Motivation, the Teaching Environment*

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INTRODUCTION

Human behavior has long been subject of study, as its understanding is key to comprehending how we perceive and interact with reality. Educators, researchers, methodologists, psychoanalysts have long tried to understand the individual's behaviour which underlies the fulfillment of various tasks and responsibilities across professional and personal contexts. Maier posits that human behavior can be effectively analyzed through a systematic examination of contributing factors, arguing that an objective assessment can yield meaningful insights. Alongside many psychoanalytic researchers, Maier identifies motivation as a critical component in this chain of behaviour affecting elements. By highlighting its significance, scholars underscore that human actions are driven by diverse and often complex motivational sources.

Researchers Cathryn Wentzel and Allan Wigfield [3]integrate psychological theories with practical classroom applications, helping educators foster engagement and achievement. *Expectancy-Value theory* developed by Wigfield and Eccles[4], points to the fact that student motivation depends on two key factors: expectancy, belief in one's ability to succeed and value, perceived importance of the task. Wigfield identifies four types of task value:

intrinsic (enjoyment), utility (usefulness), attainment (personal significance) and cost (effort required). Studies show that when students feel that their work is relevant they believe that they can succeed, by fostering in this way their deeper engagement.

For example, Wigfield's 2020 study[5] found that utility-value interventions—where teachers explicitly connect lessons to real-world applications—increased engagement by 12%.

On the other hand, Wentzel's work emphasizes *social relationships* as a critical driver of motivation. She found that students work harder when they feel their teachers

[3] Wentzel K. & Wigfield A. (2016) *Handbook of Motivation at School* (2nd ed.) Taylor and Francis. 1-8

[4] Wigfield A, Eccles J.S 2000. *Expectancy Value theory of achievement motivation*, p.68-81 Volume 25, Issue 1,
68-81, ISSN 0361-476X, https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1015.

[5] Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2020). *From expectancy-value theory to situated expectancy-value theory: A developmental, social cognitive, and sociocultural perspective on motivation*. Contemporary Educational Psychology, Volume 61. 101859, ISSN 0361-476X, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101859

genuinely care and their peers respect them. Her research highlights the importance of teacher warmth combined with high expectations, a balance that creates an optimal learning environment.

Both researchers stress the importance of goal setting in sustaining motivation. Wentzel concludes that effective goals should be specific, appropriately difficult, and personally meaningful. Wigfield's studies further show that mastery-oriented goals, focused on learning rather than grades, lead to deeper engagement.

While Wigfield underlies the importance of task value John Marshall Reeve in his Self-Determination Theory (SDT)[6] focuses on student motivation, engagement, and teacher-student relationships. His research provides insights into how teachers can create autonomy-supportive classrooms that foster intrinsic motivation, persistence, and deeper learning.

Reeve's research shows that when teachers adopt an autonomy-supportive approach, rather than a controlling one, students experience:

- Higher intrinsic motivation (learning for its own sake)
- Greater engagement (effort, attention, persistence)
- Improved academic performance (grades, conceptual understanding)

What teachers do while approaching their students in this way is:
offer meaningful choices such as topic selection and try to always answer *the "why"* behind tasks.

He identifies the interconnectedness between teacher's and students' motivation and emphasizes that teachers' own motivation affects their teaching style:

- Autonomy-supported teachers are more likely to support students' autonomy.
- Controlled teachers, pressured by rigid curricula/testing, tend to adopt a controlling style, reducing student engagement.

He concludes that schools should empower teachers with professional autonomy, so that engagement is fostered, encouragement of students to ask questions, suggest improvements, and take initiative.

The *Integrated Model of Domain Learning (IMDL)* of Murphy & Alexander[7] explains how motivation evolves as students gain expertise in a subject. In their research great importance is placed to motivational approaches at different stages. Their framework

[6] Reeve, J. (2012). *A self-determination theory perspective on student engagement*, Handbook of Research on Student engagement, 149-172.
[7] Murphy, P. K., & Alexander, P. A. (2006). *Understanding how students learn: A guide for instructional leaders*. Corwin Press.

suggests that teachers should rely on *external rewards* such as grades at early learning stages and smoothly shift to *intrinsic interest* and deeper engagement on later stages. To address motivational issues a distinction between knowledge and interest should be made first. P. Karen Murphy & Patricia A. Alexander distinguish between:

Surface-level knowledge (motivated by grades/compliance).

Deep understanding (driven by curiosity and mastery goals).

So, they identify key factors such as:

1. The *Role of teachers' beliefs*, their own views about intelligence (fixed vs. growth mindset) shape how they motivate students.
2. The S*ocial Context of Motivation* according to which peer comparison can *boost* motivation (friendly competition) or *harm* it (shame/self-doubt).

Practical, research-based strategies to motivate students are the focus of Barbara R. Blackburn's theory[8]. Her work emphasizes rigor, relevance, and relationships as key drivers of student engagement**.** Blackburn argues that all students can achieve success when teachers set challenging yet attainable goals paired with support. For example, instead of lowering standards for struggling learners, teachers should break tasks into smaller steps while maintaining high expectations.

Connecting lessons to students' lives to boost motivation is key to success according to her. Blackburn's research shows that relevance increases effort and persistence.

She promotes autonomy by allowing students to choose topics, project formats, or assessment methods and similarly to Wentzel, Blackburn highlights teacher-student relationships as motivational tools. Simple actions, greeting students by name, acknowledging their interests, or offering encouragement, can significantly impact engagement.

The work of Eric and Lynley Anderman[9] bridges theory and practice in student motivation. It integrates *achievement goal theory, self-efficacy, and classroom* context to explain how instructional environments shape motivation**.** Their achievement goal theory provides critical insights into how students' fundamental orientations toward learning shape their academic behaviors and outcomes. Their

[8] Blackburn Barbara R. (2015), *Motivating Struggling Learners, Ten ways to build student success*, Routledge.

[9] Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (2020). *Classroom motivation* (3rd ed.). Routledge. Chapters 4-6

work distinguishes between two primary goal orientations that operate in educational settings:

1. mastery goals and 2. performance goals.

Mastery goals, which are task-focused, lead students to concentrate on developing genuine competence and understanding of material. When students adopt mastery goals, they typically engage more deeply with content, willingly tackle challenging problems, and persist through difficulties because their primary aim is personal growth and learning. This orientation fosters *intrinsic motivation* and creates resilient learners who view mistakes as valuable feedback rather than as failures.

In contrast, performance goals represent an ego-focused approach where students primarily aim to demonstrate their ability relative to others. While this orientation can sometimes drive achievement, it frequently leads to problematic outcomes. Students focused on performance goals may resort to surface-level learning strategies and avoid challenging tasks that might reveal limitations, or experience heigh levels of anxiety about assessments. The classroom implications of this distinction are profound - teachers who emphasize mastery-oriented language cultivate more productive learning mindsets than those who stress performance outcomes.

The Andermans' examination of classroom goal structures reveals how institutional policies and teaching practices collectively establish motivational environments that either support or undermine student engagement. Mastery-structured classrooms are characterized by specific features that promote healthy motivation: mistakes are normalized as essential to learning, assessments emphasize progress over perfection, and the teacher's feedback focuses on effort and strategy rather than comparative achievement. In such environments, students develop mindsets and are more willing to take intellectual risks.

Conversely, performance-structured classrooms that emphasize rankings, standardized testing, and perfect scores tend to create anxiety and disengagement, particularly among struggling students. The Andermans provide concrete examples of how subtle shifts in teacher language can transform classroom climate. Rather than highlighting the distribution of grades ("Only five students got As"), mastery-oriented teachers direct attention to individual progress ("Let's examine how everyone's thesis statements strengthened between drafts"). This approach helps all students see themselves as capable learners on a developmental continuum.

They identify academic self-efficacy - students' belief in their capacity to succeed - as a cornerstone of sustained motivation. Their research demonstrates that students with strong self-efficacy set more ambitious goals, employ better learning strategies, and attribute setbacks to modifiable factors like effort or strategy rather than fixed ability. The Andermans outline specific, actionable strategies teachers can use to develop this crucial belief in students.

These interconnected concepts - achievement goals, classroom structures, and self-efficacy, form a comprehensive framework for understanding and enhancing student motivation. By implementing these evidence-based approaches, educators can help shift students from performance anxiety to authentic engagement with learning.

Case Study Design: Understanding Student Motivation

Motivation plays a crucial role in academic success, yet students are driven by diverse factors which lead to their intrinsic (personal satisfaction) and extrinsic (rewards, recognition) motivation. This case study investigates students' understanding of the importance of motivation, what motivates them, how they sustain motivation, and the steps they take to be motivated and achieve their goals. Though primarily concerned with students' awareness on the role of motivation, the underlying focus of the study is our understanding of their needs and the adaption of our approach to the various motivating factors. Though, this would be another topic of discussion in our future studies.

Research Objectives:

The present study aimed at seeking answers to the following research questions:

What are the sources of motivation among students?

What strategies do students use to stay motivated?

What challenges do they face in maintaining motivation?

What are the differences in motivation between high-achieving and struggling students?

Research Methodology

Design and Participants:

In our study we employed a questionnaire design which consisted of 2 questionnaires that were administered at different stages of the study and followed by focus group discussions.

The questionnaires consisted mainly of *Open-ended questions* (e.g., "Describe the last time you felt motivated") and only a few *Multiple-choice questions* (e.g., "What motivates you most? Grades, passion, career prospects, peer competition, or family expectations?").

The questionnaire was selected as the primary method due to its effectiveness in capturing objective responses within educational setting. The research focused on three university groups each consisting of respectively 25, 22, 24 students, resulting in a total of 71 participants. These participants were undergraduate students in their second and third years of study at the university. The selection of these groups aimed to provide a representative sample of students at this academic level, ensuring a balanced perspective on the behaviors and learning practices typical of mixed academic performance levels university learners.

Procedure

Participants were fully informed about the aim of the questionnaire and assured complete anonymity and confidentiality. They were further reassured that their responses would remain entirely uninfluenced, as the researchers refrain from any form of intervention, serving solely to clarify potential ambiguities or respond to participants queries. During subsequent discussions, students acknowledged that their familiarity with the researchers as their instructors of various subjects contributed to a relaxed and open atmosphere, making them more comfortable completing the questionnaire.

Data Collection instruments

To collect data, worksheets which consisted of questions on motivation were employed. In the first stage they defined motivation and explained what motivates and demotivates them. Once the questionnaires were collected, they had group discussions to share opinions on kinds, Intrinsic: Personal interest, mastery, self-improvement, Extrinsic: Grades, scholarships, job opportunities, parental approval, Social: peer comparison, study groups, and sources of motivation, contributing in this way to create a full picture on motivation and its sources. Data was also collected in the form of field notes which were noted down once the follow-up discussions were over.

The second stage took place the following week, and the students had to complete a task and list motivational or demotivational approaches or practices that contributed or affected in some way the completion of the task.

Data Analysis

Our analysis of the data was primarily a thematic description of motivational sources and approaches. Since it involves identifying and categorizing recurring themes related to what drives students to respond in a certain way especially to open-ended responses, it would allow us to explore intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors—such as personal goals, social influences, rewards, and self-fulfillment. By doing so, we aimed to identify and reveal patterns in how motivation is experienced across different contexts. Approaches to motivation, such as goal setting, self-determination, or reinforcement strategies, are also thematically examined to understand the preferred or most effective methods used by students while they are working individually or organized in groups. The thorough aided at uncovering the underlying psychological mechanisms and identifying practical applications in education, or personal development.

Findings and Discussions of Findings

Students identified various motivational sources and approaches by reflecting on both their successes and setbacks. They discussed goals they had successfully achieved, outlining the specific steps they took and the key factors that motivated them throughout the process. Conversely, they also reflected on goals they were unable to reach, describing the initial motivations that sparked their efforts and the factors that eventually led to a decline in motivation. These reflections provide valuable insights into the dynamics of goal setting, persistence, and the internal and external influences that shape motivation over time.

They appreciate various motivational strategies that help them stay focused on their academic and personal goals. These include goal-setting techniques, such as creating SMART goals (specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound) and breaking larger tasks into smaller ones to accomplished step by step. They also value reward systems, friends and mentors who contribute to motivating them to achieve their goals such as tasks, classes, study sessions or achieving milestones, by assisting, rewarding and praising them. They have underlined the fact that they benefit from visualization tools like vision boards and progress trackers, which help them maintain clarity and motivation throughout their journey.

Conversely, negative feedback or criticism causes a student to doubt their abilities, leading them to avoid participating in similar tasks or group assignments in the future. Prejudice from peers is another setback especially for students who lack confidence.

Additionally, students identify as demotivational the lack of immediate results which usually leads them to become discouraged after a few weeks, causing them to stop trying. The lack of progress quickly erodes their motivation.

Furthermore, overwhelming workload leads to stress and a decline in academic performance.

So, it is evident that support or encouragement from the teachers, peers, and parents would be the right approach to overcome difficulties. Otherwise, if a student's performance is underestimated, they struggle to stay motivated without external affirmation.

Limitations and recommendations

Students acknowledge that they commonly face motivational challenges that slow down their academic success. Feelings of hesitation, workload, fear of failure, and the absence of clearly defined goals can significantly impact performance, well-being, and persistence, particularly in high-pressure academic environments. Preliminary findings of our study suggest that motivational patterns may vary by discipline—for example, students in the Faculty of Foreign Languages exhibit a stronger reliance on intrinsic motivators and acknowledge the presence of extrinsic motivating approaches. Such insights hold practical implications for educators, offering opportunities to design more targeted, evidence-based interventions aimed at fostering intrinsic motivation and goal-directed behavior. However, we identify self-reporting bias and small, potentially non-representative samples as limitations of our study. As a preliminary study the limited, non-representative sample restricts the generalizability of findings to broader student populations across disciplines or institutions. To enhance the validity and applicability of future research, we aim at conducting a longitudinal study to extend this preliminary case study over time to examine how student motivation evolves over time, alongside interventions that assess the efficacy of motivational support approaches or mechanisms.

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The Tradition of Cultural Heritage Research in North Macedonia

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Abstract

This paper explores the intersection of immovable cultural heritage, digital technologies, and education in the Republic of North Macedonia. The country's rich historical and archaeological legacy, shaped by diverse civilizations such as the Greeks, Romans, Byzantines, and Ottomans, is reflected in its numerous cultural monuments, archaeological sites, and museum collections. With over 4,700 documented archaeological sites, Macedonia's cultural heritage is essential to its national identity and historical continuity. Archaeology plays a crucial role in reconstructing the past through the fragmented remains of material culture, offering insights into human beliefs, aspirations, and daily life. The cultural heritage of North Macedonia has long been a subject of scholarly interest, with research spanning from early travelogues and European explorers in the 19th century to modern systematic excavations. This paper traces the development of archaeological research in North Macedonia, highlighting key figures, discoveries, and institutions that have contributed to the study and preservation of its rich heritage. The study also explores the impact of historical events, including the Ottoman period, the World Wars, and the post-independence era, on cultural heritage research and conservation efforts. Furthermore, it examines the role of modern methodologies, including digital archaeology, in safeguarding and interpreting archaeological sites. By synthesizing historical scholarship and contemporary advancements, this research underscores the significance of North Macedonia's archaeological heritage and its continued study in a global context. This research underscores the significance of integrating digital tools into heritage management and education to protect and promote Macedonia's cultural assets for future generations.

Key words: *Cultural Heritage, Research History, Results, North Macedonia*

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Introduction

My topic entitled immovable cultural heritage, digital technologies and education in R. S. Macedonia is connected with cultural heritage, the education about it, and the modern digital technologies with which it is processed and supplemented, reconstructed, and visually presented in the Republic of S. Macedonia.

The three segments have different levels of research and application. Cultural heritage is the most researched and classified. For several decades, one national and several local protection institutes, as well as conservation centers, have existed and functioned successfully. With the establishment of the Administration for the Protection of Cultural Heritage in 2004, a new factor and quality in protection was added. Starting from the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, as well as from other international conventions for the protection of human rights, the Macedonian cultural heritage is established as a fundamental value of the state and society that is protected in all circumstances.

Located in Southeast Europe, the Republic of Macedonia is a country with a rich history, and complex socio-economic development and represents a crossroad between civilizations in the past which has resulted in remarkable cultural diversity and a rich archaeological heritage. The geographical position of the Republic of Macedonia being in the central part of the Balkan Peninsula, and a lot of natural beauties and goods that are found here, have been a major cause of these spaces being inhabited by different people and civilizations, ranging from ancient Greece and the Roman Empire to the Ottoman Empire.[2] All of them have left traces in the material culture of the Republic of Macedonia as fortresses, cemeteries, houses, churches, monasteries, mosques, baths, etc. in various styles, from Byzantine to Oriental, but all of them have their own indigenous native art.[3] Archaeological findings, castles, churches, mosques, and folk architecture arouse special interest.

In this regard, according to the Archaeological map of the Republic of Macedonia, more than 4700 archaeological sites dating from the Palaeolithic to the Ottoman epoch are registered in Macedonia. The above figure cannot be far from reality but it must be taken into consideration also that, even recently, new

[2] M. Panov, *Touristic values of particular areas in the Republic of Macedonia: Annual* Proceedings (book 16), Skopje, 1968, 217-272
[3] I. Baseski, *Cultural monuments in Prilep and surrounding,* G. Sight, Skopje, 1981, 88-98

archaeological sites of notable importance have been discovered, opening the possibility of further increasing the numbers and distribution of the cultural heritage in Macedonia. Around 100 of them are protected by law, and in addition, the archaeological sites of Skupi, Stobi, and Heraclea Lyncestis, including all archaeological sites discovered in the old town core of Ohrid are protected with legal Act by the Government of the Republic of Macedonia. In addition, approximately 30 archaeological collections located in the national and local museums have extensive protection.[4]

Taken as a whole, the immovable cultural heritage of Macedonia appears quite impressive: a cultural heritage spanning from prehistory to Hellenistic, Roman, Byzantine, and Ottoman cultural contexts and resources. The same can be said of the richness of the collections of the Macedonian museums, some of them of exceptional importance, especially in the field of Byzantine painting.[5]

About the history of cultural heritage research.

Archeology has a difficult but noble task, from the broken remains of the objects that once represented a direct or indirect reflection of human thoughts, beliefs, aspirations, and needs, to assembling munitions mosaics that should adequately reflect the long-past reality. Bringing to light, preserving, and putting to service these monuments of cultural heritage for the benefit of humanity has been and remains a constant challenge. Therefore, the great interest of researchers in dealing with the issue of cultural heritage should not be surprising.

This interest in researching the cultural heritage of North Macedonia has long attracted many archaeologists, culturologists, tour guides, amateurs, etc., to publish their results in the form of studies, catalogs, or diaries.

An important aid when dealing with material culture and its role in everyday life is *The Archaeological Map of the Republic of Macedonia*[6] with the material documented therein. Only archaeological research enables us to place the findings of

[4] Pasko Kuzman, *Archaeological sites*, Skopje: Cultural heritage protection office, 2009, 11.
[5] *Cultural Heritage in South-East Europe: MACEDONIA* (Former Yugoslav Republic of), Mission Report 14-23 November 2004, Venice: UNESCO, 2004, 16.
[6] *Arheološka karta na Republika Makedonija*, I-II. Skopje 1996.

this study on a broader source basis.[7] Evidence of material culture supplements the information provided by written sources and is often the only source of information on various aspects of everyday life.

In the context of archaeological research and cultural heritage in Macedonia and other countries under Ottoman rule, the circumstances were not very favorable for their development until the 19th century. Evliya Çelebi (1611-1682) is one of the most famous Ottoman travelogues, besides Silahdar, Solak Zade, Hadji Kalfa, and so on. Evliya Çelebi's numerous and extensive "Travelogues" (Seyahatname) mostly contain memoirs of Ottoman culture and religion, but also provide important: historical, and geographical information. In his Travelogue (Seyahatname) he described several towns, including Skopje, Kumanovo, Bitola, Resen, Stip, and Prilep. Though his notes are primarily about contemporary life, architecture, culture, and society, he occasionally provides some historical information on the old towers, ruins, mosques, etc. It is quite probable that in his notes on the journey undertaken in 1670 to Albania, which Çelebi recorded in his 8th volume, some parts of Via Egnatia were described.[8]

Indeed, the interest in antiquities increased with the arrival of more foreign travelers in the 19th century. The earliest systematic work that included the N. Macedonian regions was *Theophilus Lucas Fridericus Tafel* from 1837 and 1841–1842 on Via Egnatia, an old prehistoric and ancient road connecting the Adriatic with the Aegean, passing across the southernmost parts of N. Macedonia. Among the Western authors who researched and described historic Macedonia and its antiquities were quite frequently consuls and other civil servants in foreign missions. François Charles Hugues Laurent Pouqueville, before becoming a French consul in Patras, extensively traveled across (still Ottoman) Greece and the Balkans. In 1805 he published *Voyage en Moreé at à Constantinople et en Albanie*,[9] and in 1820 *Voyage*

[7] R. Wenskus, "Randbemerkungen zum Verhältnis von Historie und Archäologie, insbesondere mittelalterlicher Geschichte und Mittelalterarchäologie", in*: H. JANKUHN – R. WENSKUS (Hrsg.), Geschichtswissenschaft und Archäologie. Untersuchungen zur Siedlungs-, Wirtschafts- und Kirchengeschichte* (Vorträge und Forschungen 22). Sigmaringen 1979, 637-657.

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[9] François Charles H.L. Pouqueville, *Voyage en Morée, à Constantinople, en Albanie, et dans plusieurs autres parties de l'Empire othoman*, Volume 2, Paris: Gibon, 1805.

dans la Grece.[10] In 1811 he also visited the area of Lake Ohrid and attributed the ancient town of Lychnidos to the monastery of St. Naum. He also recorded Via Egnatia's remains in the area of Struga (north of Lake Ohrid lake).

French historian and archaeologist *Leon Heuzey* first located the city at the confluence of the rivers Crna and Vardar. Heuzey described his travels through this country in 1855 and 1861 when he visited the central and southern Aegean Macedonia and Albania.[11] The most famous British scholar who researched N. Macedonia was Arthur Evans. He published his observations on the antiquities in Macedonia and this country and his essays on antiquities from Dalmatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Kosovo in the already mentioned publication Antiquarian *Researches in Illyricum I-IV*.[12] Towards the end of the 19th century, the art and historical heritage of Macedonia also became increasingly studied by Serbian scholars (*L. Stojanović, M. Veselinović, R. Ćurković*) and Rusian (*V. Gligorovich, N.P. Kondyukov, P.H. Milyukov*).[13] Followed by Austrian philologist and diplomat J.G. von Hann. Later A. von Premerstein and N. Vulić recorded many inscriptions and monuments in its vicinity.[14]

In the context of the destruction of cultural monuments, which suffered from the First World War, we also find data published by German archaeologists. Turning to the sector of the German 11th army at the Salonica Front with the town of Prilep as its center, we come across the monograph "Auf den Trummern Stobis" published by Karl Hald in 1917, which attests to lively German archaeological activities behind the front-line. Archaeological finds and excavations were made in or near the villages of Stobi, Palikura, Rosoman, Sirkovo, and Demir Kapija. At this point, we would like to

[10] François Charles H.L. Pouqueville, Voyage *dans le* Grèce*: comprenant la description ancienne et moderne de l'Epire, de l'Illyrie grecque de la Macédonie Cisaxienne...,Paris: chez Firmin Didot père et fils,*1820.

[11] Léon Heuzey et H. Daumet, *Mission archéologique de Macédoine. par Léon Heuzey et H. Daumet*, Paris: Librairie de Firmin-Didot et C.ie, 1876; P. Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 284.

[12] Sir Arthur Evans, *Antiquarian researches in Illyricum*: Part I-IV Communicated to the Society of antiquaries, Westminster: Nichols & sons, 1883-1885.

[13] Đ. Miljković, *Prilog kon istorijata na muzejskoto delo na teritorijata na SR Makedonija*. Istoriski muzej na Makedonija, Skopje, 1982, 31; P. Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 284.

[14] *Master onservation Plan For The Archaeological Site of Stobi, R. Of North Macedonia* (edit. S. Blazhevska, A. Pencheva, J. Stewart, I. Vasilev), Skopje: National Institution Stobi, R. of North Macedonia Balkan Heritage Foundation, Bulgarija, 2021, 22-23.

emphasize the sites in Stobi and Palikura.[15] The first information on Palaeolithic finds came from Ettienne Patte (1918) who published a short article on a pointed stone hand axe found near Kristiforovo and three scrapers near Bukovo (Bitola region).

The first reported excavations started during the World War I by German officers and the archaeologist F. Krischen. Between 1923 and 1940, the excavations were directed by Balduin Saria, R. Eger, Kj. Truhelka, V. Petkovic, J. Petrovic, and Dj. Mano-Zissi from the National Museum, Serbia. Systematic growth of archeology and data on the state of cultural heritage in North Macedonia began to grow after the Second World War[16].

The first archaeologist at the Faculty of Philosophy in Skopje was Grga Novak, a Croat, but he worked as a professor of ancient history (1920-1924). It was only in 1926 that the Chair in Archaeology was established with the appointment of Ćiro Truhelka. After an extraordinary career in the Provincial Museum in Sarajevo before 1918, Truhelka, in 1926, quite reluctantly accepted the professorship in Skopje.497 He had to start from scratch since there was almost no archaeological literature in the faculty’s library, no funds for research, and archaeology was considered a supplementary subject. Despite his endeavors to secure the necessary infrastructure for teaching archaeology, after his retirement in 1931, the Chair in Archaeology was left vacant until after the Second World War. France Mesesnel took on the teaching of art history (another subject Truhelka taught).[17] The most famous site in N. Macedonia that Vulić investigated was Trebenište in the Ohrid Lake area. Between 1930 and 1934, Vulić excavated a late prehistoric necropolis and discovered two golden masks dated mid-1st millennium BC.[18]

By far the least known periods are the Palaeolithic and Mesolithic. Except for a few sporadic finds, nothing else was known about these two periods before the 1950s. The first Palaeolithic site was discovered in 1956 in the Makarovec cave near

[15] Karl Hard, *Auf den Trümmern Stobis*, Stuttgart: Strecker and Schröder, 1917; cited by: Mihailo St.Popović, Toni Filipovski, “Antique and Medieval Cultural Heritage in Macedonia during WW1: Based on German and Austrian Archival Evidence”, in: *On the Cross-Path of Cultural Ideas: Macedonia, the Balkans, Southeast Europe – Heritage*, Management, Resources. Skopje 2020, 13.

[16] P. Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 285-286.

[17] Ćiro Truhelka, “Arheološke beleške iz Južne Srbije*”, Glasnik Skopskog naučnog društva* V (skopje, 1929), 59-85; Ć. Truhelka, “Bibiografski popis mojih publikacija”, Glasnik Zemaljskog muzeja u Bosni i Hercegovini 33-34 (Sarajevo, 1921-1922), 37-42; P.Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 286.

[18] Nikola Vulić, “Antički spomenici naše zemlje”, *Spomenik* LXXI (Beograd, Drugi razred 55/1931), 218-220.

Veles, and by the late 1970s, there were still only four Palaeolithic sites recorded in the country. More systematic research was initiated in the late 1990s, mostly by surveying caves. The first systematic excavations took place only two decades ago (1999, 2003, and 2004 in the Golema Pesht site, some 60 km southwest of Skopje), revealing late Middle and Upper Palaeolithic finds. [19] On the other hand, the situation with the Neolithic period is quite the opposite. This period, together with the Iron Age, are the best-researched prehistoric periods. At present, there are some 180 to 200 known Neolithic sites in the country.[20]

The period between 1945 and 1991 was characterized by significant and dynamic development (economic, industrial, urban, and cultural). In this context, the modern Macedonian nation ultimately developed its identity in culture, religion, and language and autonomous governing institutions. The oldest archaeological institution was the National Museum (1945), which took over the collections of the former Museum of South Serbia and began building new archaeological collections in 1947.[21]

From 1955 to 1969, the Archaeological Museum of Skopje and the Agency for Protection of Monuments of Culture, North Macedonia were in charge of further archaeological research. In the timeframe of 1970 until 1980, the excavations were directed by Dj. Mano-Zissi and J. Wiseman – the Museum of Veles, North Macedonia, University of Austin, Texas, and later Boston University – both of the USA. Some rescue excavations in the nineties (1992-1995) were conducted by the Agency for Protection of Monuments of Culture, North Macedonia. Since 2008, a large-scale excavation campaign has aimed to complete the excavation of all the buildings that were only partly unearthed and to uncover new areas of the site.[22]

After gaining independence (from 1991 onwards), the changes were very gradual and not of the magnitude known from the previous periods. However, the political context left a strong imprint on archaeology's image and status in N. Macedonia. The first Macedonian archaeologists had degrees in art history (Dimče Koco, Vasil Lahtov, Blaga Aleksova) or graduated from archaeology in Belgrade and

[19] P.Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 271.
[20] Voislav Sanev, "Tumba Maxari", *Arheološka karta* 2, Skopje 1996, 377-378; Dragi Mitrevski, "Praistorija na Republika Makedonija", in:*P. Kuzman (ed.), Makedonija, Mileniumski kulturno-istoriski fakti*, vol. 1, Skopje:Media Print Makedonija and Univerzitet Euro-Balkan, 2013, 83-266; Vojislav Sanev, "Mlado kameno vreme", in: *Arheološka karta na Republika Makedonija*, Tom 1, Makedonska akademija na naukite i umetnostite and Muzej na Makedonija, Skopje 1994, 26-42.
[21] P. Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 282.
[22] https://balkanheritage.org/stobi-excavation-project/

Zagreb (Vlado Malenko, Vera Bitrakova-Grozdanova, Vojislav Sanev, Borka Josifovska).[23]

Regarding the cultural heritage of the early Christian period, the doyen of Macedonian archaeology, academician professor Dr. Blaga Aleksova, devoted his entire fruitful life to the research of early Christianity. Starting with her studies on the early Christian buildings along the course of Bregalnica, Stobi and on the territory of almost all of Macedonia, published in several renowned professional magazines from the country and abroad; to her capital work *Loca Sanctrorum Macedoniae*, she makes a cross-section of the discovered objects, their typology, distribution, as well as an attempt to sublimate the cults spread in these spaces from the 4th to the 9th century.[24]

Academic Vera Bitrakova-Grozdanova, in the study of the *Старохристијански споменици во Охридско*,[25] gives thorough observations about the dating, influences, and mosaic decoration of the early Christian buildings from the Ohrid region. Her long-term field research on the island of Golem Grad and the Prespa region provides detailed and in-depth analyses of the concentration of early Christian monuments in that region. Of course, this also includes her last works dedicated to late antique Lychnides, with a special reference to the newly discovered basilicas of the Plaoshnik site.

The last monographs of Professor Ivan Mikulčić on Stobi and Heraclea (*Хераклеја Линкестис : антички град во Македонија)* shed additional light on the appearance of the episcopal basilicas that adorned these cities in late antiquity.[26]

The monographs of Professor Elizabeta Dimitrova, *Керамичките релјефи од Виничкото Кале, Ѓурѓа; Најстарите христијански симболи; and Виничката мистерија, Керамичката ризница од доцноантичкото кале*;[27] It is an in-depth fund for elucidating the entangled ecclesiastical-historical occasions in the 5th and 6th

[23] P. Novaković, *The history of archeology in the Western Balkans*, 290.
[24] Blaga Aleksova*, Loca sanctorum Macedoniae: the cult of martyrs in Macedonia from the 4th to the 9th centuries*, Skopje: Institut for Old Slav Culture, Prilep; Macedonian civilization, Skopje, 1997; Блага Алексова, Виктор Лилчиќ, "КАТАЛОГ Ранохристијански цркви во Македонија", *Македонско Наследство* 5 (Скопје, 1997), 21-25; Блага Алексова, "Ранохристијанскиот период, во монографијата" *Уметнчко богатство на Македонија*, (Скопје 1984), 96-119.
[25] Вера Битракова-Грозданова, *Старохристијански споменици во Охридско*, Охрид, 1975.
[26] Иван Микулчиќ, *Хераклеја Линкестис : антички град во Македонија – Heraclea: ancient City in Macedonia*, Magor, 2007; idem, *Антички градови во Македонија, макропроект*: *Историја на културата на Македонија*, книга 8, Скопје: МАНУ, 1999.
[27] Елизабета Димитрова, *Керамичките релјефи од Виничкото Кале, Ѓурѓа*, Скопје 1993; idem, *Најстарите христијански симболи, Македонска цивилизација,* Скопје 1995; idem, *иничката мистерија, Керамичката ризница од доцноантичкото кале - The Vinica Mystery. The Ceramic Treasuries of a Late Antique Fortress,* Музеј теракота, Виница 2012.

centuries, as well as for a stylistic-iconographical analysis of fine art, which in the period from the appearance of Christianity, breathes with its fine art patterns.

The monograph of Professor Snezhana Filipova, *Архитектонска декоративна скулптура во Македонија во 5-6 и 11-12 век*; represents a significant step forward towards the understanding of early Christian symbolism, style and iconography.[28]

The corpus of previous publications represents a solid base that will continue to bring new research and conclusions in the field of archeology and cultural heritage.

Conclusions:

The conclusion of this paper emphasizes the ongoing importance and challenges of archaeology in North Macedonia. It highlights the field's role in reconstructing historical realities from fragmented material culture and stresses the significance of preserving and utilizing cultural heritage for the benefit of humanity.

The paper acknowledges the long-standing interest of researchers, from early travelers and scholars to modern archaeologists, in documenting and analyzing the region's rich archaeological and cultural history. It details how systematic archaeological efforts evolved over time, particularly after the Second World War and during the country's independence, with increasing contributions from Macedonian scholars.

Continued interest in cultural heritage – Research into the archaeological wealth of North Macedonia has attracted local and foreign scholars, producing a number of publications and studies.

Contributions of foreign and local scholars - from Ottoman and European travelers (Silahdar, Solak Zade, Hadji Kalfa and so on. Evliya Çelebi's) of past centuries to modern scholars, ancient settlements, historical roads such as the Via Egnatia and various archaeological monuments have been documented and explored.

Development of archaeology in different periods – Until the 19th century, conditions for the development of archaeology were unfavorable. After World War II

[28] Снежана Филипова, *Архитектонска декоративна скулптура во Македонија во 5-6 и 11-12 век*, Скопје Мелбурн: Матица Македонска, 1997; Idem, *Ранохристијанските културни центри и творечките процеси во уметноста на Македонија*, Скопје 2020.

and during the socialist period (1945-1991), there was a great development in this field, while after the independence of Macedonia in 1991, the changes were gradual but significant.

Study of Early - Christianity Renowned Macedonian scholars have made a great contribution to the study of Christian heritage, analyzing basilicas, mosaics, and early Christian symbols.

Continuity of archaeological research – Numerous publications and monographs constitute a solid basis for further research, paving the way for new discoveries in the field of archaeology and cultural heritage of North Macedonia.

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Administrative, Social and Structural Factors as Predictors of Access to Public University Education in Nigeria

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Abstract

Access to education is a human right phenomenon which is greatly encouraged by local, regional and international human rights declarations and other similar allied documents in the world. Despite this development, the manner in which access to education is fostered and provided varies from one country to another worldwide. In Nigeria, access to education, especially university education is hunted by numerous factors, some of which are legally created to boost it, but turn out to become issues due the ways they are implemented. Therefore, this study investigated the extent at which administrative, social and structural factors potentially influence access to university education in Nigeria. Therefore, to achieve the objectives of the study, one hundred and fifty (150) undergraduate students were selected as samples from University of Ibadan. Stratified sampling technique cum random sampling method was used for the selection of respondents for the study. A self-structured questionnaire titled 'Administrative, Social and Structural Factors as Predictors of Access to University Education Questionnaire (ASSFPAUEQ)' was used for collection of data. The coefficients cronbach alpha method of reliability was calculated and the instrument was found to be 0.752, 0.772 and 0.679 for administrative, social and structural factors respectively. Data collected was analysed through Pearson Product Moment correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis. The study discovered that all the independent variables contributed significantly to the prediction of access to University education, and it was recommended that a complete review of the administrative, social and structural factors should be conducted in

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order make them more productive to increase access to university education in the country.
Keywords: *Access, Administrative Factors, Social Factors and Structural Factors*

Introduction

The issue of access to education is long recognised by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and other similar allied documents promulgated locally and internationally, that everyone has the right to quality education. These documents evidently guaranteed the inalienable right of every individual to receive education as long as such a person is willing and ready for it. Therefore, guarantying access to education is promoting the right, opportunity or means of making education available within the reach of every citizen of a nation (Enaohwo, 2009). Access to education is the opportunity to facilitate entry as well as enrolment of learners to a given level of education. It also encompasses the retention of learners in the appropriate level of education to completion. The significance of education perhaps provoked nations across the globe to accept it as a tool for unlocking the unlimited opportunities at all levels of societal strata. Thus, education is the instrument for human capital development for advancement and transformation of societies. According to Alimba (2020), education ensures that the innate potentials of people are positively transformed to enhance their abilities and capabilities to make meaningful contributions to their personal improvement and the growth of their societies. Therefore, the achievement of laudable educational objectives demand that the issue of access should be given priority attention in the way it is planned, organised and implemented in a country. There are numerous factors influencing how education should be planned and delivered to enhance quality and promote access in societies. For instance, in Nigeria, achieving quality and access have been hindered by many factors, especially with regards to university education. Fabunmi (2003) posited that politics, economy, culture, technology and religion influence access at all levels of education in Nigeria. However, the ways and manner these factors play out vary from one country to another. Therefore, depending on how they are manifesting in a system, the devastating effects of the interplay of these factors will prevent people from gaining entrance into tertiary institutions, thereby thwarting access at that level of education in an unimaginable way in the country. It is important to note at this point that the increasing demand for university education without sufficient supply of spaces to absorb all the candidates that applied has implicated access to university education in a great measure. Also, the parameters employed as the measuring indexes coupled with the poor socio-economic conditions of parents, have made many candidates seeking admission to be denied of the opportunity.

In Nigeria, these measuring indexes in the forms of administrative factors, social factors as well as structural elements have severely hindered the attainment of access to education, due to the they are implemented and the economic status with regards to the per capita income of consumers in the country. This development, therefore, runs contrarily to the provisions of Universal Declaration of Human Rights with respect to access to education. This is because many of the potential qualified university candidates are often prevented from gaining admission based on the existing parameters provided to promote equity and justice in the system. There are 170 universities in Nigeria, the federal and state governments own 43 and 48 respectively, while 79 universities are privately owned (Statista, 2021). Despite this, so many potential candidates that applied for admission will not be offered, especially in federal and state institutions because of availability of limited spaces with increasing demand for admission. Thus, many of the candidates that will be denied admission will have to rewrite the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) in order to start seeking admission afresh. The denial, in most cases, are attributed to the existing criteria such quota system and carry capacity put in place universities to guide the conduct of admission exercise. The socioeconomic conditions of parents equally play a vital role in decision making process for the admission of children. Also, the social factors such as funding and school facilities often shape the selection process. This is because these factors contribute in large measures either to promoting access or causing it to shrink. However, this depends on the degree at which they are provided and their implementation patterns in a society. For instance, an average Nigerian is finding it difficult to cope with the subsidised tuition fees and other necessary fees payable in public universities; therefore, the decision to attend private universities is not an option because the fees are very high in the country. Therefore, those candidates that will rewrite the UTME, do so for the sake of seeking university education at a minimum cost bearing level in public institutions in the country. Table 1 showed the state of admission offered to candidates in relations to the number that applied in Nigeria.

Table 1: Number of Registered and Admitted Students in Nigeria (2015-2019)

Year	Number of	Number of	Number of	Percentage of

	Registered students	students not admitted	students admitted	students not admitted
2015	1,475,600	952,744	522,856	65%
2016	1,592,462	1,031,537	560,925	65%
2017	1,722,269	1,155,628	566,641	67%
2018	1,653,127	1,069,877	583,250	65%
2019	1,886,509	1,273,952	612,557	68%

Source: Stears Business (2021)

From the Table, it is clear that the border line of the percentage of the number of students not offered admission from 2015 to 2019 ranges from 65% to 68%. Going by these indicators, the numbers of those candidates not admitted are far more than half of the candidates that applied for admission. This analysis critically reflects the need to examine the predicting factors to access to university education in Nigeria.

Statement and Conceptualisation of Hypotheses

The problem of access to university education around the world and particularly in Nigeria, is a serious one that contributes immensely to robbing societies of their capacities to produce highly skilled manpower that will make tangible contributions to the growth and development of their economies. In Nigeria, the issue has become a pathetic one in this contemporary time. This perhaps motivated Ojo (2008) to raise a fundamental question that why has higher education not served the cause of Nigeria's development. Ojo (2008) linked the answer to the worrisome issue of access, and indicated that Nigeria has not yet produced a critical mass of persons with the requisite generic skills needed to create the necessary paradigm shift that will bring about development of the country. Why this line of thought is factual, however, there are administrative, socioeconomic and structural factors inhibiting the capacity of tertiary institutions to accommodate more candidates by the way of offering them admission opportunity. The issues of quota system, catchment areas, carry capacity and the idea of educationally backward states were created to provide favourable atmosphere that will promote equity and equality in the educational system in order to enhance access. However, these factors have turned out to be terrible barriers to access to higher education in Nigeria. Abdu and Joshua (2019) observed that regardless of the fact that quota system created opportunities for disadvantaged states and provided special considerations for candidates from educationally disadvantaged states, the policy encouraged discrimination and undermined merit in university admission. Omeje, Egwa and Adikwu (2016) were of the opinion that quota system has inequitable effect on students' admission processes; bastardises admissions process, contributes to the production of low-quality graduates among others. The point is that the issues of quota system, carrying capacity, infrastructural facilities, funding and socioeconomic conditions of parents and their connections with access to education, especially university education, is not peculiar to Nigerian education system. These elements equally exist in different forms in educational systems around the world. Fundamentally, quota system is not primarily unique to only the education system, it can also be used as a parameter in other areas of life endevours such as politics. It was pointed out many parliamentary democracies that have implemented quotas of women to stand for election, include Germany, France, Belgium, Bolivia, Rwanda and Palestine. Such quotas have produced greater female representation in parliaments and changes in public policy and legislation that have an impact upon women's well-being (Encyclopedia, 2018).

This statement is insightful in the sense that it shows that quota system is being used in many countries and in other areas of life endevours. Therefore, its outcome is a function of how it is implemented in a place. In Jordan, Woldegiorgis (2015) revealed that most Jordanian citizens see the Quota Law as a great assistance to the political representation and improvement of women in politics, while in Brazil, the state of Rio de Janeiro instituted preferential admissions policies for black and mixed-race students in 2011, this provision has already led to more than 200 lawsuits (Salmi and Bassett, 2012). India has by far the most elaborate system in the world, with quotas absorbing half of all the seats in some of its public universities (Salmi and Bassett, 2012). Thus, quota system and other administrative parameters such as carrying capacity, may not be completely bad, but the ingenuity of the implementers to judiciously employ these elements as expected to accomplish set goals is the major problem. In Nigeria, in tackling educational imbalance, the adoption of quota system, carrying capacity catchment areas amongst others have acted as a catalyst for promoting the achievement of this goal. However, due to how these elements are being implemented in educational systems, they resulted in the reproduction of mediocrity and inequalities in some places. For instance, Nwogu (2015) asserted that due to the existence and operations of these parameters all that the educational system is doing at present is to deepen already extremely high level of social inequality in Nigeria. Also, it was advanced that while originally intended to address differences in socio-economic and educational development among its 36 states, the Nigerian quota system is today accused by some people as promoting educational mediocrity and even curtailing development (Opara, 2017). These observations are obvious reflections of the fact that administrative factors were originally designed to promote equality, equity and egalitarianism in Nigerian educational system, but have along the line become a very big menace to the advancement of the system. The social and structural factors have always been there, however, in the recent times, they have been widened due to the dynamics of the forces politics, social and economic policies of government in the country. This development has resulted in adverse consequences on the nature of decision making of government concerning the educational attainments of citizens, as well as parents on their wards. Therefore, given this development, it becomes essential to raise the following hypotheses, which are tested at 0.05 level of significance to empirically determine the potency and dynamics of these variables in connection with access to university education in Nigeria. The hypotheses are:

$H0_1$ administrative factors (quota system and carrying capacity) have no significant relationship with access to university education.

$H0_2$ social factors (educational funding and infrastructural facilities) will not significantly have relationship with access to university education

$H0_3$ structural factors (socio-economic status and economic condition) will not have significant relationship with access to university education.

$H0_4$ there will be no joint contribution among administrative factors (quota system and carrying capacity) social factors (educational funding and school infrastructural facilities) and structural factors (socio-economic status and economic conditions) on access to University education.

Scope of the Study

This study focuses on interrogating the relationship of administrative factors (i.e quota system and carrying capacity); social factors (i.e educational funding and school infrastructural facilities) and structural factors (i.e socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents) with access to university education. In doing this, the undergraduate students of University of Ibadan were used as samples for the study.

Review of Related Literature

The thematic issues germane to the study were reviewed to reflect on their relevance and to increase their understanding. Therefore, quota system is a policy that limits resource distribution and allocation on a specific proportion among its beneficiaries. According to Encyclopedia (2018), quota traditionally emerged from pragmatic discussions regarding the implementation of legislation or constitutional mandates to pursue equality among citizens. A clear fact about quota is that it has the force of the law, and therefore, should be observed in areas attributed to it. Abdu and Joshua (2019) asserted that quota system in education simply refers to allocating certain percentage of parameter or resources to different groups, mostly which could be based on race or ethnicity as a selection method for admission into government own institutions. Thus, the criteria set up to govern the operations of quota are mostly gear towards the “pursue of equality among citizens”. Quota, therefore, is put in place to promote equity and guarantee equality in the distribution of educational resources in a plural society. It has to do with an attempt to provide a level playing ground for all categories of citizens, with particular emphasis on 'disadvantaged groups' rather than injured individuals (Lee, 1999). In Nigeria, the federal government guidelines for admission into government owned universities are based on the quota system, which is: 45% merit, 35% catchment/locality, and 20% educationally less-developed states, especially in the Northern states.

Despite the fact that this admission policy is meant to provide equitable access to federal and state institutions based on academic merit, residential zones, and discretion, the competition for admission for limited spaces has led to unintended practices such as cheating in prequalifying examinations, bribery for admission, manipulation of examination scores, and denial of admission. More importantly, some of the most competent students who have great potentials are often denied admission because of geographical constraints, discretion, or over-emphasis on science majors as opposed to arts in Nigeria. Quota system is highly disadvantageous in the sense that student from Northern states, that even scored less mark in matriculation examinations will be given admission at the expense of students from Southern states with higher marks. The implications of this development are that universities will be losing bright and more qualified students just because of quota system, and this will produce huge impact on the efficiency of the university system (Akpan and Undie, 2007), and the nature of outputs that will be turned out into the society. Carrying capacity is the maximum number of candidates that a particular institution can admit based on the available resources in a given academic session. Abdulkareeem and Muraina (2014) posited that carrying capacity means that students are admitted based on the facilities available. They further indicated that these facilities include adequate lecture rooms, well stocked libraries, good staff/student ratio, accommodation, etc. The capacity of universities to admit candidates students is a function of the available institutional resources in a given academic session. The essence of this policy is to enhance quality and efficiency of the system. However, this policy has become an impediment to access to university education as universities are careful not to exceed this capacity by high margins in order not to incur sanctions from the Nigerian Universities Commission (Abdulkareeem and Muraina, 2014). Therefore, no institution can admit above its carrying capacity, no matter the number of candidates that applied for admission. Also, there is the problem of absorption capacity, where the increasing number of students seeking admission into universities far outpaces the rate of capacity expansion in Nigerian public universities.

Many students, based on this development, are discouraged from furthering their education, because it will be extremely difficult for them to secure admission, due to this challenge. The point is that carrying capacity limits access and may encourage increased anti-social behaviours practices among the youths that were denied admission. Equally, social factors such as funding and infrastructural facilities limit access to education. Shackman (2017) was of the opinion that social factors are any variable which arises from culture, environment, community, family, organization, society, government, the state, the media, technology, religion, ideology, discourse, language, communication, and which influences the individual to think and act in a certain way when taking decision regarding any choice of career, education or life matter.

These factors play dominant roles in the ways events are viewed, conducted and delivered. The nature of decision households will make at a particular time on access is going to be affected by these factors. Consequently, the expansion of educational system to accommodate more candidates is a function of the provision of these social elements such funding and school facilities in the country. Thus, enhanced funding will accomplish the expansion phenomenon of education. In the year 1999, a budget of 11.2% allocated to education was reduced to 5.9% in 2002 and 1.83% in 2003 (Aluede, Idogho and Imonikhe, 2012). Subsequently, the budget was increased and later continuously started declining from 10.7% in 2015, 7.9% in 2016, 7.4% in 2017, 7.04% in 2018, 7.05% in 2019, 6.7% in 2020 and 5.6% in 2021(Premium Times, 2021). These figures are far below the 26% minimum standard recommended by UNESCO for emerging countries as the bench mark for educational development. The chronic under-funding of education, especially at the university level is one of the incidents that have intensified the manifestations of strike actions by lecturers, and protests by students in the recent times. The point is that funding will ultimately prevent the expansion of the educational system, which will dysfunctionally affect access to education. The insufficiency of infrastructure and equipment coupled with poor library and laboratory facilities have become a major threat to access to university education in Nigeria. According to Okebukola (2013), 15-30% of the infrastructure and equipment in Nigerian higher institutions especially in public establishments are outdated. Generally, the environment of classrooms, hostel facilities, libraries and the laboratories in public universities are obsolete and cannot adequately support teaching and learning process. In addition, the structural factors such as socioeconomic status and economic conditions of parents and potential candidates also have bearing on access to education. Individual's or family's economic and social positions in relations to income, education and occupation as well as their present economic status contribute significantly to their educational attainments. According to World Bank Report (2022), in Nigeria, as many as 4 in 10 Nigerians live below the national poverty line. The high level of poverty in Nigeria has implications on the fact that many will find it difficult to afford to pay for their children's educational fees. Thus, it is evident that an average parent cannot afford to send their children to private universities, as alternative means of accessing tertiary education in the country. The incident of labour market failure (i.e low absorptive capacity of the economy) and unemployment tend to hinder access to education. Ajayi and Adeniji (2009) described unemployment as the basic cause of the failure in the educational system in Nigeria. In essence, the peculiarities of the administrative, social and structural factors to predict access to university education needs to be empirically tested and situated. Therefore, it becomes paramount to determine the extent at which these factors operate to underscore access to university education in Nigeria.

Methodology

The study is practically a descriptive research survey by design, and this design is adopted to critically examine individuals, groups, institutions, methods and materials in order to describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyse and interpret the entities and the events that constitute the various fields of enquiry (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Therefore, the design was used to determine the potentialities of the administrative, social and structural factors to significantly predict access to university education. The study adopted a stratified sampling technique, which allowed the researchers to uniquely divide the population of the students into strata based on certain characteristics possessed by each group such as identifying the entrance pattern of students, whether through matriculation examination or direct entry, income capability of students etc. Subsequently, a random sampling method was used to select the undergraduate students used as sample for the study. Thus, a total of one hundred and fifty (150) undergraduate students were chosen from University of Ibadan, Nigeria. A structured questionnaire titled "Administrative, Social and Structural Factors as Predictors of Access to University Education (ASSFPAUEQ)", designed by the researchers was employed for data collection. Face and content validity were used to determine the validity of the instrument. This was conducted by using three scholars in the field of educational management to assess the questionnaire in order to determine its validity. The observations of the scholars were used as inputs in the final development of the questionnaire. A pilot test was conducted on undergraduate students of Ladoke Akintola University of Technology (LAUTECH) to determine the reliability of the instrument. The estimated cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) of internal consistency of 0.752, 0.772 and 0.679 for administrative, social and structural factors were established. Thus, the pilot test indicated that the instrument is reliable to be used for the study. Data collected was analysed with Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis.

Results and Discussion

The tables and consequent explanations that follow represent results and its interpretations.

Hypothesis 1

Administrative factors with regards to quota system and carrying capacity do not have any significant relationship with access to university education.

Table 1a: Quota system and Access to University Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
Quota System	150	16.3667	2.45063	0.254	0.002	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 1a presented the results of the relationship between quota system and access to university education. The null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there was a significant relationship between quota system and access to university education ($r=0.254$; $p<0.05$.) This implies that quota system will considerably influence access to university education.

Table 1b: Carrying Capacity and Access to University Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
Carrying Capacity	150	15.8200	2.48504	0.155	0.000	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 1b revealed the results of the relationship between carrying capacity and access to university education. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, showing that there was significant relationship between carrying capacity and access to university education ($r=0.155$; $p<0.05$). This is an indication that carrying capacity can substantially affect access to university education.

Hypothesis 2

Social factors in the forms of educational funding and infrastructural facilities do not have any

significant relationship with access to university education.

Table 2a: Funding and Access to University Education.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
Funding	150	16.0933	2.23561	0.182	0.026	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 2a indicated the results of the relationship between funding and access to university education. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there was a positive relationship between educational funding and access to university education ($r=0.182$; $p<0.05$). This is a reflection of the fact that funding is significantly related to access to university education.

Table 2b: School Infrastructural Facilities and Access to University Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
School Infrastructural Facilities	150	14.9067	3.47058	0.140	0.037	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 2b presented the results of the relationship between school infrastructural facilities and access to university education. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, signifying that there was a significant relationship between school infrastructural facilities and access to university education ($r=0.140$; $p<0.05$). This means that school infrastructural facilities will considerably predict access to university education.

Hypothesis 3

Structural factors such as socio-economic status and economic condition of parents do not have any significant relationship with access to university education.

Table 3a: Socio-Economic Status and Access to university Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
Socio-Economic Status	150	15.1133	2.52912	0.209	0.010	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 3a indicated the results of the relationship between socio-economic status of parents and access to university education. The result showed that the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there was positive relationship between socio-economic status of parents and access to university education ($r=0.209$; $p<0.05$). This means that socio-economic status of parents have the potential to significantly influence access to university education.

Table 3b: Economic Conditions and Access to university Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	r	Sig.	P	Remark
Economic Conditions	150	16.0800	2.65593	0.124	0.012	< 0.05	Significant
Access to University Education	150	17.6200	2.18497				

Table 3b signified the results of the relationship between economic conditions of parents and access to university education. The result revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected, showing that there is a significant relationship between economic conditions of parents and access to university education. ($r=0.124$; $p<0.05$). This implies that the economic condition of parents relates significantly with access to university education.

Hypothesis 4: Administrative factors, social factors, and structural factors do not make any relative contributions to access to university education.

Table 4: Joint Contribution of Independent Variables on Access to University Education

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	10.005	1.861		5.375	.000
Quota system	.190	.074	.213	2.552	.012
Carrying capacity	.032	.079	.036	.400	.031
Funding	.051	.090	.053	.570	.050
Infrastructural facilities	.040	.060	.064	.672	.037
Socio-economic Status	.139	.071	.160	1.940	.043
Economic Condition	.030	.080	.037	.382	.028

a. Dependent Variable: Access to university education

Table 4 presented a Multiple Regression Analysis of the relative contributions of the variables to access to university education. The result clearly showed that all the factors (i.e independent variables) were found to be significant with access to university education. Also, it is explicit from the table that quota system made the highest contribution to access to university education at ß = 0.213, t(150), $p<0.05$; followed by socio-economic status of parents at ß = 0.160, t(150), $p<0.05$; and school infrastructural facilities at ß = 0.064, t(150), $p<0.05$. The next to school infrastructural facilities was educational funding at ß = 0.053, t(150), $p<0.05$; which is followed by economic conditions of parents at ß = 0.036, t(150), $p<0.05$ and lastly, carrying capacity at ß = 0.036, t(150), $p<0.05$. It can be observed that all the independent variables contributed significantly to access to university education. This is a revelation that administrative factors, social factors and structural factors were positive predictors of access to university education.

Hypothesis 5: *Administrative factors, social factors, and structural factors do not make any joint contributions to access to university education.*

Table 5: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Model		Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	82.809	6	13.802	3.140	.006[b]
	Residual	628.531	143	4.395		
	Total	711.340	149			

Model Summary

Model	1
R	.341[a]
R Square	.116
Adjusted R Square	.079
Std. Error of the Estimate	2.09650

Table 5 showed the Regression Analysis of the joint contributions of administrative, social and structural factors to access to university education. The result revealed that the joint contributions of the factors (i.e independent variables) to access to university education were found to be significant at ($F(6, 143) = 3.140$; $R = 0.341$; $R^2 = 0.116$; Adj.R^2= 0.79; $p<0.05$). The result $R^2 = 0.116$ was an indication that the independent variables, which are: quota system, carrying capacity, educational funding, school infrastructural facilities, socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents accounted for 11.6% of the total variance. This means that all the factors have the potential to collectively influence access to university education. Thus, there is significant joint contributions of administrative, social and structural factors to access to university education in Nigeria.

Discussion of Findings

The study found out that administrative, social and structural factors can significantly influence access to university education. Tables 1 to 3 measured the individual relationships of the independent variables with the dependent variable. Therefore, it was discovered that quota system, carrying capacity, educational funding, school infrastructural facilities, socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents respectively significantly predicted access to university education. Thus, the independent variables have positive linear connection with the dependent variable. Therefore, any adjustment on any of the independent variables will significantly affect the dependent variable. Table 4 expressed the relative contributions of administrative, social and structural factors on access to university education, and it was discovered that all the independent variables reliably predicted access to university education. Table 5 signified the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the variables considered in the study. The independents variables accounted for 11.6% of the total variance observed in relations to the dependent variable (i.e access to university education); leaving the remaining 88.4% to other factors that are not considered in the study. Also, it was uncovered that the combination of all the independent variables reliably predicted access to university education.

Thus, it is posited that administrative, social and structural factors were significantly related to access to university education. These findings are in agreement with the findings of Omeje, Egwa and Adikwu (2016) and Thorat (2006). According to Omeje, Egwa and Adikwu (2016), the quota system and the catchment areas are federal government policies formulated to bridge the gap between the educationally developed states and the educationally less developed states, and the impact of the quota system and catchment area policies on students' admission was to a high extent. This idea showed that quota system and catchment area policies greatly impacted on the admission of students into tertiary institutions in the country. Thus, these factors have the potential to influence access to university education. Thorat (2006) was of the opinion that the quota system policy in India has increased the enrollment rate of Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) groups in higher institutions. The study noted that the proportion of SCs among total graduates increased from 3.3 percent in 1981 to 7.8 percent in 1990s, while that of Scheduled Tribe (ST) increased from 0.8 percent in 1981 to 2.7 percent in 1990s. This study critically revealed that quota system to a large extent influences the enrolment level of students, and therefore, it is a potent predictor of access to university education. Also, the issues of educational funding and school infrastructural facilities were found to significantly influence access to university education. The studies of Karimi (2015) and Wanyama; Makatiani and Sifuna (2021) confirmed these findings. Karimi (2015) reported that the poor enrolment of university students in courses in Science and Technology was attributed to low funding. The Commission for University Education in Kenya in 2016 reported that only 29% of students were studying a course in Science and Technology, and Wanyama; Makatiani and Sifuna (2021) linked this development to poor funding of education. Therefore, they recommended that funding of public universities needs to be backed by a coherent policy which prioritizes quality and quantity in Science and Technology (Wanyama; Makatiani and Sifuna, 2021). Obviously, proper funding of education is germane to access to higher education worldwide. According to Kogan et al. (2006), the level, composition, and mechanisms of funding are part of a broader spectrum of governance arrangements that work towards helping the higher education sector achieve its three traditional goals of improving access, enhancing quality, and encouraging efficiency. Therefore, to achieve access to university education, funding is a crucial element, which should be given priority attention to achieve it. Equally, school infrastructural facilities were found to be significant to access to university education. This finding is in accord with the studies of Semako (2021); CAF Development Bank of Latin American (2016) and United Nations Children's Fund(UNICEF)(2009).

Semako (2021) posited that the provision, availability and utilisation of educational facility are major requirement in the accreditation of programmes/courses, admission of student and quality of teaching given to students in line with carrying capacity. Since educational facilities are connected to the admission of students, this mean that it has bearing the total number of students that will be offered admission at a particular time. Therefore, school infrastructural facilities are a function of access to education, whether at the lower or higher level. The CAF Development Bank of Latin American (2016) reported that a good school infrastructure, with renewed spaces, makes it possible for children and youths that live in remote areas to study and, that investments in school infrastructure have an essential role in solving access problems of students to the school system and to improve their performance. The UNICEF (2009) reported that the World Bank found that investments in school facilities in Peru to increase students' attendance rates. The point is that the availability of infrastructural facilities in schools will help to enhance the retention of students and contribute significantly to access to education, especially at the university level. This study also discovered that socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents have impact on access to university education. This finding was in tandem with the report of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development(OECD)(2006) that social factors such as family income if they are not taken into consideration when awarding funding (including scholarships), can limit access of poorer students to higher education. Therefore, the socio-economic status of parents and their economic conditions are fundamental to the issue of access to education. Sidik and Satrianto (2020) observed that there was a significant positive effect of parental income, number of children and location of residence on the interest in continuing postgraduate education. Similarly, Li, and Qiu (2018) posited that family socio-economic status affects parents' educational expectations towards children and their educational participation. They further indicated that the socio-economic status of parents has a direct impact on children's quality of school attendance, education services children are receiving on market price, parental education participation, and children's academic behavior, and indirectly affects children's academic achievement. These findings are a testimony to the findings of this study, in the sense that access to university education has bearing on the socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents. Therefore, parents that are affluent are likely to send their children to alternative higher institutions if they are denied admission in government owned universities. These statements are true to the extent that in the United States, England, and Australia, for example, higher education participation rates are generally much higher for children of professional and upper income families when compared with those of working class and lower income homes(Paton, 2013 and Pell Institute, 2015)

Conclusion

This study investigated the relationship between quota system, carrying capacity, educational funding, school infrastructural facilities, socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents on one hand and access to university education on the other hand. The study has successfully come up with illuminating ideas on the factors that can predict access to education, more specifically access to university education, which has become a serious subject not only in Nigeria, but the world in general. It is clear that sometimes, access to university education can be hindered by some policies which are possibly legally designed to enhance it. These factors were critically examined to determine the extent at which they relate to access to university education. Therefore, the study showed that all the independent variables (i.e quota system, carrying capacity, educational funding, school infrastructural facilities, socio-economic status and economic conditions of parents) can individually, relatively and jointly influence access to university education. By implications, all the independent variables were significantly related to access to university education, which can be interpreted that each of the variable has the potential to influence access to university education positively or dysfunctionally. For these variables to exert positive influence on access to university education, they must be implemented accordingly as improve the system. The idea is that it is possible to achieve greater access to university education, if administrative factors (i.e quota system and carrying capacity), social factors (i.e educational funding and school infrastructures) and structural factors (i.e socio-economic status and economic condition) were constantly improved or expanded. The expansion should be such that will be directed towards encouraging more students to gain admission into the system. However, it is important to acknowledge that government cannot overlook these factors if its policies concerning the issue of access to education at all level must be effected. The way the policies will be initiated, implemented and sustained will have bearing on the state of access to any level of education in a country.

Part from this, the finding that these variables have the potential to individually, relatively or jointly influence access to university education, therefore, give the impression that they are vital issues that should be given the level of attention required in order to make them available in the required quantity and quality for maximum sustenance of access to education, especially university education in the country. The issue of access to education is a human rights phenomenon, which demands that as many that are willing and ready to go school should not be denied the opportunity. This is because when access to any level of education that people are ready to consume is sustained and guaranteed, it will result in long term improvements in the productivity of the receiver, eradicate poverty, reduce unemployment promote proper health care and reduce inequality in societies. This is understandable because societal development goals are anchored on the nature of education provided for people. Therefore, education must be provided in such a way that it will promote inclusiveness and guarantee access. The consideration of administrative, social and structural factors in relations to access to university education is an awakening call to remind societies of the imperativeness of promoting access at all level of education in order to improve lives and consequently the growth of their societies. This critically brings out the fact that education is the bedrock of human and societal development. In view of this, the following recommendations become imperative:

i. Quota System should be redefined in such a way that it will prevent inequality and promote merit in its implementation in education to encourage access and increase the number of people that will be offered admission in the university.
ii. To increase the carrying capacity of tertiary institutions more structures and school facilities should be provided and quality and excellence should be ensured so that qualitative education can be provided for more students.
iii. University education should be adequately and timely funded by the different levels of government. Private individuals or organizations such as Non Governmental Organisations, religion organizations and other philanthropists should be given the opportunity to support governments at various levels to ensure that education is properly funded to promote and improve access to education in the country.
iv. Sufficient, qualitative and relevant infrastructure facilities should be provided to ensure access to university education in the country. This is because the expansion of school facilities is very important if access to education must be achieved. This should be done systematically to ensure that required and qualitative facilities are provided in the university setting.
v. The government should ensure that the socio-economic conditions of people are improved by augment the per capita income of citizens. This can be achieved by improving the state of the economy through structural

and technological overhauling of the nation. This is necessary because of the place of socio-economic conditions of people in the promotion of access in education.

vi. Government should ensure that actions are taken to make it mandatory for all universities to establish distance-learning programme so that more students can gain access to university education. This will encourage workers, who do not have time to attend the regular type of education to enroll.

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Youth on the Move: Examining the Motivations for Emigration among Albanian University Students

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Abstract
Since the collapse of the communist regime, Albania has been struggling with a substantial wave of population exodus, a phenomenon that endures at a notably elevated pace, positioning Albania among the nations with the highest emigration rates in Europe and beyond. Notably, Albania is recognized for its relatively youthful population, which confronts the dual challenges of population reduction and aging amidst recent socio-economic shifts, including the prominence of emigration. Young people represent a vital demographic within society, holding the potential to instigate policy shifts, influence economic trajectories, and reshape social dynamics, thereby contributing to sustainable development. This article explores the complexities surrounding youth emigration, delving into the contemporary trend amidst the turbulent circumstances of today, with a concentrated focus on exploring the motives for departure or the expressed aspiration to leave. The study centers its attention on university students, whose departure significantly affects the increase of the brain drain phenomenon. Notably, although official statistics may not reflect a substantial surge in the number of young individuals departing, studies and reports highlight a consistent decline in the youth population each year, undoubtedly influenced by factors beyond emigration. The article underscores that developed countries are the preferred destinations for young individuals, offering opportunities for personal and professional growth and economic stability. Factors like high unemployment, financial difficulties, low wages, limited career opportunities, lack of stability, tough competition, and the absence of meritocracy contribute to the decision to leave or not to return for those who have already emigrated. It's notable that the pandemic, rather than merely intensifying the desire to leave, has tangibly set in motion the concrete plans and strategies, to translate this aspiration into reality.

Keywords: *Emigration, Students, Albanian Youth, Brain Drain, Social Issues*

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1 Introduction

Migration is a phenomenon with multiple consequences, often contradictory in all areas of social, economic, political, and psycho-cultural activity (Dervishi, Z., 2003:1-2), and such has been its impact on Albanian society. Migration with both its forms, internal and external, is one of the main factors that has influenced the socio-economic developments in the Republic of Albania, especially after 1990. Migration is not a new phenomenon for Albanian society, but due to its size after the fall of the regime, it makes you think that Albanian society was presented with this phenomenon at the beginning of the 90s. Migration has been one of the most dynamic features of the country's transition and one of the most important social and economic phenomena (King and Vullnetari 2003).

In the early 1990s, the initial waves of population migration displayed movement both across international borders and within domestic regions. It appears that the policies of the newly established state displayed weaknesses, and many state institutions and factories closed or ceased functioning by increasing unemployment significantly high and concerning levels rate. The downfall of the previous regime and the subsequent establishment of the new state increased the challenges faced by the population. Emigration, especially, became perceived as the sole remedy to address the economic necessities of the population, particularly among the youth. These years witnessed the adoption of both external and internal migration strategies, encompassing cross-border shifts as well as rural-to-urban relocations, serving as survival strategies for the population in their pursuit of securing their livelihoods, as highlighted by De Waal (2007: 241).

Particularly within the initial decade following the regime's collapse, a multitude of challenges and societal transformations accompanied the spread of migratory patterns among the population. The absence of political stability, escalating poverty rates, heightened unemployment levels, increased social turbulence, and the notable collapse of the financial schemes in 1996 (Zezza, Carletto & Davis, 2005) were among the pivotal factors exerting substantial influence on the amplitude of population migration in Albania. According to data compiled by INSTAT in 2000, it was approximated that a significant segment of the Albanian population, approximately 600,000 individuals or 18.0 percent, had migrated from Albania. The majority of these migrants comprised males aged between 20 and 30 years (UNICEF Albania, 2000: 15).

Owing to a substantial surge in emigration, particularly among the younger generation, Albania was ranked as the ninth-ranking nation globally and one of the first in Europe concerning the emigrant stock relative to the resident population within the country in 2010 (King & Gëdeshi, 2018). A report from the World Bank indicated that approximately 1.4 million Albanian nationals resided outside Albania in 2010 (World Bank, 2011). The impetus behind migration primarily stemmed from factors such as employment opportunities, family reunification, educational pursuits, and even the pursuit of political asylum (Carletto et al., 2004). By the conclusion of 2011, an estimated 1.4 million individuals, constituting roughly one-third of the Albanian population, were presumed to be residing abroad, predominantly in Greece and Italy (World Bank, 2011). The "National Migration Strategy And Action Plan 2019 - 2022" underscored that, in 2017, approximately 1.5 million Albanian citizens were located beyond the nation's borders, amounting to nearly half of the total population. Notably, Albania persists as the country with the highest emigration rates (Ministry of the Interior, 2019: 7-8).

As per Gedeshi's recent findings (2021), the number of Albanians residing beyond the borders of their home country has surpassed 1.6 million, accounting for slightly over half of the domestic population. Notably, the migration trends during the initial decade (1991-2000) were defined by illegal migration, predominantly undertaken by males, particularly among the youth. In contrast, the subsequent decade (2001-2010) exhibited a shift towards migration for family reunification purposes, accompanied by reduced migration levels compared to the preceding decade, and with a notable increase in legally sanctioned migrations. Conversely, the third decade's distinctive feature is the proliferation of child migrants and the perceived lack of prospects within Albania, in contrast to the economic motivations that predominated in the earlier two decades. In the contemporary context, international migration is particularly pronounced among highly educated and skilled individuals in their twenties (p. 5).

Based on the publication "Population of Albania, January 1, 2023" by INSTAT, immigration figures stood at 46,460 individuals, marking a 10.5% increase from the year 2021. The net migration, depicted as the difference between immigrants and emigrants, displayed marginal improvement over the previous year, moving from -32,853 to -32,497 residents in 2022. Notably, net migration remained negative, indicating that more individuals left than arrived, with approximately 16.7 thousand people departing in 2020, as opposed to arrivals (INSTAT 2021 (b): 7). The peak in the migration potential rate was observed within the age group of 27 to 30 years. This stands in contrast to a 2007 survey that identified the age bracket of 18 to 25 years as the peak for Albanian migration potential (King & Gëdeshi, 2018). Economic factors persist as the primary impetuses behind migration (King and Vullnetari, 2003; Zezza et al., 2005). Factors such as unemployment, low wages, pervasive corruption, a lack of confidence in the justice system, and physical insecurity collectively contribute to the inclination to emigrate (King and Gedeshi, 2020: 31).

Numerous research endeavors have underscored migration's substantial influence in improving the livelihoods of numerous families, for whom emigration-derived income stood as their sole financial resource. The influx of earnings through emigration has played a role in mitigating poverty and strengthening economic well-being within many Albanian households (King and Mai, 2013; INSTAT, 2015(a)). Migration has even been posited as the differentiating factor between relative wealth and poverty (Soto et al., 2002: xiv). The impact of migratory flows resonates significantly, primarily due to the infusion of remittances that serve to alleviate poverty and contribute to the nation's economic landscape (Ministry of the Interior, 2019: 7-8).
Scarce prospects for education and employment serve as impetuses propelling young individuals to seek opportunities beyond the borders of the Republic of Albania (United Nations Development Program, 2010: 38). Beyond economic imperatives, young migrants are driven by aspirations of greater autonomy, better opportunities for realizing their aspirations, or even the pursuit of more contemporary and tranquil life, distanced from the complexities and predicaments of Albanian society (Mai, 2002; King and Mai, 2013: 176-177). Moreover, the yearning for emancipation from parental oversight and the quest for financial independence drive a substantial number of young individuals to decline their high school education and embark on migration (Dervishi, Z., 2002: 64).

Considering the multifaceted challenges characterizing our nation, a high number of motivations drive the youth to seek refuge elsewhere. Particularly during the initial waves of emigration, the phenomenon seemed to disproportionately affect the younger population (King, R., and Mai, N., 2013: 218-219), with a higher prevalence of migration observed among males and young adults (Castaldo et al., 2005). Notably, the extensive emigration rates have resulted in a loss of this invaluable human asset, explicitly the youth (Bogdani, M., and Loughlin, J., 2007: 79).

The research findings further illuminate an apparent trend in the data about potential migration, with a pronounced emphasis on the inclination of young individuals to express their desire or intention to leave the country. As evidenced by numerous studies and investigations centered on the youth population within Albania, it results in a prevailing inclination of seeking the future elsewhere. For instance:

a- In a study with about 1200 participants, when asked whether they would consider departing the Republic of Albania if provided the opportunity, a significant 61.0 percent of respondents affirmed their affirmative stance (AIIS, Albanian Institution for International Studies, 2013: 19). Similarly, an additional study published in 2013 highlights that although young individuals are optimistic about their nation's future, most cases manifest a tendency for international migration. This study reports that approximately 70.0 percent of young respondents express their intention to leave Albania (Friedrich Ebert Foundation; IDRA Research and Consulting, 2013: 16).

b- Meanwhile, within the "Albanian Youth 2018/2019" investigation conducted by the Friedrich Ebert Foundation, it is revealed that around 40 percent of young Albanians exhibit a strong inclination towards emigration. This aspiration predominantly stems from the quest for improved living standards and more fulfilling employment opportunities (2019: p. 37).

c- In another study undertaken by the Mary Ward Loreto Foundation, dedicated to migration within Albania, the data unveils a substantial figure, with 83.86% of participants expressing their desire to emigrate from the country. The study's findings indicate that this desire exceeds occupational boundaries, encompassing both the employed and unemployed demographics, with a pronounced preference for developed nations. When asked about the motivations propelling them to depart from Albania, 84.9% cited socio-economic factors as their impetus, encompassing unemployment, the lack of basic facilities, and living conditions (2019; 44-49).

Based on the aforementioned studies, it becomes evident that the inclination of young individuals to seek opportunities abroad has exhibited persistence over the years. This enduring pattern underscores the continuing challenges and predicaments that persist within our society, motivating the youth to consider building their futures abroad. As suggested by King and Gedeshi, Albanian migration has maintained its drive and is likely to endure into the future. Their data compilation and survey results indicate an escalation in the intention to migrate, rising from 44% of the surveyed population in 2007 to 52% in 2018 (2020). Given the background of difficult living conditions, rising unemployment rates, political instability, and pronounced regional disparities, both forms of migration are expected to sustain their crucial roles in the coming years (INSTAT, 2015(a)). From King and Gedeshi's (2020) investigation, the principal motivators for emigrating from Albania primarily include the prospects of securing employment with a higher income (61.1%) and accessing improved educational and training opportunities (22.2%) (p. 23-72).

Furthermore, research findings underscore an escalating trend among young individuals, as a growing number aspire to leave Albania for work and study, with many intending permanent relocations. Extracted from the "Youth in Albania 2020" National Report, a noticeable percentage of respondents, approximately 30%, express their intent to pursue education abroad, thus pointing towards the concerning "brain drain" phenomenon (CRCA/ECPAT Albania, 2020: pages 5 - 6). Additionally, the trend of seeking international education experiences is most pronounced among individuals in their twenties, particularly among the highly educated and skilled cohort (Gedeshi, 2021: 5). The departure of the youth, particularly those possessing advanced education, inflicts a notable wound upon Albanian society, intensifying the challenges further.

The survey conducted by King and Gedeshi (2020) supports this evolving immigration trajectory, with an increased inclination among both young people and the highly educated to contemplate emigration from Albania. The number of students studying abroad has observed consistent growth, with 69.9% of the students surveyed stating that their studies serve as the initial step towards residing overseas. Of those currently enrolled in Albanian institutions, 79% expressed their intention to emigrate (p. 23-72).

Albania has maintained a prolonged history of emigration, with consecutive waves of migration, primarily driven by the pursuit of improved economic prospects and opportunities abroad, particularly among the youth. The evolving societal, political, and economic landscape of Albania has significantly impacted its youth population. As they strive for a more promising future, enhanced living conditions, and quality education, among other aspirations, many young Albanians are compelled to seek opportunities beyond their national borders. This article explores the multifaceted aspects of youth emigration, separating contemporary trends among turbulent times while studying the drivers behind their decision to leave or their desire for departure. A particular concern explored within this article is the "brain drain" phenomenon and its consequences for society. The study focuses on university students, whose migration adds depth to the "brain drain" scenario.

2 Research Methodology

This study employed a mixed-methods approach, integrating both primary and secondary data collection to examine student experiences with emigration. The initial phase involved a comprehensive literature review, focusing on existing reports and studies concerning migration dynamics in Albania. This review provided essential contextual understanding of the prevailing situation and challenges, simultaneously refining the research questions guiding this investigation.

For the primary data collection, 150 semi-structured surveys were administered electronically via Google Forms, enhancing accessibility and reach for student participation. The questionnaire was structured into distinct sections, with a dedicated segment of 10 semi-structured questions specifically addressing youth emigration. These questions were designed to elicit detailed experiences and perspectives from participants, facilitating a comprehensive exploration of the subject.

Survey administration occurred between November 2022 and January 2023. Participants were students enrolled in study programs at Aleksander Moisiu

University - Durres and the University of Tirana. The demographic breakdown of the 150 respondents included 90 women and 60 men, with ages ranging from 18 to 22 years. Of these, 95 participants were pursuing bachelor's studies, and 55 were enrolled in master's programs.

3 Results and discussions

3. 1 Evident Aspiration for Emigration

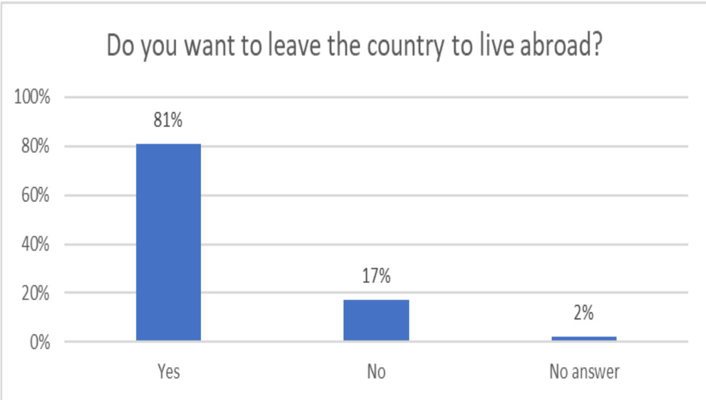


Figure 1. Do the students want to leave the country?

The literature explored in this study underlines a prominent trend: running parallel to the visible increase in migration rates, a resolute desire among young individuals residing in Albania to seek their fortunes beyond the nation's borders is apparent. As a result, one of the research questions of this study revolved around exploring the respondent's aspirations to emigrate. To the question: "Do you have the desire to leave the country to live abroad, a substantial percentage of the respondents, constituting approximately 81%, affirmed their predisposition to explore opportunities overseas. This result, while not entirely unforeseen, attains heightened significance when contextualized within the framework of recent events in Albania, including the November 2019 earthquake and the following consequences of the Covid-19 pandemic. These combined challenges have further intensified the preexisting societal issues within Albania, increasing the complexities that young individuals must navigate and augmenting their disappointment. Consequently, this has intensified the aspiration of young people to move abroad in search of better opportunities. The students who responded that they do not want to emigrate are mostly in their first bachelor year or their final master's year and are already employed. The first just started their studies and probably also living away from their parents for the first time and the seconds are near graduation and working, trying to build their future here.

3. 1. 2 Beyond economic concerns, the main issue is the lack of opportunities.

Furthermore, participants were asked to elaborate more on their answers regarding their emigration preferences and the factors that contribute to their plans. Students view the chance to address economic issues and create a better future as the primary reason they consider leaving Albania. More than just economic problems, the chances and options in Albanian society to address these issues are seen as limited. This has led to a negative and disheartening situation for young people, to the point where many believe it's a given that the future can't be built here and that leaving should be considered.

According to the data, young people are concerned about their future, emphasizing that their youth years are crucial for building a better life. They feel it's not practical to spend these years in a country that lacks opportunities or provides only a few. It's better to seek out opportunities and places that offer more chances.

"Youth years are the most vital part, the age where the foundations of life are laid, not the age to fight just to pay the rent and to end the month without debt."- student, master program, 21.

"While you are young, you can go through this situation with optimism because you think you will manage to change it, but spending all the years of your youth and finding yourself in the same situation is depressing. Undoubtedly, some young people have found an opportunity not to be in these difficulties, but I think that their number compared to the rest of young people is very small" – student, master program, 22.

According to the data, economic problems are an important factor that complicates but also conditions their opportunities to build their future.

Among the economic issues that concern youth are:

a) Insufficient income (and at times its complete absence) is considered a very high issue for youth. According to them most of the Albanian youth lack income and their stage of life needs income to invest in their future.
b) Elevated unemployment rates and the difficulties to find a job. The respondents share that finding a job it's a challenge and finding a job in their field of study is nearly a luxury. According to them, the ongoing students and also the ones already finished university studies have filled the "Call Centers". Call Centers opened in Albania for more than a decade, becoming one of the main job markets for youth. The respondents express that working in Call Centers is exhausting but plenty of youth are still involved in them as finding another job is difficult and other times the job they can find is with a very low payment.
c) The high cost of living is highlighted as a key reason why young people are choosing to leave or considering leaving. Respondents have explained that the expenses for daily life have risen to a point where they can't manage them. What's more, many of them don't intend to return to their hometowns after finishing their studies, as living apart from family adds to the financial burden. The steep rental prices for housing, combined with other expenses, create even more challenges for students. "If you don't have a job, it's impossible to stay in Tirana. Even if you're living with your parents, it's still hard to afford life without a job." According to the students surveyed, many of them are sharing housing with multiple people to afford the rent, and a significant number live in rented spaces that they share with others.

As illustrated by the data, young individuals contend that striving for personal development is difficult when fundamental living conditions remain unmet.

"I don't have to live here to spend my life fighting to survive. I am young, I want to live somewhere where I fight for more, not for survival" – student, bachelor program, 20.

"We want to focus on our professional development, finding what we want to do, developing our talents, and going after our desires. How can you do this if you can't afford to pay for food or shelter?"- student, master program, 22.

They also mention that when these issues are combined with other factors like discrimination or unfair competition, the situation becomes even more serious. They express concern about the lack of meritocracy, which they believe is quite prevalent in our country, alongside economic troubles. They assert that young individuals might not progress based on their professional abilities, but rather due to their connections or family support.

"Furthermore, besides not getting fair economic recognition for our efforts, the lack of meritocracy can also impede our career growth. A young individual with financial advantages or political affiliations might have opportunities, even if their professional abilities aren't as strong" – student, master program, 22.

Collectively, these circumstances create an environment where personal development is challenging, and as a result, achieving their goals feels distant. On the other side, participants who express a hesitancy to emigrate express that they are too attached to their families and have a genuine desire to explore prospects for their future within Albania.

"Difficulties exist, but if we all depart, who will remain here? I aspire to create my future here. I do not know what will happen later but for now, this is what I plan to do." -student, master program, 21.

3. 2 Mere Desire or Actual Emigration Efforts?

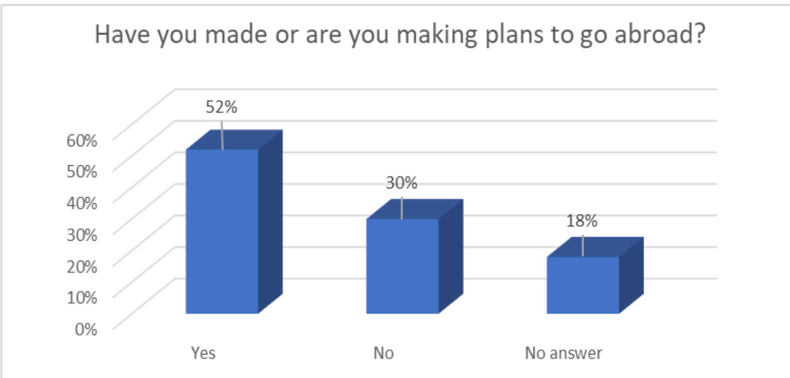


Figure 2: Implementation of Emigration Preparations among Students

Another aspect that becomes apparent when reviewing literature emphasizes the importance for researchers to be cautious and differentiate between expressing a wish and truly committing to making it happen. A high percentage of young people who express a desire to leave is concerning, but the question is, how many of them have taken steps or are taking steps to make their intention to migrate a reality? The data shows that 52% of respondents have affirmed that they are taking specific actions and making concrete plans to make their migration happen. This percentage is significant because it highlights that a considerable portion of the surveyed youth has progressed beyond mere wishes and is actively transforming their desire into practical plans. Another 30% of participants have indicated that they haven't made a definite plan yet, but they do intend to do so.

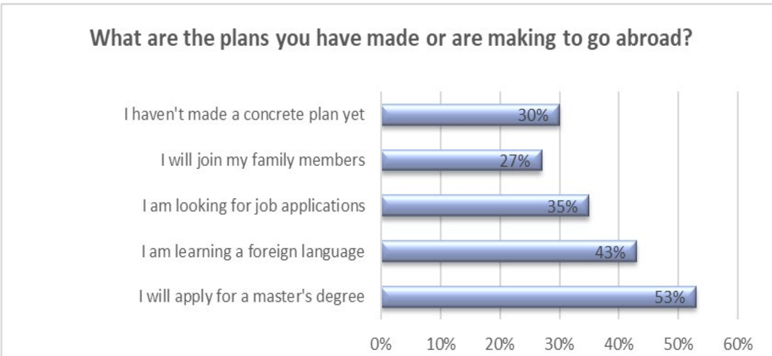


Figure 3: Approaches to Facilitate Emigration

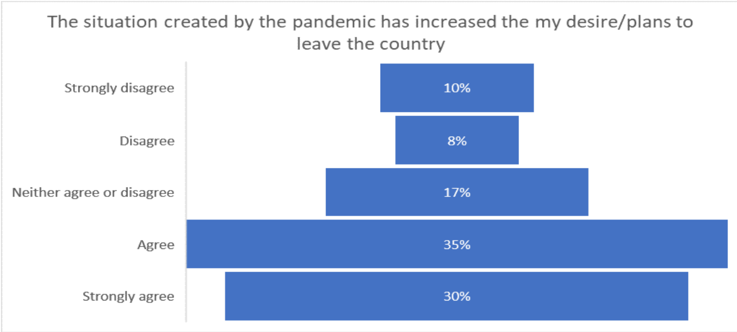
Among the specific plans that students are pursuing refer to: the pursuit of enrolling in higher education levels overseas (53%), learning a foreign language (43%), applying for jobs abroad (35%), and reuniting with family members (27%). Increasingly, studies underline a prevailing trend whereby aspirant emigrants invest time and effort in preparations, intended to facilitate their integration into their desired host countries. The migration predicament remains a pervasive concern within Albanian society, encompassing both historical waves and contemporary manifestations, marked by the historical prevalence of clandestine migration routes. Numerous Albanians have braved life-threatening peril, with some even succumbing to fatal accidents while navigating perilous routes and hazardous means of departure. Presently, a notable shift is discernible among most young individuals, as they contemplate legally

sanctioned pathways to overseas living, coupled with diligent preliminary measures aimed at ensuring seamless integration into their chosen destination.
Furthermore, the data underlines that surveyed students consistently express their aspiration to migrate to countries perceived as offering fertile ground for personal and professional development. A significant proportion of students intend to further their advanced education within these countries, concurrently integrating into their labor markets. Notably, Germany is one of the countries where they aspire to emigrate, as according to them there has been a wide dissemination of information regarding study and employment prospects within this nation. Similarly, Italy and the United Kingdom resonate as attractive prospects, with some aspiring migrants casting their intent to go beyond the European continent. However, these destinations are seen as harder to reach because of the complex procedures and financial means needed. European countries are viewed as more achievable and appealing because traveling to them is easier and more cost-effective compared to farther places.

3. 3 Effects of the Pandemic on Intention/Plans to Emigrate

The implications of the pandemic have intensified existing social and economic challenges, particularly within societies struggling with high unemployment rates, widespread poverty, and vulnerable demographic segments, such as Albania. One of the focal points of inquiry in this study referred to whether the pandemic-induced circumstances have exerted an influence on the intentions and concrete plans of young individuals regarding emigration. The findings show that the difficulties created by the pandemic have significantly affected the aspirations and plans of young individuals to leave, as depicted in the graph above (figure 4).

Figure 4: Impact of the Pandemic on Intentions to Emigrate



Furthermore, participants were also asked to share their experiences about how the pandemic has affected their thoughts and plans regarding emigration. The information shows that the situation during the pandemic has served as a significant catalyst for taking concrete steps toward leaving, more than just increasing the desire to do so. The data indicates that a significant portion of the students who initially expressed the wish to leave have now turned that desire into action due to the pandemic's impact. The data highlights that although many young people had already wanted to leave before the pandemic, the months following its outbreak have seen a transition from mere desire to actual planning or active efforts toward emigration.

"Yes, the situation created by the pandemic made it more obvious that in our country the institutions mostly are not capable of responding even to basic needs, so what to expect more."- student, bachelor program, 19.

"The effect of the pandemic was not so much on the desire to leave because the situation in our country has been problematic for a long time, but much more on doing something, taking steps to leave". – student, bachelor program, 20.

In essence, the pandemic has acted as a potent catalyst, intensifying the readiness to migrate among those who had long considered the prospect and pushing many aspirants to transition from contemplation to concerted action.

3. 4 Considering the Possibility of Returning After Leaving

Exploring the students' attitudes toward leaving Albania, whether temporarily or permanently, a prevailing sentiment becomes evident. Faced with challenges and difficulties in their home country, they lean towards seeking opportunities abroad to achieve their life goals. However, this inclination is accompanied by a strong willingness to return if conditions transform positively. Many students indicated that they would come back if circumstances change, and some mentioned that their decision to leave is a step towards empowering themselves and eventually returning to contribute to the progress of Albanian society. Most of the students that participated in the study state that they aspire to return after achieving personal success, and also most of them undoubtedly express that they would return if the circumstances change.

"If I can establish myself, I want to come back and use the knowledge and skills I've gained to contribute to progress here."- student, bachelor program, 21.

"Even though we often feel hopeless, we love our country, and I would definitely return if the situation gets better."- student, master program, 22.

According to the responses, residing in Albania under the current circumstances doesn't lead to significant change for them or society, or bring any benefit for both. The students believe that they can contribute more to Albanian society if they are successful, if they progress and achieve their goals, no matter where they do this. For sure it would be preferable that they had this chance in their country.

"It's more beneficial for young people to empower themselves and develop wherever they find opportunities rather than staying here struggling to find a job or working for low pay. I believe that young people can serve their country better by first being successful themselves."- student, bachelor program, 21.

4 Conclusions

The persistent desire and, more critically, the concrete efforts of young Albanians to emigrate represent a significant concern. This outflow, particularly of educated youth, substantially exacerbates the brain drain phenomenon, posing a considerable loss for Albanian society. This study confirms that students are moving beyond mere aspirations, actively undertaking specific steps toward departure. Economic problems and the perceived scarcity of opportunities to address them are identified as primary drivers, alongside other contributing factors such as unequal competition and a pervasive lack of meritocracy.

In contrast to historical migration patterns where perilous, often clandestine routes were common and sometimes fatal, contemporary young Albanians are increasingly pursuing legal avenues for emigration. Many are proactively preparing by learning the language of their desired destination and seeking opportunities for higher education abroad, international employment, or family reunification. European countries are frequently preferred, largely due to their perceived accessibility.

The COVID-19 pandemic and its associated challenges have profoundly influenced young people's emigration intentions and plans. Rather than simply heightening the desire to leave, the pandemic acted as a catalyst, prompting many to transition from contemplation to concrete action. Despite the high numbers of those who have emigrated or aspire to, a notable finding is the expressed willingness of young people to return if conditions in Albania improve. They view emigration as a strategic step not only for their personal well-being but also as a means to ultimately contribute to Albania's progress. As participants articulated, a young person who achieves success abroad is seen as potentially benefiting the country more than one who remains and struggles financially.

In summary, the increasing number of young individuals taking tangible steps to emigrate, driven by a profound concern over the lack of opportunities for future building within Albania, presents a critical challenge. Young people are an indispensable demographic, and no society can afford their sustained loss. It is imperative for policymakers to understand and address the multifaceted challenges young Albanians face and to formulate policies that align with their aspirations, thereby fostering their growth and harnessing their potential within Albanian society.

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The Educational Values of Guaku spring, Bogovë Waterfall, and Pirogoshi Cave, from Landscape to Learning Natural Heritage

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Abstract

Natural monuments, as important elements of natural heritage, offer not only scientific, aesthetic, conservation, and touristic values, but above all, they carry significant educational potential.

This paper aims to examine the role of natural monuments as important educational resources for environmental and scientific education, focusing on three selected sites: Guaku spring, Bogovë waterfall, and Pirogoshi cave. All three natural monuments are located within the territory of Skrapar municipality and represent diverse examples of landform features. Guaku spring effectively illustrates karstification processes and the value of water resources within ecosystems. Bogovë waterfall represents the dynamics of erosive processes in mountainous landscapes, while Pirogoshi cave serves as an environment for studying internal landform morphology and speleological formations. The study is based only on the analysis of scientific and educational values as defined through the GAM method (Geosite Assessment Method, Vujičić et al., 2011), which was developed to comprehensively evaluate the values of various geosites. This method includes five groups of values, each with its own set of indicators. Field observations, literature review, and interviews with experts in the field, conducted in accordance with the GAM method, highlight that these natural monuments function as natural laboratories for understanding geological, geomorphological, and geographical processes. Moreover, they contribute to raising awareness and promoting education on environmental protection and conservation. Meanwhile, the physical geography curriculum in pre university education includes

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learning outcomes related to natural heritage, enabling a connection between educational demand and the illustrative, demonstrative, and cognitive potential of local geography. Field-based didactic practices at these sites help build sustainable and easily comprehensible knowledge, especially for pre-university students, whose educational institutions are located near these high-value natural sites.

Keywords: *Educational Values, Field-Based Learning, Natural Heritage, Curriculum Education, Learning Outcomes*

Introduction and study area

Guaku spring, Bogovë waterfall, and Pirogoshi cave are located within the municipality of Skrapar. The municipality of Skrapar, with a surface area of 775 km² and an average altitude of 788 meters above sea level, is situated in the northeastern part of Albania's southern region (Bashkia Skrapar 2020). The total area of the municipality of Skrapar is 83,327 hectares (Bashkia Skrapar, 2020). The administrative boundaries generally follow the ridgelines of mountain ranges. The area is traversed by the valleys of Osum and Tomorrica rivers and includes notable mountain passes and gorges, such as Kulmak pass and Gjarpri pass (in the Tomorrica area), as well as the Devri gorge (Bashkia Skrapar, 2020). The relief of Skrapar is predominantly mountainous and hilly, ranging from 140 meters to 2,416 meters above sea level. Major elevations include Tomorr mountain (2,416 m), Kulmaka mountain (2,173 m), and Potom region. The lower areas extend along Osum valley, with the lowest point located in Poliçan at 140 meters above sea level. The mountain ranges are generally oriented northwest to southeast and rest on anticlinal structures composed primarily of limestone. The relief is characterized by a high degree of horizontal dissection, ranging between 3–5 km² and 5–7 km². In terms of altitude distribution, the territory is presented as: 4.2% of the territory lies below 399 m, 66.5% lies between 400–999 m, 27.5% between 1,000–1,999 m, and 1.9% position above 2,000 m (Plaku, 2010, pg. 673). The variety of hypsometry provides effective opportunities to demonstrate classroom-acquired knowledge through field observations.

The climate of Skrapar is mediterranean, with hilly and mountainous influences. Data from Ujanik meteorological station shows an average of approximately 1,600 sunshine hours from April to October. The most characteristic local wind is the *stoçeni*, a strong and cold northeastern and southeastern wind, especially prevalent in winter, particularly in Tomorrica and Potom areas. Wind directions are influenced by the orientation of the mountain ranges and river valleys.

Skrapar is part of a region rich in water resources, including rivers, streams, and natural springs. The main river is the Osum, which passes through several settlements such as Çorovodë, Malind, and Staraveckë, with both its upper and lower courses running through the area. The hydrographic network also includes important natural springs, such as Guaku spring, Ujanik springs, Faqekuq springs, Varishtës spring, Uji i Zi spring, and Bogovë spring. Some of these water sources are used for hydroelectric energy production (in Bogovë, Ujanik, and Guaku), potable water supply, and irrigation purposes (Plaku, 2010, p. 136).

The administrative center of the municipality is the town of Çorovodë. From a demographic perspective, according to the Population and Housing Census (Instat, 2023), the municipality of Skrapar has a population of 10,750 inhabitants. In 2011, the population was 12,403, representing a decrease of approximately 13% over a 12-year period. The demographic structure reflects an aging population (1133 inhabitants (10.5%) belong age 0-14, 7033 inhabitants (65.4%) belong aged 15-64, 2584 inhabitants (24.1%) belong age 65 and over) with a considerable proportion of elderly individuals (Bashkia Skrapar, 2020). This situation is partly due to population migration toward more developed urban centers as well as emigration abroad. These demographic data serve as an important tool for educating students about the relationship between local natural heritage and human presence over time. Understanding population decline and aging in areas encourages reflection on preservation, and revitalization of local natural and cultural landscapes.

The economy of Skrapar is primarily based on agriculture and livestock farming. In recent years, tourism has begun to play an increasingly important role in the economic development of the area. Natural attractions such as Osum canyons, Tomorr mountain, and the Bogovë waterfall are drawing a growing number of tourists from around the world. Elements of the natural landscape often become an important component of geographic education related to the natural environment.

In the curricula of lower and upper secondary geography (Tables 1, table 2 and table 3), there are learning outcomes connected to elements of natural heritage, including the natural monuments (geosites in this studies) of Albania and its regions. Tables 1, 2, and 3 present the knowledge, skills, and values that geography curricula aim to develop in students regarding the understanding and protection of local natural and cultural heritage.

Table 1. Geography Curriculum for Grade VI (Level III), ASCAP, 2018, p. 26

Knowledge	Skills - The student identifies:	Attitudes / Values - The student:
The natural and cultural heritage	• the cultural and natural heritage monuments of	• Accepts and respects the natural, social, and cultural

of the local environment and its protection	the area; • the touristic values of the cultural and natural heritage monuments of the area; • the natural and anthropogenic threats that endanger the values of the area's cultural and natural heritage.	diversity of their local area. • Demonstrates care and sensitivity toward natural resources and their preservation. • Objectively evaluates data results compared to those of peers. • Respects the ideas and experiences presented by others.

Table 2. Geography Curriculum for Grade IX (Level IV), ASCAP

Knowledge	Skills - The student identifies:	Attitudes / Values - The student:
The natural and cultural heritage of the Republic of Albania and the development of tourism National natural heritage (protected areas).	• Identifies the categories of protected natural areas (p. 34) • Evaluates the natural and cultural heritage of the Southern Region (p. 40)	• Applies and demonstrates soft skills • Shows appreciation for natural and cultural heritage • Demonstrates responsibility in the use and preservation of natural and cultural heritage

Table 3. Geography Curriculum for Grade XI (Level V), ASCAP, 2018, p. 27

Knowledge	Skills - The student identifies:	Attitudes / Values - The student:
Albania's natural heritage – a highly asset for specific regional developments The natural and	• Identifies some of the natural heritage sites of our country (p. 34) • Investigates various information sources about the country's protected areas, their resources, and their impact on tourism	• Demonstrates interest and curiosity about the natural features of our country • Shows sensitivity and care for the quality of the natural environment • Appreciates sustainable

cultural heritage of the Southern Region	development (p. 34) • Evaluates the natural and cultural heritage of the Southern Region and its significance (p. 42)	management and efficient use of natural resources • Appreciates the natural, social, and cultural diversity of Albania's regions

In this context, the presence of natural heritage sites near school facilities gains even greater practical and didactic importance in subject demonstrations and the acquisition of sustainable knowledge. But what kinds of values should be considered and evaluated as appropriate for educational purposes? To help answer this question, the classification of values provided by the GAM (Geosite Assessment Model) is used, where particular emphasis is given to scientific and educational values, along with their four key indicators.

Methodology

This study presents the partial application of the GAM (Geosite Assessment Model) methodology, developed by Vujičić et al. (2011), to assess selected geosite Bogova waterfall, Guaku spring, and Pirogoshi cave by offering insights into their educational value potential. This method is applied in some studies in Albania (Braholli & Dhimitri, 2022; Braholli & Menkshi, 2019; Braholli & Menkshi, 2021; Zdrava, 2024; etc.). Overall, GAM model comprises two main groups of values: main values **(**Scientific/educational values (VSE), Scenic/aesthetic values (VSA), Protection values (VPr)), and additional values (Functional values (VFn), Touristic values (VTr) divided into 12 and 15 indicators respectively. Each sub-indicator is evaluated on a five-point numerical scale**:** 0.00, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, and 1.00. This classification reflects two broad types of value: main values, which are derived from the natural characteristics of microforms, and additional values**,** which are primarily influenced by human activity and the degree of site use and modification by visitors.

Scientific and educational values are considered fundamental for the classification of abiotic geosites and are composed of four sub-indicators rarity, representativeness, knowledge on geoscientific issues, and level of interpretation**.** This study focuses exclusively on the group of indicators related to scientific and educational values**,** highlighting their specific indicators and their significance in the evaluation process. These quantitative assessments are presented in table 5.

Findings and discussion

Pirogoshi cave is situated on the right-hand slope of the Gradec Canyon, in the southern extension of Kulmaka mountain, at an elevation of 500 m a.s.l. and 60–70 m above the riverbed, close to the village of Radësh and only 3 km from the town of Çorovodë. Over the years the cave has attracted considerable interest from both Albanian and foreign scholars and has been explored by numerous international speleological teams as well as residents (Serjani et.al., 2003). Access is via the Çorovodë–Pirogoshi motor road (7 km) or the Berat–Çorovodë–Pirogoshi route (57 km), followed by a 350 m footpath. Inside the cave the path rises gently northward, alternating narrow passages, spacious halls, and slender galleries. The ceilings host abundant large calcite stalactites and stalagmites, flowstone columns, stone "waterfalls," cave pearls, and other speleothems (ADZHM Berat, 2024; Akademia e Shkencave e Shqipërisë, 2009). The cave splits into two branches. The left branch terminates in two water shafts with siphons. The right branch contains the "Hall of Concretions" and the "Corridor Hall". After 100 m it follows a tectonic line and leads to an additional branch. A shaft ~35 m deep marks the end of the explored passage, giving a total surveyed length of 1 252 m (Plaku, 2010, p. 732). The cave's vantage point is remarkable, offering views of the Radësh Stream waterfall and the lush riparian vegetation. Although local inhabitants had long been aware of the site, a full scientific survey was first carried out by Italian speleologists in 1985, accompanied by local Albanian teachers, yielding several significant discoveries. The imposing entrance lies beside a canyon carved into Cretaceous limestones. The main passage is 1252 m long, 30 m wide, and 5 m high, forming an underground labyrinth inhabited by sizeable bat colonies (Serjani et. al., 2003). The first (lower) entrance, which offers a modest external terrace suitable for habitation, has yielded fragmentary Neolithic ceramics; far fewer finds were recovered at the upper entrance, which lacks a comparable outer living space. Accordingly, Pirogoshi cave is recognized as a geomonument of high scientific, ecological, geomorphological, geological, archaeological, didactic, and geotouristic value (Serjani et. al., 2003).

Figure 1. Pirogoshi cave (Photos: Krenar Xhaferri)

Guaku spring is located near the town of Çorovoda, at an altitude of 120 meters a. s. l. It is a large karst spring that emerges at the lithological contact between Mesozoic limestone rocks and Paleogene flysch formations. It is one of the largest springs in the entire Osum River basin. Its maximum discharge in January reaches 1.94 m^3/s, the minimum in September is 0.57 m^3/s, while the long-term average is 1.28 m^3/s. The water is clean, cold, and of high quality, suitable for drinking. (Serjani et.al., 2003). Guaku spring is active for a six-month period, from the end of November to May. It has scientific, geological, hydrogeological, cultural, educational, and geotouristic importance at the national level. It has been declared a protected natural monument by Decision of the Council of Ministers No. 676, dated 20.12.2002. To visit it, one follows the Çorovodë–Gradec road, and without taking the uphill path, one reaches the beautiful surroundings of the spring. (ADZHM Berat 2024)

Figure 2. Guaku spring (Photo: ADZHM Berat)

Bogovë waterfall, as a natural monument, is increasingly ranked among the most visited attractions by both local and foreign tourists. It is located within the national park at an altitude of 315 meters above sea level. This waterfall holds

Indicator	Description	Scores

significant touristic value due to its stunning beauty, attracting visitors in almost all seasons of the year. With a height of 20 meters and a pool depth of 10–12 meters, it is a natural gem surrounded by diverse vegetation. (ADZHM Berat 2024)

It holds scientific, geological, geomorphological, hydrogeological, educational, and geotouristic importance. It was declared a protected site by Decision of the Council of Ministers No. 676, dated 20.12.2002 (DCM, 2002). It can be accessed via the Berat–Çorovodë road to Bogovë–Ura e Sirakës, followed by a footpath. (Serjani, et. al., 2003)

The Bogovë spring also serves as a water supply source for the city of Berat. (Plaku 2010, p. 136)

Figure 3. View of the Bogovë Waterfall (Photo: Xhuliana Zdrava, November 2024)

All three natural monumeents remain with the same protection status, based in DCM, 2019. Meanwhile, table 4 presents the indicators of scientific-educational values according to the **GAM** (Geosite Assessment Method)**.** For each indicator, a description is provided, and a score ranging from 0.00 to 1.00 is assigned based on the level of presence or significance of the respective indicator.

Table 4. Indicators of Scientific/Educational Value and Their Descriptions According to the GAM Method, Vujičić et al. (2011)

Scientific/Educational Values		0/0.25/0.5/0.75/1
Rarity (SIMV1)	Number of Identical Nearby Sites	
Representativeness (SIMV2)	Didactic and Exemplary Characteristics of the Site Based on Its Quality and Overall Configuration	
Knowledge on Geoscientific Issues (SIMV3)	Number of Published Works in Journals, Theses, Presentations, and Other Publications	
Level of Interpretation (SIMV4)	Level of Interpretative Opportunities Regarding Geological and Geomorphological Processes and the Degree of Scientific Knowledge	

Table 5 highlights the grading of each sub-indicator according to Vujičić et al. (2011).

Table 5. Grading of Indicators According to Vujičić et al. (2011)

	0	0.25	0.5	0.75	1
$SIMV_1$	Common	Regional	National	International	The only occurrence
$SIMV_2$	None	Low	Moderate	High	Utmost
$SIMV_3$	None	Local publications	Regional publications	National publications	International publications
SIMV4	None	Moderate level of processes but hard to explain to non-expert	Good example of processes but hard to explain to non-expert	Moderate level of processes but easy to explain to common visitor	Good example of processes and easy to explain to common visitor

The grading of indicators relates to the interpretation of the significance and rarity of natural monuments, ranging from basic local importance to those with high international relevance or that are unique (SIMV1). The second indicator ranks the degree of representativeness, while the third evaluates the knowledge available on geoscientific issues, ranging from minimal information to publications in international journals. The fourth indicator assesses the level of interpretability of geological and geomorphological processes for non-expert visitors—whether these processes can be easily identified or not.

The evaluation of educational values based on specific indicators for each natural monument selected in this study, is presented in table 6.

Table 6: Evaluation of the educational and scientific values of Bogova waterfall, Guaku spring, and Pirrogoshi Cave

Sub-indicators (Main group values) Scientific/Educational Values	Expert-assigned values		
	Bogova Waterfall	Guaku Spring	Pirrogoshi Cave
Rarity (SIMV1)	0.75	0.25	0.75
Representativeness (SIMV2)	0.75	0.5	1
Knowledge about Geoscientific Issues (SIMV3)	0.75	0.5	0.75
Level of Interpretation (SIMV4)	0.5	0.25	0.75
Total	2.75	1.5	3.25

Table 6 estimates that Bogovë waterfall and Pirrogosh Cave have high rarity values, being represented at an international level. Representativeness is also higher in these two natural monuments. Numerous publications are found for these two natural monuments compared to the Guaku spring (Serjani, Jozla, & Neziraj, 1998; Eftimi, & Zojer, 2015; Eftimi, 2020; Dhimitri & Zdrava, 2024; Zdrava, 2024; etc.). All three analyzed natural monuments can serve for demonstrations of geological processes, but the degree of presentation and explanation of these processes varies, with Pirrogosh cave ranked highest, followed by Bogovë waterfall, and then Guaku spring. This is related to the causes and origin of their formation, the possibility of exposing the processes, and the ability to conduct direct observations or measurements.

Considering the learning outcomes of subject curricula for grades VI, IX, and XI, and the indicators of educational and scientific values, they represent important didactic elements for teaching or learning about natural heritage. They help in identifying their category, assessing the importance of understanding them, and fostering sustainability in their preservation, protection, or management. From an educational perspective, natural monuments represent an irreplaceable resource for understanding geological processes, climate, the impact of human activity on the environment, and the evolution of the Earth. Field observation, reviewing various literature, and meeting with field experts and local authorities responsible for the monitoring and protection of these natural monuments will support and facilitate teachers' work in schools in achieving learning outcomes by making use of the natural landscape.

Natural monuments offer direct opportunities for field-based learning, where students can observe and analyze real natural structures beyond theoretical knowledge. They can be used to illustrate concepts such as erosion, sedimentation, tectonics, landscape formation, and the water cycle. Learning through field experience encourages observation and data-recording skills, critical and analytical thinking, as well as teamwork and the ability to make interpretations based on natural evidence. Meanwhile, they serve as ideal centers for interdisciplinary education that link nature, culture, and science, integrating ecology, history, and heritage. Studying their educational values contributes to raising awareness about nature conservation and the risks of anthropogenic impacts.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study examines the importance and educational values of three natural monuments in Albania: Bogovë waterfall, Guaku spring, and Pirogoshi cave. Bogovë waterfall holds educational value in physical geography education, illustrating erosion processes and the formation of waterfalls in various terrains. It offers opportunities for studying biodiversity and ecosystems linked to waterfalls. Teachers can apply field education**,** especially local one, and use this waterfall as a tool to help students understand the importance of preserving aquatic ecosystems and the human impact on them, and functioning of atmosphere, hydrosphere and geosphere systems.

Pirogoshi cave offers scientific and educational value in physical geography education, geomorphology by demonstrating cave formation processes and related geological structures. By taking field work, students can learn about the importance of preserving natural formations and Albania's natural heritage.

Guaku spring is a karst spring emerging from the limestone massif. Its educational values include phusical geography, where it demonstrates karstification processes and the formation of natural springs. Students have direct possibilities to study on karst processes and the importance of karst water sources in local ecosystems and abiotic areas.

Together, these natural monuments act as natural laboratories that enhance both theoretical and practical knowledge in natural sciences, especially in geography and related fields. The study, however, indicates that Pirogoshi cave (3.25) possesses the greatest educational values, followed by Bogove waterfall (2.75) and lastly, Guaku spring (1.5). Education about natural monuments promotes more responsible environmental behavior and increases awareness of the negative impacts of human interference. Visits to these sites can be used to fulfill learning outcomes of school geography curricula and awareness-raising activities, combining scientific knowledge with hands-on experience. Based on geography curricula and their outcomes these sites remain important scientific and education resources, especially to students and schools' teachers near and natural monuments areas.

Conserving these natural monuments is essential for protecting natural heritage and supporting sustainable local development. According to DCM, 2019 they have the same protection status as DCM 2002. Increasing their educational value provides greater opportunities for involving educational institutions in conservation programs. To maximize the educational potential of these natural monuments specific teaching materials should be developed and training sessions should be organized for teachers on these topics. Collaboration between scientific and educational institutions, and local communities is important to achieving educational and conservation goals.

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Stylistic Analysis of Gerard Nolst Trenité's Poem "The Chaos"

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Abstract

This research paper aims to scrutinize the masterful selection of over eight hundred words which are common for any foreigner to get stuck as they find it easy to follow the same pattern to pronounce those words, but instead get that there are exceptions, as in every language, that do not conform to the rules dictated by a discourse. Gerard Nolst Trenité's poem, "The Chaos", playfully lists these cases, picturing the reality of misunderstandings. On the other hand, it enriches the poem's content with an alternation of rhymes, rhythm, vocabulary, literary devices and multiple themes deriving from a general disorder. Using Geoffrey Leech's five levels of stylistic analysis-phonological, graphological, grammatical, lexical and thematic- this study examines every linguistic feature and literary device integrated in the poem. The analysis reveals that Trenité's poem employs various rhyme schemes and types efficiently, as well as alliteration, combined rhythms, punctuation marks, syntactic inversion, enumeration, a range of vocabulary from colloquial to scientific, and several literary devices to expose the chaotic nature of English spelling and pronunciation. The study is conspicuously significant for linguists, students and new learners, to whom the issue of mispronunciation is still a universal challenge.

Keywords: *stylistic analysis, five levels, pronunciation, figurative language*

1. Introduction

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Stylistics refers to a branch of linguistics which explores the entirety of expressive resources within a language. Originally introduced by the French linguist Charles Bally, it concerns how a language enables the communication of thoughts and becomes a source of experiences that enrich the literary vocabulary and speech. Furthermore, stylistics also studies the delivery of emotions through language and the effect that language has on evoking emotions to their fullest extent or limiting their possibilities. Its primary goal is to pinpoint those components, within a literary or non-literary text, that manage to convey linguistic effects. The latter is achieved through a thorough analysis, considering syntactic, phonological, lexical, semantic and graphical patterns.

1.6. Research Objectives and Questions

The main objective of this study is to conduct a stylistic analysis of the poem *"The Chaos"* by Gerard Nolst Trenité, applying the framework of the five stylistic levels proposed by Geoffrey Leech. Through this analysis, this research aims to explore the poem's linguistic complexity and its illustrative value in highlighting irregularities within the English language.

Accordingly, the study is guided by the following research questions:

1. Which stylistic features are most prominent in *"The Chaos"* when analyzed across Leech's five levels of stylistic analysis?

2. To what extent does the stylistic analysis of *"The Chaos"* reveal systematic patterns of linguistic irregularity in English?

1.2 Levels of Stylistic Analysis

The process of making a complete stylistic analysis of literary works requires undergoing certain stages. In this article, only the five main levels proposed by Leech are listed in the upcoming sections.

i. **Phonological level:** Refers to the study of sound patterns and devices used in language to set the meaning, tone and atmosphere, as well as rules of pronunciation.

ii. **Graphological level:** The study of the visual aspects of the written language, including typography, punctuation, spelling and capitalization.

iii. **Grammatical level:** The study of the structure and construction of sentences in a certain language.

iv. **Lexical level:** The study of the words and vocabulary used in a literary extract, such as word choice, diction, connotative and denotative counterparts, as well as figurative language.

v. **Thematic level:** The study of underlying ideas, themes and messages in a text through motifs or symbolism.

1.3 Introduction of the poet, Gerard Nolst Trenité (1870-1946)

Gerard Nolst Trenité was a writer and traveler from the Netherlands. He was born in 1870 and attended the University of Utrecht to study political science, law, and classics before receiving a degree (his doctorate was awarded in 1901). He began working as a private educator in California in 1894, and at the time taught the boys of the Consul-General of the Netherlands. In addition to publishing a study on the Dutch constitution and a number of English and French schoolbooks, he taught in Haarlem from 1901 to 1918. Employing the alias Charivarius, he worked on a linguistic column for a weekly newspaper in Amsterdam from 1909 until his death in 1946.

1.4 Introduction of the poem, "The Chaos"

"The Chaos" was first recorded in an appendix (Aanhangsel) to the fourth edition of the textbook *Drop Your Foreign Accent: Engelscheuitspraakoefeningen*, written by Nolst Trenité. Prior to the 1947 revision, the book itself naturally utilized the Dutch spelling trend. In contrast to the 274 lines we currently provide (four more than in our 1986 version), the earliest edition of the poem, titled "De Chaos", only included 146 lines and italicized words with incorrect spellings. The several versions of *Drop Your Foreign Accent*, from the first (without the poem) in 1909 to the posthumous eleventh revised edition in 1961, demonstrate the book's widespread significance. The poem was almost twofold in length by the time the 7th edition (1944) was published, the last version to be published during its writer's lifetime. Given the large number of publications and the poem's constant growth, it is not surprising that so many distinct versions have been published in various countries around the world.

A vast collection of about eight hundred of the most acknowledged anomalies within the conventional English spelling, “The Chaos” is an exceptional work. It is expertly versified (although with a few difficult lines) into 274 couplets with alternating feminine and masculine rhymes. Not every rhyme will "click" right away ("grits" for "groats"), and a number of the instances mentioned and pronunciations seem a little out of date. In fact, some of the words may even be unfamiliar to modern readers (how many will know what a "studding-sail" is, or that its nautical pronunciation is "stunsail"?). Nevertheless, the vast majority of the poem is as valid a condemnation of the confusion of English spelling as it ever was. Although a mimeographed recording of the poem in Harry Cohen's custody has been attributed to "Miss Susanne Delacruix, Paris," it is unclear who the "dearest creature in creation" mentioned in the opening line - who is also referred to as "Susy" in line 5 - might have been. She was perhaps a pupil of Nolst Trenité. Readers will observe that “The Chaos” is narrated regarding the perspective of an English language learner.

2. Literature Review

"The Chaos" by Gerard Nolst Trenité is a masterful poem that showcases the complexities and irregularities of the English language. Through its clever use of homophones, homographs, and other linguistic peculiarities, the poem highlights the challenges of English pronunciation and spelling for language learners and native speakers. Due to its status as one of the most complex poems, it has found a wide range of applications in different fields. Research has shown that "The Chaos" is a valuable resource for linguists and language learners alike. The poem's exploration of the English language's phonetic and orthographic inconsistencies provides insight into the language's complexities and nuances. For example, the poem's use of words like "bough" and "cough" illustrates the challenges of predicting pronunciation based on spelling (The Chaos - Gerard Nolst Trenité). Other studies have suggested that “The Chaos” can be a useful tool in language instruction, particularly improving the students’ pronunciation and speaking skills in English (Masykuri, 2023) and testing grade 9 students whose main issue stood in the irregular pronunciation of words referring to the poem (Pantano & Ponce, 2024).

Furthermore, it communicates a sort of reality encoded by the writer through some linguistic levels, which originates from the message at its semantic level, built upon its syntactical devices to be graphologically expressed, so that the reader will be able to first decode the visual aspect of the text, then delve into analyzing possible meanings and themes (Leech & Short, 2007). In the fourth edition of "Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) highlight the prominence of Systemic Functional Linguistics being practically used to clarify how certain grammatical choices, affected by the state of affairs, contribute to constructing suggestive meanings. As much as it appears confusing for any foreigner when facing words resembling pronunciation or spelling, put one after another, the extensive use of conjunctions, for example, or similarly-pronounced words, conveys this sense of arising confusion and frustration effectively.

3. Research Methodology

This analysis is based upon the use of dictionary books (Wales, 2014), documents from websites (CORE), articles about stylistics (Zhukovska, 2010) and recent studies on the significance of the poem in enhancing the language, its practice and giving linguists and researchers the opportunity to conduct experiments and analyze its content from multiple points of view. The examination of the author's style and diction is achieved through an interpretive and measurable strategy. Concrete examples from the poem, such as referring to particular lines, stanzas or words, are used to best illustrate and structure the stylistic analysis in its five levels. Initially, the poem is analyzed in a phonological perspective, and the most representative examples are used to support the argument. The same procedure is followed for the upcoming levels with their distinctive characteristics. Additionally, to provide correct quantitative data, the entire poem is taken into consideration. The research paper's structure and format are based on (Abro, 2023).

4. Stylistic Analysis

4.1 Phonological level

Rhyme

"The Chaos" is a humorous, satirical poem. Its rhyme scheme is varied and does not follow a consistent pattern.

- *Onomatopoeia* refers to the use of words that phonetically imitate or suggest the source of the sound they describe, such as the word 'hiccough'.

- *End rhyme* occurs when two units are matched by identical sequences of sounds stretching from the vowel to the end of the word. (E.g.: Rounded, wounded, grieve and ***sieve***, / Friend and fiend, alive, and ***live***,)
- *Internal rhyme* appears as a repetition of vowels and consonant sounds within the line. (E.g.: ***Soul***, but ***foul*** and ***gaunt*** but aunt. / ***Font***, ***front***, ***won't***, ***grand***, *and* ***grant****.)*
- *Antisthecon*is the substitution of sounds to create deliberately imperfect rhymes. (E.g.: And your pronunciation's ***O.K.*** / When you say correctly: ***croquet***.)
- *Perfect rhyme* appears among words that have identical sounds and stress patterns(E.g.: But be careful how you ***speak***, / Say break, steak, but bleak and ***streak***.) The second line has an internal rhyme also.
- *Full rhyme* presupposes identity of the lower sound and the following consonant sounds in a stressed syllable. (E.g.: "Wholly, holly…")
- *Slant rhyme* is the repetition of both initial and final consonants. (E.g.: **b**rea**k**-**b**lea**k**, **s**tea**k**-**s**trea**k**)
- *Initial rhyme or alliteration* refers to the repetition of the initial consonant of the word. (E.g.: **b**lossom, **b**ossom…)
- *In-eye rhyme* introduces a special circumstance of words' pronunciation in which their letters are identical but not sounds. (E.g.: tomb, bomb, comb…)

Rhythm

Rhythm is a regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Its main unit in poetic speech is foot, which consists of one stressed syllable (S) and one unstressed syllable (U) or two. Depending on the combination of these syllables there are also other types of feet. Some of them are to be found even in the poem:

- **Iamb:** U-S (Com-**pare**): Line 114
- **Trochee:** S-U (**Ca**-mel): Line 65
- **Dactyl:** S-U-U (**which** rimes with…?): Line 143
- **Anapests:** U-U-S (It's a **dark**…): Line 137

4.2 Graphological level

The final version of the poem is structured in rhyming couplets, which go up to 274 in total.

All 274 lines start with capital letters, each of them conveying a particular meaning, connected to one another and with other stanzas through rhythm, internal, external rhymes and the logical flow of thoughts.

Pronunciation-think of *Psyche*!-
Is a paling, stout and *spiky*.
  Won't it make you lose your *wits*
  Writing *groats* and saying *"grits"*?

Meanwhile, there do not appear to be many types of punctuation marks used within the poem besides commas, question marks, and full stops.

Full stop: The author has used 59 full stops in the poem, in the end of couplets or emphasized words.

Comma: Approximately, there are331 commas. Their use is more extensive compared to other punctuation marks for several reasons:

- Highlighting contrast: ***"Bough, cough, dough, though"***
- Create rhythm: ***"Shoes, goes, does. Now first say: finger. / And then: singer, ginger, linger."***
- Illustrate linguistic nuances: ***"Will, collect, and inject."***

Question mark: Seldom used, but they pose rhetorical questions about the in-eye rhyme cases, as well as emphasizing the confusion and suspicion that foreign learners face while being put in such tricky linguistic situations.

- "Won't it make you lose your wits, / Writing "groats" and saying "grits"?"
- "Don't you think so, reader, rather, / Saying lather, bather, father?"
- "Finally, which rhymes with "enough" / Though, through, plough, cough, hough, or tough?"

4.3 Grammatical level

In its entirety, the poem is constructed by simple and complex sentences. Some of them are incomplete for literary reasons and for creating humorous effects. What is distinctive about this poem is that most of it does not have actual sentences, but instead there are more parallel-construction types of phrases. Other syntactical expressive means are also present, but less used than the latter.

- **Inversion** is a reversal of the normal or expected word order for literary purposes. (E.g.: *"Tear in eye your dress you'll tear"* instead of "You'll tear your dress in your eye's tear")
- **Parallel construction** consists of identical or similar structures in two or more parts of a sentence. (E.g.: "Just compare ***heart, beard and heard, / Dies and diet, lord and word***")
- **Enumeration:**
    - Of words with similar sounds: ***"Sally with ally, yea, ye, / Eye, I, ay, aye, whey, key, quay"***
    - Highlighting pronunciation complexities by listing words: ***"Previous, precious, fuchsia, via"***
    - Of words with unique pronunciations: ***"Tortoise, turquoise, chamois-leather"***
- **Anticlimax** is a rhetorical device in which a statement or situation builds up to an expected climax, but instead resolves in a less intense or even humorous way. The poem's final line is a great example of anticlimax ***"My advice is-give it up!"*** After an overwhelming attempt to grasp all of the hardest words to pronounce, the author suggests that it is nearly impossible to master them.
- **Asyndeton** is defined as the omission of conjunctions in a sentence or phrase. (E.g.: "***Pipe, snipe, recipe*** and choir")
- **Polysyndeton** is the term which clearly suggests the use of multiple conjunctions between words or clauses. (E.g.: "Lumber, plumber, bier, ***but*** brier doesn't exactly fit, ***but*** / Viscous, Viscount, load, ***and*** broad. / Toward, to forward, to reward")

4.4 Lexical level

One could rightfully consider this poem as a mix of encyclopedia, history, language, literature, everyday experiences because of the all-inclusive nature of the words. It is indeed a "vocabulary" which does not exclude:

- **Archaic words:** Words like ***"Wholly"***, ***"holly"***, and ***"doth"*** give the poem a nearly antiquated feel.

- **Literary allusions:** References to ***"Terpsichore"*** (the muse of dance) and ***"Melpomene"*** (the muse of tragedy)
- **Domain-specific vocabulary words:** Words like ***"phlegmatic"***, ***"anemone"***, and ***"chamois-leather"*** demonstrate a wide range of vocabulary.
- **Proper nouns:** Names of places like ***"Thames"***, ***"Islington"*** and ***"Isle of Wight"*** add geographical nuances.
- **Terminology:** Words like ***"phonetic labyrinth***" and ***"rime"*** highlight the poem's primary focus on language and pronunciation.
- **Playful language:** The use of puns and clever turns of phrases add to the poem's overall witty nature. For example: "***Tear*** in eye your dress you'll ***tear***" The word "tear" has two meanings:
    - **A drop of liquid** (tear in the eye)
    - **To rip or pull apart** (tear the dress)

This diversity of expressions, almost unbeatable playfulness and exhausting complexity, all reflect the poet's love towards language and its mazes with no exit points.

Keeping count of the most used parts of speech in the poem, nouns cover the most of it, with around 300 of them; then there are over 100 verbs and more than 30 adjectives, around 50 pronouns counting the times they are repeated and around 15 adverbs. It needs to be clarified that there are plenty of cases when a single word can function as a noun and verb at the same time. When its correct part of speech is ambiguous due to the lack of context, it can be considered as a part of both categories, or counted twice in terms of quantitative data. For example, in the 34th couplet, specifically the 68th line, the word *promise* in "Wait, surmise, plait, promise, pal." does not determine whether it means the verbal act declaring that a human being will fulfill the expectations, or the term used instead of the assurance and belief over future plans.

On the contrary, when the author has used the word under a recognizable frame of reference, the classification is done accurately. Such is the case of the 40th couplet: "Pussy, hussy and *possess*, / Desert, but dessert, ***address***." Speaking of the correlation among these two lines, rhythmic patterns serve as valid guiders. If the stress of the first line falls in the second syllable of "possess", it will automatically occur that the ending sequence of the next line will be stressed in the second syllable of "address". In this way, rhythm not only fixes the coherent and cohesive connection for these specific lines, but additionally determines the word class for "address", that is not a noun, but belongs to verbs.

Literary Devices

- **Enjambment** is the prolongation of sentences or phrases into the next line without being interrupted by punctuation. (E.g.: "Dearest creature in creation / Studying English pronunciation")
- **Metaphor** is a comparison between two unlike things, be those objects, qualities, ideas, phenomena or human beings, confronting one another and being interconnected to describe one's trait or quality through the other's specific characteristic. (E.g.: This phonetic labyrinth)
- **Personification** is a transference of human qualities by attributing them to non-human entities. (E.g.: "Pronunciation -- think of psyche--!")
- **Satire** is a way of using humor to critique the English pronunciation: "My advice is -- give it up!"
- **Simile** is also a comparison between two unlike things, furthermore using "like" or "as". (E.g.: "Strewn with stones, ***like*** rowlock, gunwale")

4.5 Thematic level

After a highly detailed analysis, it is clearly expressed that the main theme of the poem is the chaos that comes along with encountering a new language, system, and cultural values. It stands in the complexity of English pronunciation, the challenges non-native speakers have to handle as they delve deeper into a second language and those characteristics that, unlike other languages, make English unique in its way. As much as it pokes fun, at the same time, it makes an individual wonder about their native language, the ways it can also become that tremendous and error-prone while trying to find its core.

5. Discussion

The opening couplet of the poem implies that the author is not writing about his inner reflections and concerns, but rather addressing the group of individuals who have to deal with the most commonly mispronounced words of the English language. It then proceeds to put in the spotlight, by having them divided into groups or respective couplets, common words with a puzzling effect in the way they are arranged and enumerated. Some of them produce the homophonic effect, that is to say, words may have the same or equivalent pronunciation but have different meanings; or words that at first glance appear to be pronounced all alike, but result in incorrect application of rules, or, as widely recognized, in-eye rhyme examples. The use of graphological devices such as commas intensifies the overall mayhem, as the conjunctions or inverted structures do. Even the most unembellished words turn out to be as enigmatic as others, within the bounds of the poem's context. The poet has played masterfully with each word, speaking of their place in a sentence or line, their order, mistaken pronunciations, detecting errors, integrating multiple types of rhymes, as well as meaning and vocabulary, which is to be encountered abundantly in a 274-line-long poem. At this point, it is not a lexical choice anymore, but a lexical game of more than eight hundred words combined uniquely not to suggest solutions, but to perplex readers.

6. Conclusion

"The Chaos" by Gerard Nolst Trenité was written, as a name is mentioned in the poem, presumably to one of Trenité's students. However, it exposes in a clever manner the intricacies of English pronunciation and spelling. Through its use of wordplay, rhyme, and plenty of other literary devices, it sheds light on the language's complex patterns. Each of the devices suggested in the poem is to be found among the five perspectives of a thorough stylistic analysis, in which word count, every punctuation mark, their classification, and their correlation with graphological, syntactic and semantic complements visualize and construct the long-lasting effect of such a literary masterpiece. For such a complicated poem, to grasp the whole dimensions of turmoil is the result of being perfectly interconnected in terms of the logic among couplets which have a standalone meaning but still are supported by the next couplet, by presenting another scale of difficulty to the reader. By embracing the absurdities of English, the author is implementing in readers’ minds the fact that every language has its distinctive characteristics. It can be perceived as a satire towards language, it may also be considered as an adventurous experience, however the impact it has left is still to be found nowadays.

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Appendix

G. NolstTrenité, "Charivarius" The Chaos (1922)

Dearest creature in creation
Studying English pronunciation,
I will teach you in my verse
Sounds like corpse, corps, horse and worse
I will keep you, Susy, busy,
Make your head with heat grow dizzy.
Tear in eye your dress you'll tear,
So shall I! Oh, hear my prayer,
Pray, console your loving poet,
Make my coat look new, dear, sew it!
Just compare heart, beard and heard,
Dies and diet, lord and word,
Sword and sward, retain and Britain.
(Mind the latter, how it's written).
Made has not the sound of bade,
Say said, pay-paid, laid, but plaid.
Now I surely will not plague you
With such words as vague and ague,
But be careful how you speak,
Say break, steak, but bleak and streak.
Previous, precious, fuchsia, via,
Pipe, snipe, recipe and choir,
Cloven, oven, how and low,
Script, receipt, shoe, poem, toe.
Hear me say, devoid of trickery:
Daughter, laughter and Terpsichore,
Typhoid, measles, topsails, aisles.
Exiles, similes, reviles.
Wholly, holly, signal, signing.
Thames, examining, combining
Scholar, vicar, and cigar,
Solar, mica, war, and far.
From "desire": desirable--admirable from "admire."
Lumber, plumber, bier, but brier.
Chatham, brougham, renown, but known.
Knowledge, done, but gone and tone,
One, anemone. Balmoral.
Kitchen, lichen, laundry, laurel,
Gertrude, German, wind, and mind.
Scene, Melpomene, mankind,
Tortoise, turquoise, chamois-leather,
Reading, reading, heathen, heather.
This phonetic labyrinth
Gives moss, gross, brook, brooch, ninth, plinth.
Billet does not end like ballet;
Bouquet, wallet, mallet, chalet;
Blood and flood are not like food,
Nor is mould like should and would.
Banquet is not nearly parquet,
Which is said to rime with "darky."
Viscous, Viscount, load, and broad.
Toward, to forward, to reward.
And your pronunciation's O.K.,
When you say correctly: croquet.
Rounded, wounded, grieve, and sieve,
Friend and fiend, alive, and live,

Liberty, library, heave, and heaven,
Rachel, ache, moustache, eleven,
We say hallowed, but allowed,
People, leopard, towed, but vowed.
Mark the difference, moreover,
Between mover, plover, Dover,
Leeches, breeches, wise, precise,
Chalice, but police, and lice.
Camel, constable, unstable,
Principle, disciple, label,
Petal, penal, and canal,
Wait, surmise, plait, promise, pal.
Suit, suite, ruin, circuit, conduit,
Rime with "shirk it" and "beyond it."
But it is not hard to tell,
Why it's pall, mall, but Pall Mall.
Muscle, muscular, gaol, iron,
Timber, climber, bullion, lion,
Worm and storm, chaise, chaos, and chair,
Senator, spectator, mayor,
Ivy, privy, famous, clamour
And enamour rime with hammer.
Pussy, hussy, and possess,
Desert, but dessert, address.
Golf, wolf, countenance, lieutenants.
Hoist, in lieu of flags, left pennants.
River, rival, tomb, bomb, comb,
Doll and roll and some and home.
Stranger does not rime with anger.
Neither does devour with clangour.
Soul, but foul and gaunt but aunt.
Font, front, won't, want, grand, and grant.
Shoes, goes, does. Now first say: finger.
And then: singer, ginger, linger,
Real, zeal, mauve, gauze, and gauge,
Marriage, foliage, mirage, age.
Query does not rime with very,
Nor does fury sound like bury.
Dost, lost, post; and doth, cloth, loth;
Job, Job; blossom, bosom, oath.
Though the difference seems little,
We say actual, but victual.
Seat, sweat; chaste, caste.; Leigh, eight, height;
Put, nut; granite, and unite.
Reefer does not rime with deafer,
Feoffer does, and zephyr, heifer.
Dull, bull, Geoffrey, George, ate, late,
Hint, pint, Senate, but sedate.
Scenic, Arabic, Pacific,
Science, conscience, scientific,
Tour, but our and succour, four,
Gas, alas, and Arkansas.
Sea, idea, guinea, area,
Psalm, Maria, but malaria,
Youth, south, southern, cleanse and clean,
Doctrine, turpentine, marine.
Compare alien with Italian,
Dandelion with battalion.
Sally with ally, yea, ye,
Eye, I, ay, aye, whey, key, quay.
Say aver, but ever, fever.

Neither, leisure, skein, receiver.
Never guess--it is not safe:
We say calves, valves, half, but Ralph.
Heron, granary, canary,
Crevice and device, and eyrie,
Face but preface, but efface,
Phlegm, phlegmatic, ass, glass, bass.
Large, but target, gin, give, verging,
Ought, out, joust, and scour, but scourging,
Ear but earn, and wear and bear
Do not rime with here, but ere.
Seven is right, but so is even,
Hyphen, roughen, nephew, Stephen,
Monkey, donkey, clerk, and jerk,
Asp, grasp, wasp, and cork and work.
Pronunciation--think of psyche--!
Is a paling, stout and spikey,
Won't it make you lose your wits,
Writing "groats" and saying "grits"?
It's a dark abyss or tunnel,
Strewn with stones, like rowlock, gunwale,
Islington and Isle of Wight,
Housewife, verdict, and indict!
Don't you think so, reader, rather,
Saying lather, bather, father?
Finally: which rimes with "enough"
Though, through, plough, cough, hough, or
tough?
Hiccough has the sound of "cup."
My advice is--give it up!

Anelmo SPAHIJA[1]

Reforma Ivanaj (1932-1936): Përpjekja për Nacionalizimin e Arsimit në Shqipëri në Kushtet e Krizës së Marrëdhënieve Italo-Shqiptare

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Abstract

One of the important elements of the consolidation of the nation-state in modern societies of XIX-XX centuries was the nationalization of education, in terms of not only the use of education in the function of the national idea and consciousness, but also its use in the function and service of official policies imposed and followed by the nation-state. In Albania, this process has its beginnings, of course with the beginnings of the independent Albanian state, but the political crises that the country went through until after the First World War and the final securing of international recognition and the foreign influences of neighboring countries in the cultural and educational fields (especially Italian and Greek schools) delayed the realization of this process, which had previously been realized in many European countries during the first phases of their consolidation. The nationalization of education was first undertaken in Albania in the years 1932-1936, being directly linked, firstly, to the crisis of Albanian-Italian relations, to the efforts of Ahmet Zogu to weaken the influence of fascist Italy in Albania and, secondly, to the efforts of patriotic and nationalist elements in the country, represented by the Minister of Education, Mirash Ivanaj, under whose leadership the reform went beyond the purely anti-Italian character, being açompanied by the nationalization of all foreign schools in the country and their placement under a common program and regulations of a national character. This study examines the political causes and the inability of the Albanian state to pursue such a policy in the long term, mainly related to the international factor, with the increase in political, economic and military pressure from fascist Italy.

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Hyrje

Depërtimi i kapitalit italian në Shqipëri dhe rritja e influencës politike në vend, u shoqërua edhe me përpjekjet për të ndikuar në fushën e arsimit dhe të kulturës. Që në fund të shek XIX fillojnë të ngrihen shkollat e para italiane në Shkodër e Vlorë. Në fillim të shek.XX, pati një rritje të mëtejshme të rrjetit shkollor italian. Në vitin 1909 në Shkodër kishte 6 institucione arsimore italiane. Gjatë viteve të Luftës së Parë Botërore, pas depërtimit ushtarak në Shqipëri, numri i shkollave arriti në 133[2]. Pasi organizoi administratën arsimore me drejtues e inspektorë italianë, qeveria italiane nisi në Shqipëri kontigjente mësuesish ushtarakë italianë.

Hovin më të madh, përhapja e shkollave italiane e mori pas vitit 1925. Politika e dyerve të hapura e ndjekur nga Ahmet Zogu reflektua edhe në fushën e arsimit dhe kulturës. Në shkurt 1928 doli vendimi i qeverisë që sanksionoi kufizimin e gjimnazeve vetën në tre të tillë për të gjithë Shqipërinë dhe parashikoi ngritjen në vend të tyre të shkollave të ulëta profesionale që do të çeleshin nga Italia. Në qershor 1928 u arrit marrëveshja për ngritjen e shkollave profesionale me personel dhe bazë materiale italiane[3]. Ndërhyrja italiane u zgjerua edhe në arsimin fillor. U mbyllën 59 shkolla fillore fshati dhe në vend të tyre u hapën 11 shkolla fillore-konvikt italiane. Shkolla të tilla u ngritën në Tiranë, Shkodër (2 shkolla që administroheshin nga kleri katolik), Vlorë dhe Durrës[4]. Për të siguruar një tërheqje sa më të madhe të rinisë shqiptare në rrjetën e ndikimit italia, iu kushtua rëndësi ndërhyrjes në aktivitetet jashtëshkollore. Në çdo prefekturë kishte nga një officer italian me titullin e kryeinstruktorit të edukatës fizike, ndërsa në Ministrinë e Arsimit u vendos oficeri Agustinuçi, me cilësinë e inspektorit qendror të edukatës fizike. Vitet 1929-1931 shënojnë një rritje të interesit të qeverisë italiane për zgjerimin dhe mënyrën se si duhet të funksiononin shkollat italiane në Shqipëri. Pranë Ministrisë së Arsimit u krijua një seksion i ri për shkollat profesionale italiane, në krye të të cilit u caktua Luraski. Qëllimi i emërimit të tij ishte përmirësimi i funksionimit dhe adaptimi i sistemit arsimor shqiptar në favor të depërtimit të kulturës, gjuhës, dhe të propagandës fashiste në Shqipëri. Ai ndërmerte vizita e turne në vendet ku do të çeleshin shkollat e reja. Gjithashtu mund të hartonte programet për administrimin e shkollave në të gjithë Shqipërine, pa pasur nevojë të konsultohet me Ministrinë e Arsimit.

[2] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë,1980, 8-15

[3] Po aty, 32

[4] Po aty, 33

Si funksiononin shkollat italiane në Shqipëri? Cili ishte qëllimi i hapjes së tyre? Shteti italian, sidomos pas ardhjes në pushtet të Mussolinit investoi në Shqipëri për arsimin me qëllim që, duke përhapur kulturën, gjuhën italiane dhe propagandën fashiste në vend, të krijohej një mbështetje sa më e gjerë ndaj Italisë dhe t'i hapej rruga më tej depërtimit ekonomik e politik në Shqipëri. Invesitmi në arsim përqëndrohej në ngritjen e shkollave profesionale, të mesme dhe fillore. Çelja e shkollave profesionale filloi në vitin 1929, me ngritjen e shkollës së parë profesionale në Gjirokastër, e më pas në Berat, Shkodër e Korçë. Drejtimi kryesor i këtre shkollave ishte industrial-artizanal, ku përgatiteshin mekanikë(axhustatorë, elektriçistë, kovaçë) dhe marangozë. "*Të përgatiten artizanë dhe teknikë për nevojat imediate të vendit, krejtësisht me mjetet e kulturës italiane, duke rritur përhapjen e gjuhës dhe të vetëdijes së qytetërimit italian*"[5] ishte objektivi kryesor i Ministrisë së Punëve të Jashtme italiane. Përveç shkollave profesionale, shteti italian investoi edhe në ngritjen e shkollave fillore. Shkolla të tilla u ngritën e Durrës, Tiranë, Vlorë dhe në Shkodër. Një rol të rëndësishëm në zhvillimin e arsimit në favor të interesave italiane luajti edhe kleri katolik. Shkolla mikste saleziane, shkolla femërore stigmatine në Shkodër, më pas shkolla fillore e ngritur nnga murgeshat në Durrës, shkolla fillore e ngritur nga jezuitët në Tiranë etj, patën mbështetjen e plotë të Legatës Italiane, e cila do të ndërhynte tëk Ministria e Arsimit për njohjen e tyre. Edhe në shkollat e mesme shtetërore, influenca italiane u bë aktive, përmes punësimit të mjaft mësuesve italianë, për mësimin e gjuhës dhe kulturës italiane.

Kriza në marrëdhëniet shqiptaro-italiane dhe rritja e frymës anti-italiane

Marrëdhëniet italo-shqiptare shkuan drejt ashpërsimit gjithnjë e më të madh pas refuzimit të qeverisë shqiptare për të rinovuar Traktatin e Parë të Tiranës, në nëntor 1931. Ky vendim i Ahmet Zogut dhe qeverisë shqiptare lidhej me rritjen e vazhdueshme të influencës së Italisë fashiste pothuejse në të gjitha sektorët e shtetit dhe shoqërisë shqiptare. Benito Musolini synonte të shfrytëzonte situatën e rëndë ekonomike të vendit, e cila vështirësohej edhe më tej në kushtet e krizës ekonomike botërore, që kishte filluar në vitin 1929. Kushtet e kredisë së SVEA-s për rimëkëmbjen e ekonomike të vendit kishin qenë të rënda, duke parashikuar vndosjen e "specialistëve italinë" në ministritë shqiptare dhe në sektorë të ushtrisë[6]. Kjo politikë

[5] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 69

[6] Paskal Milo, *Politika e jashme e Shqipërisë I (1912-1939),* Toena, Tiranë, 2013, 798-801

imperialiste e Italisë fashiste që rrezikonte seriozisht sovranitetin dhe pavarësinë e vendit, përpjekjet e mbretit e qeverisë shqiptare për të shmangur një skenar të tillë nxitën frymën anti-italiane në vend.

Fryma anti-italiane që filloi të shfaqej në Shqipëri në fillim të viteve 30', u shfaq edhe në rritjen e protestës ndaj dominimit italian në fushën e arsimit. Zërat e protestës vinin kryesisht nga intelektualë të klasës së mesme. Hobsbaum në studimet e tij mbi nacionalizmin gjuhësor, vë në dukje se janë pikërisht klasat e mesme ato që ndihen drejtpërdrejt të rrezikuara nga depërtimi i kulturave dhe gjuhëve të huaja në një vend të caktuar. Ai përmend si shembull rastin e nacionalizmit flamand në Balgjikën Veriore, të nxitur kryesisht nga klasat e mesme flamande: "*Vetë fakti që, për të njëjtin post, një flamand patjetër duhej të ishte dygjuhësh, ndërsa ai që e kishte frëngjishten gjuhë amtare kishte nevojë vetëm për një njohje të përciptë të gjuhës tjetër… vinte në dukje inferioritetin e gjuhës më të dobët.*"[7] Përhapja e shkollës italiane në Shqipëri dhe roli gjithnjë e më i rëndësishëm që po merrte gjuha italiane në të gjitha shkallët e arsimit (tashmë kishte filluar një dyndje e mësuesve italianë në Shqipëri, me qëllimin që t'i transmetohej sa më mirë nxënësve "*entuziazmi i gjallë dhe shpirti i italianizimit*"[8], gjë që nuk mund të realizohet nga mësues joitalian), kërcënonte pozitat modeste të klasës së mesme shqiptare, e cila sapo kishte filluar të formohej. Prandaj në qytetet kryesore të Shqipërisë filloi një lëvizje e gjerë kundër arsimit italian. Filluan të shfaqeshin artikuj ku evidentoheshin rreziqet e arsimit në gjuhë të huaj. "*Nji arsim filluer në gjuhë të huej asht si me helmatisun ndërgjegjen kombëtare në djep, asht nji thikë me dy presa në shpirtin, në zemrën e kombit*", shkuhej në gazetën "Shekulli i ri", ndërkohë që në "Gazeta e Re" botohej artikulli me titull "*Kulturë, por kombëtare*"[9]. Gjithnjë e më tëpër, mësues e punonjës të arsimit kërkonin që Ministria e Arsimit të nxiste futjen e mësimit të shqipes në shkollat italiane në vend dhe punësimin në to edhe të mësuesve shqiptarë. Inspektorët e arsimit Kol Koçi e Dhimitër Gjerga vinin në dukje krijimin në qytetin e Shkodrës të një rryme të fortë anti-italiane. Për krijimin e kësaj situate në Shkodër dëshmonin edhe raportet e konsullit italian Meloni, i cili informonte legatën në Tiranë mbi disa mësues

[7] Erik Hobsbaum*, Kombet dhe nacionalizmi që nga 1780-a*, Toena, Tiranë, 1996, 119
[8] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 96
[9] Gazeta e Re, dt. 8.1.1929, Nr.55, fl. 1

shkodranë që zhvillonin një "*fushatë denigruese në dëmin tonë*."[10] Një rrymë e tillë filloi të ngjallej edhe në Vlorë, ku drejtori i shkollës shqipe i kërkonte Ministrisë së Arsimit që të merreshin masa ndaj konkurrencës që shkolla italiane i bënte shkollës shqipe. Ai vinte në dukje se si shkolla italiane tërhiqte gjithnjë e më shumë nxënës shqiptar, dhe kjo ishte në dëm të interesit kombëtar. Gjithashtu mësues të tjerë shqiptarë dërgonin nota proteste mbi rolin propagandistik që luante shkolla italiane e Vlorës. Pakënaqësi të shumta u lindën ndaj italianizimit të shkollës tregtare të Vlorës. Edhe pse ishte shkollë shtetërore, me ndërhyrjen e Legatës italiane u arrit që gjysma e mësuesve të ishin italian, dhe që të zhvilloheshin një numër i caktuar lëndësh në italisht. Sipas ministrit të arsimit, Hilë Mosi, këto veprime bëheshin pa miratimin e ministrisë. Pas ardhjes së drejtorit Naun Stralla, i cili pakësoi orët e mësimit të mësuesve italianë, u forcua edhe më tej reagimi anti-italian, aq sa konsulli italian vinte në dukje qëndrimin "josimpatik" ndaj profesorëve italianë[11]. Edhe në Elbasan pati një lëvizje anti-italiane, ku intelektualë të shtresave të mesme nxitën protesta kundër futjes së italishtes si gjuhë të detyrueshme në Shkollën Normale dhe sidomos kundër mësuesit italian Arnaldo Forenzi, që dallohej si propagandues i fashizmit. Që në vitin 1930, në postin e Ministrisë së Arsimit u vendos Hilë Mosi, i cili nuk ngurroi të evidentonte pengesat që i sillnin shkollat italiane përhapjes së arsimit kombëtar dhe shkeljet që ato bënin. Ai akuzonte konsullatën italiane për veprimet e saj në favor të rritjes së personelit italian në shkollat shqiptare, veprime që bëheshin pa u konsultuar me Ministrinë e Arsimit. Qëllimi i tij ishte krijimi i një sistemi arsimor laik dhe nën kontrollin e shtetit. Ai nxiti shtypin vendas që t'i propagandonte edhe më tej këto ide. U dallua revista "Edukata e re", e drejtuar nga Vasil Vinjau, e cila rivendikonte të drejtën dhe detyrën e edukimit që kishte shteti që kishte shteti. Nga ana tjetër, qarqet klerikale, interesat e të cilëve prekeshin në këtë rast, zhvillonin replikën e tyre kundër Hilë Mosit dhe rrymës anti-italiane tek revista "Hylli i Dritës".

Dekret Ligji mbi Arsimin

Prandaj, si reagim ndaj përpjekjeve të Musolinit për ta nënshtruar përfundimisht Shqipërinë, sidomos përmes imponimit të bashkimit doganor, por edhe si përgjigje ndaj një rryme të fortë kundër përhapjes së arsimit italian në Shqipëri, Ahmet Zogu dhe qeveria e tij vendosën të vepronin. Me 14 shtator 1932 u botua

[10] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 86
[11] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 91

Dekret Ligji për shkollat e huaja në Shqipëri. Ai u miratua në parlament në prill 1933[12]. Sipas tij, qytetarët shqiptar ndaloheshin të dërgonin fëmijët e tyre në shkollat e huaja fillore brenda ose jashtë Shqipërisë. Në rast se ky ligj nuk zbatohej, ata dënoheshin me dy deri në gjashtë muaj burg ose me pagimin e jë shume që shkonte nga 500 deri 1000 franga. Ligji i jepte të drejtë parapëlqimi në kandidaturat e nëpunësive qeveritare, atyre studentëve që kishin kryer studimet në Shqipëri. Pra, ata do të kishin përparësi për tu punësuar në administratën shtetërore në krahasim me ata që kishin kryer studimet në shkollat e huaja. Ligji dënonte me dy muj burg dhe me përjashtim nga çdo nëpunësi në administrtë, edhe ata nxënës që pa lejen e Ministrisë së Arsimit vazhdonin të ndiqnin mësimet jashtë shtetit, me bursa të shteteve të huaja. Pavarësisht shpalljes së tij, Dekret Ligji nuk hyri menjëherë në fuqi, pasi më parë duhej të ratifikohej nga parlamenti, dhe së dyti duhet të hartohej një plan për zhvillimin e arsimit kombëtar që do të zëvendësonte rolin që kishin shkollat e huaja, që më shumicën e tyre ishin italiane.

Në dhjetor, Hilë Mosi vdiq. Vendin e tij e zuri Mirash Ivanaj, i cili ishte një mbështës edhe më radikal i reformës. Idetë e tij ai i shpreh në një raport që i paraqet mbretit, dy javë pasi kishte marrë postin e ministrit (janar 1933). Në këtë raport parashtrohet si ide qëndrore domosdoshmëria e reformimit të arsimit shqiptar me synim kryesor nacionalizimin dhe laicizimin e tij. Pengesë për këtë qëllim madhor përbënin numri i madh i shkollave të huaja dhe klerikale si gjimnazet e françeskanëve dhe jezuitëve në Shkodër, shkollat e huaja fillore, shkollat profesionale italiane në Shkodër, Korçë, Berat, e Gjirokastër, shkolla italiane e muzikës në Tiranë, Shkolla e Komunitetit Mysliman në Tiranë etj. Ai i vuri në dukje Zogut edhe faktin që funsionarët italian kishin arritur të infiltroheshin në Ministrinë e Arsimit duke ngritur organe paralele, si dhe veprimet që ata bënin pa arrë pëlqimin e shtetit shqiptar. Në këtë raport, paraqiti edhe propozimet e tij: ndryshimi i nenit 206 të Statutit Themeltar, që lejonte çeljen e shkollave të huaja në Shqipëri, të kufizohej prania e nëpunësve italianë në Ministrinë e Arsimit dhe të viheshin nën kontrollin e ministrisë. Përsa i përket bursave që jepte qeveria italiane për studentët shqiptarë, ato mund të pranoheshin më kusht që studentët të zgjidheshin nga vetë shteti[13]. Pasi mori

[12] Fletorja Zyrtare, 22 prill 1933, Nr 21, 1
[13] Iljaz Gogaj, *Mirash Ivanaj, personalitet i shquar i universit shqiptar*, Erik botime, Tiranë, 2004, 100-108

miratimin e Mbretit për platformën e re që paraqiti, nisi puna për të projektuar atë që ka hyrë në histori me emrin "Reforma Ivanaj".

Me 11 prill 1933, parlamenti shqiptar miratoi Dekret Ligjin mbi Arsimin, si dhe u ndryshuan nenet 206 dhe 207 të Statutit Themeltar të Mbretërisë: "*Mësimi dhe edukimi i shtetasve shqiptar janë një e drejtë ekskluzive e shtetit. Arsimi fillor është i detyrueshëm dhe jepet falas*". Gjithashtu u vendos që katër shkollat profesionale italiane të kalonin nga administrimi i drejtorëve italianë, në atë të drejtorëve shqiptarë. [14] Këto shkolla tashmë nuk do të vareshin nga seksioni i shkollave profesionale, por nga seksioni i shkollave të mesme pranë Ministrisë së Arsimit. Edhe organizatori italian i këtyre shkollave do të vihej nën kontrollin e Ministrisë së Arsimit. Gjithashtu të gjithë mësuesit italianë duhet të lidhnin kontratë legale me Ministrinë e Arsimit[15]. Gjithsej u mbyllën 85 shkolla private, ndër to edhe 17 shkolla klerikale katolike[16]. Qeveria bëri të mundur shtimin e orëve mësimore në shqip edhe në shkollat italiane. Drejtorët e rinj që u emëruan në shkollat profesionale përfaqësonin një brez të ri që pasi kishte kryer studimet jashtë shtetit, kërkonte të ndërtonte të ardhmen në Shqipëri. Kështu në shkollën profesionale të Gjirokastrës drejtori i ri që u vendos ishte i diplomuar në Grenoble[17], ndërsa në Shkodër u vendos Palok Koka, i diplomuar në Itali. Në Vlorë, drejtori i ri, Naun Stralla mbajti qëndrim të hapur kundër mësuesve italianë, duke u pakësuar orët e mësimdhëniës. Qeveria shqiptare mori edhe masa për ndalimin e dërgimit të nxënësve shqiptar në shkollat italiane. Filloi një fushatë, në të cilën u përfshinë jo vetëm mësuesit, drejtorët, por madje edhe prefektët dhe policia, që i bënte thirrje familjeve shqiptare për të tërhequr fëmijët nga shkollat italiane. Sipas Legatës Italiane, në Vlorë, pati edhe "vizita" të policisë në të tilla familje, duke i kërcënuar në rast të një veprimi të kundërt. Sipas të njëjtit burim kishte një prezencë aktive të agjentëve të policisë pranë shkollës fillore italiane. Përmenden gjithashtu një numër i madh personash të shquar në qytet, të cilët për shkak të presioneve nga qeveria apo prefektura ishin detyruar të largonin fëmijët nga shkollat italiane[18].

[14] Fletorja Zyrtare, 22 prill 1933, Nr 21, 2
[15] Iljaz Gogaj, Ndërhyrja arsimore, 80
[16] Paskal Milo, Politika e jashme e Shqipërisë, Toena, Tiranë, 2013, 825
[17] AQSH, Viti 1933, F.163, D.246
[18] AQSH, Viti 1933, F.163, D.248, "*Il Sig. Naçi, direttore del' ufficio di dogana di Tirana ha due figlioli, che da qualche giorno non frequentano piu l'asilio. Egli ha riferito alle Suore che la sua signora, mentre passegiava con i figlioli sul boulevard Mussolini e stata avvicinata da una direttriçe di una scuola albanese… e quando ha saputo che frequentavano la scuola italiana, l'ha rimprovarata ed ha aggiunto che ne avrebbe riferito al ministro. La mattina suçesiva il sig. Naçi ebbe infatti una*

Masat e mësipërme radikale tregonin se sa seriozisht e kishte marrë ministri Ivanaj dhe mbreti Zog reformën arsimore dhe goditjen e influencës italiane. Për vitin 1934, buxheti i arsimit ishte sa një e pesta e buxhetit shtetëror (3.141.000 fr. ari). Mirash Ivanajt iu desh të bënte një luftë të ashpër në parlament me deputetët filo-italianë si Fejzi Alizoti e Mihal Kaso, të cilët mendonin se duhej frenuar arsimi, sepse Shqipëria rrezikohej nga mbiprodhimi intelektual. Në kuadrin e përpjekjeve për forcimin e arsimit kombëtar, suprimimi i shkollave të huaja u shoqërua me hapjen e shkollave të reja si instituti femëror "Nëna Mbretëreshë" dhe shkolla femërore e Korçës[19]. Rezultat i këtyre masave ishte pakësimi i frekuentimit të shkollave italiane nga nxënësit shqiptar. Për këtë dëshmojnë dokumentet e lëshuara nga Legata Italiane. Ndëekohë që në vitin 1932, azil infantil italian në Tiranë frekuentohej nga 22 nxënës shqiptar, tashmë kishin mbetur vetëm 8 të tillë. Një rënie drastike vihet re edhe në shkollën femërore italiane, që drejtohej nga murgeshat, nga 60 nxënëse numri ka rënë në 5-6 të tilla[20].

Përmes reformës, Ahmet Zogu synonte të detyronte Italinë të tërhiqet nga kërkesat për rikthimin e kredive e për bashkim doganor. Nga ana tjetër, reforma në arsim duhej të shërbente edhe për të rritur simpatinë ndaj regjimit, duke u paraqitur si mbrojtës i arsimit kombëtar kundër ndërhyrjes së huaj. Në të gjithë vendin u organizuan mitingje "spontane" bankete, e manifestime ku drejtorë shkollash, mësues e nxënës shprehnin mbështetjen për politikën e ndjekur nga qeveria, dhe optimizmin se reforma do të ishte e suksesshme. Të tilla u zhvilluan sidomos në Vlorë dhe në Elbasan, me rastin e shtetëzimit të shkollave.

Reagimi Italian. Dështimi i negociatave italo-shqiptare

Reforma arsimore, e cila "gërvishti", siç shprehej Ugo Sola, institucionet arsimore italiane në Shqipëri, nuk mund të mos shoqërohej nga një reagim i vendosur nga ana e Italisë. Pak ditë para shpalljes së dekretligjit mbi arsimit, në një takim me parinë klerikale në shkodër, Koh do të deklaronte se do të bënte ç'ishte e mundur "*për të ndaluar Ministrinë e Arsimit që të realizonte qëllimet e veta*"[21]. Me 12 prill, një

telefonata con la quale lo si invitava a ritirare i figlioli dalla scuola italiana, pena, la sospensione dall'ufficio… Il sig. Hoxha, impiegato alla Banca Nazionale dell'Albania, una mattina si e presentato a ritirare la bambina perche un polizioto lo ha avvertito che avrebbe riferito alle Autorita la frequenza della bambina alla nostra scuola. Il sig. Tuni, impiegato all'ospedale militare, non manda piu il bambino perche un poliziotto sorveglia l'uscita dell piccolo."

[19] Iljaz Gogaj, *Mirash Ivanaj, personalitet i shquar i universit shqiptar*, Erik botime, Tiranë, 2004, 111

[20] AQSH, Viti 1933, F. 163, D.248, f. 3-4

[21] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj,* 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 44

ditë pasi dekreti u miratua në parlament, ai u takua me mbretin Zog, duke i tërhequr vëmendjen këtij të fundit për tre çështje kryesore. Së pari, për të mos shprehur menjëherë interesit për shkollat italiane, Legata italiane shprehte shqetësimin se reforma arsimore godiste institucionet arsimore katolike, megjithë të mirat që ato i kanë sjellë vendit. Së dyti, ai i interpretoi ligjet e reja mbi arsimin, që godisnin përhapjen e kulturës italiane në Shqipëri, si "*akte jomiqësore ndaj Italisë*". Së treti, Koh i vuri në dukje mbretit se këto masa të marra nga qeveria shqiptare do të kishin impakt të drejtpërdrejt në qëndrimin e Italisë gjatë negociatave për huanë, që ishin akoma në vazhdim[22]. Ndërkohë Zogu, që e kishte ndërmarë reformën kryesisht për qëllime personale (siç u shpjegua më lart, për të reaguar ndaj këkesës italiane për bashkim doganor, për ta detyruar atë të tërhiqej dhe të rifillonte dhënien e huasë financiare, si dhe për tu shfaqur në popull si reformator patriot), përgjigjej përmes deklaratës së Ministrisë së Arsimit se reforma arsimore nuk ishte kundër Italisë, se ajo kishte për qëllim "forcimin e bashkimit kombëtar" dhe se emërimi i drejtorëve shqiptarë në shkollat italiane nuk kishte për qëllim të cënonte veprën arsimore e teknike italiane në Shqipëri, por "ta ndihmonte atë në mbarëvajtjen e punës"[23].

Çdo lëshim i yni është një goditje e rëndë ndaj prestigjit të Italisë"[24], i raportonte Meloni, konsulli italian në Shkodër, Musolinit. Prandaj ky i fundit urdhëroi tërheqjen e materialeve dhe personelit nga shkollat italiane. Në prill 1933, Konsulli italian në Vlorë e urdhëronte drejtorin e shkollës profesionale italiane që të dërgonte të gjitha materialet mësimore e teknike në Shkodër[25], ku prej aty do të dërgoheshin më pas në Romë. Kudo ku Ministria e Arsimit emëroi drejtorë shqiptarë, shkollat italiane në shenjë proteste u mbyllën. Rasti më flagrant ndodhi në Shkodër, ku konsullata italiane i dha urdhër bordit drejtues të shkollës profesionale, që në momentin kur drejtori shqiptar i caktuar nga Ministria e Arsimit të prezantohej, shkolla të mbyllej menjëherë.

Demontrata navale italiane dhe abrogimi i reformws arsimore

Por në muajt e mëvonshëm vështirësitë e brendshme e detyruan Zogun të bënte një tërheqje graduale nga të gjitha pozicionet e mëparshme. Kriza në marrëdhëniet italo-shqiptare arriti kulmin. Musolini vendosi të reagonte ndaj kundërshtimeve të Shqipërisë për të arritur një marëveshje për kushte të reja italiane

[22] Po aty, 47
[23] Ilir Ushtelenca, *Diplomacia e mbretit Zogu I*, Ermir, Tiranë, 1997, 244
[24] AQSH, Viti 1933, Fondi 163, Dosja 265, fl. 5
[25] AQSH, Viti 1933, Fondi 163, Dosja 264, fl. 10

për huanë, Duçja u alarmua edhe më tepër nga përpjekjet e Ahmet Zogut për tu afruar me Francën dhe Jugosllavinë. Me 23 qershor 1934, 22 anije italiane u ankoruan përballë frontit të Durrësit. Bllokada navale italiane dhe moreagimi i Francës dhe Anglisë e bindi mbretin e Shqipërisë se nuk kishte rrugë tjetër përveç rikthimit tek Italia[26]. Ndërkohë, gjendja ekonomike e vendit, me tërheqjen e huave italiane shkoi gjithnjë e më shumë drejt degradimit. Gjithashtu, mbyllja e shkollave italiane ishte shoqëruar edhe me mbylljen e shkollave katolike në Shkodër dhe atyre greke në jug të vendit. Kjo u shoqërua me protesta në Shkodër dhe rritjen e pakënaqësisë së klerit katolik, që kishte një influencë të madhe në Veri, ndërkohë që pala greke e çoi çështjen për shqyrtim në Gjykatën e Hagës.

Kwshtu, Ahmet Zogu nw bisedimet qw filluan menjwherw nw muajt qw asuan demontratwn navale italiane, pranoi ndwr tw tjera edhe arritjen e një kompromisi për çështjen e shkollave katolike e italiane, rihapjen e tyre dhe heqjen dorë nga monopoli shtetëror mbi arsimin[27]. Këtu ndikuan edhe presionet e bëra nga Lidhja e Kombeve, për shkak të mbylljes së shkollave të minoritetit grek. Në gusht 1935, edhe ministri Ivanaj paraqiti dorëheqjen: "*tue qenë i bindun se vetëm në shkollat e shtetit, pa as më të voglin cënim të të drejtave individuale osë kolektive, djelmënia jonë mund të edukohet si e tillë e të fitojë ndjesinë dhe ndërgjegjen kombëtare, moralin dhe disiplinën shtetërore, nuk mund të bashkohem me mendimin e shumicës së Këshillit Ministror. Për këtë arsye, kam nderin të paraqes dorëheqjen nga dikasteri i arsimit*"[28]. Më në fund edhe ai e kuptoi se reforma arsimore nuk kishte pasur për qëllim zgjidhjen e problemeve arsimore në vend, por thjesht ishte përdorur si një mjet për të bërë presion ndaj Italisë.

Në vendimin përfundimtar të Zogut për tu rikthyer nën ombrellën italiane ndikoi edhe fakti se nuk u arrit të gjendej një tjetër shtet që mund t'i ofronte Shqipërisë ndihma dhe kredi financiare. Rikthimi i plotë nën ombrellën italiane u realizua në marrëveshjet e marsit 1936 që përmbanin klauzolat për dhënien e kredive italiane për rimëkëmbjen ekonomike të vendit, por gjithnjë në këmbim të koncesioneve për shoqëritë monopoliste italiane dhe rritjen e ndikimit Italian në sektorët e administratës dhe ushtrisë shqiptare[29].

[26] Bernd J. Fischer, *Mbreti Zog dhe përpjekja për stabilitet në Shqipëri,* Çabej, Tiranë, 2004, 229
[27] Po aty, 239
[28] Iljaz Gogaj, *Mirash ivanaj personalitet i shquar i universit shqiptar*, Erik botime, Tiranë, 2004, 180-181
[29] Arben Puto, *Shqipëria Politike 1912-1939,* Toena, Tiranë, 2009, 545-546

Por Ahmet Zogu nuk pranoi që një klauzolë mbi arsimin të përfshihej në marrëveshjet e marsit 1936, për dy arsye: së pari, të mos krijohej përshtypja para opinoinit publik se shkollat katolike e italiane po hapeshin nën presionin e Italisë dhe së dyti, donte ta zvarriste sa më shumë çështjen në mënyrë që t'i tërhiqte sa më shumë të holla italianëve. Rihapja e shkollave katolike dhe të huaja u shpall zyrtarisht nga ministri i jashtëm Fuat Asllani. Me 8 maj 1936, ai paraqiti në Gjenevë, në Asamblenë e Lidhjes së Kombeve deklaratën e qeverisë për shkollat klerikale. Ndërkohë, u publikua në Fletoren Zyrtare dokumenti që lejonte funksionimin e lirë të shkollave të klerit katolik dhe të çdo shkolle tjetër që do të kishte autorizimin e Ministrisë së Arsimit[30]. Dekreti hidhte poshtë ligjin e 11 prillit 1933.

Përfundime

Reforma Arsimore për nacionalizimin e arsimit në Shqipëri u ndërmor në radhë të parë për t'i shërbyer kursit të ri të politikës së jashtme të ndjekur nga mbreti Ahmet Zogu dhe qeveria shqiptare. Duke filluar nga viti 1931 mbreti shqiptar kishte vendosur t'i kundërvihej përpjekjeve të Italisë fashiste për të rritur ndikimin e saj politik e ekonomik në vend, duke refuzuar rinovimin e Traktatit të Miqësisë dhe Sigurimit. Benito Musolini u kundërpërgjigj duke tërhequr të gjitha ndihmat financiare për Shqipërinë, duke e çuar në rritjen e vështrësive ekonomike në vend. Pikërisht në këtë sfornd politik duhet parë iniciativa e Ahmet Zogut dhe qeverisë shqiptare për të goditur drejtpërdrejtë prestigjin që gëzonte Italia në vend, duke ndërmarrë nacionalizimin e arsimit, shtetëzimin e shkollave italiane. Së dyti kjo masë i përgjigjej edhe aspiratave politike të qarqeve patriotike e nacionaliste brenda vendit, që e panë këtë si një masë të mëtejshme në procesin e nacionalizimi dhe laicizimit të arsimit. Nën drejtimin e ministrit të arsimit Mirash Ivanaj, reforma mori karakter të mirëfilltë kombëtarist, duke realizuar unifikimin e organizimit dhe programeve në shkollat shqiptare. Por reforma nuk u ndal vetëm në nacionalizimin e shkollave italiane, por u shtri edhe më gjerë në mbylljen e të gjithë shkollave të huaja (amerikane, franceze) dhe klerikale, duke shkaktuar ndër të tjera edhe pakënaqësi në disa sektorë shoqëror, por edhe tension diplomatik në rastin e mbylljes së shkollave greke në jug të vendit. Pikërisht duke iu përgjigjur këtyre vështirësive të krijuara, por sidomos nga presioni i faktorit të jashtëm, që arriti kulmin me demonstratën navale italiane, qeveria shqiptare u detyrua të tërhiqej, të rikthehej nën ombrellën italiane dhe

[30] Iljaz Gogaj, *Ndërhyrja arsimore italiane në Shqipëri dhe qëndresa kundër saj*, 8 Nëntori, Tiranë, 1980, 56-57

të nxjerrte një dekret të ri mbi arsimin për rihapjen e shkollave. Pavarësisht kohës së shkurtër të zbatimit të saj, reforma arsimore e drejtuar nga Mirash Ivanaj pati rëndësinë e saj në disa aspekte. Reforma filloi realizimin e një procesi që kishte karakterizuar ndërtimin e shtet-kombit në shumë vende të Evropës. Reformat për nacionalizimin, laicizimin dhe unifikimin e arsimit kombëtar në fazat e parë të ngritjes së shtetit-komb, shikoheshin si element i rëndësishem në ngritjen e identitetit kombëtar në masat e gjera të popullsisë. "Ndeshja me Italinë siguroi një vatër, edhe pse gjithsesi negative, për rritjen dhe forcimin e ndjenjave nacionaliste"[31]. Nga ana tjetër, reforma arsimore dhe karakteri i saj me drejtim anti-italian demosntroi vullnetin e mbetit Zog dhe qeverisë shqiptare për t'i rezistuar synimeve imperialiste e kolonialiste të Italisë fashiste dhe Benito Musolinit ndaj Shqipërisë. Sigurisht, duke mos gjetur mbështetjen e duhur ndërkombëtare dhe duke parë rëndimin e vazhdueshëm të gjendjes ekonomike të vendit në vitet që pasuan, qeveria shqiptare u detyrua të tërhiqej nga kjo politikë dhe të pranonte rikthimin e ndikimit Italian e për rrjedhojë edhe abrogimin e reformës arsimore.

[31] Bernd J. Fischer, *Diktatorët e Ballkanit,* AiiS, Tiranë, 2009, 54

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