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Submissions

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

SEEU Review seeks to publish original work that demonstrates currency and relevance to the field of study. Submitted manuscripts must not be currently under consideration for publication elsewhere, and authors must assign copyright to South East European University if the manuscript is selected for publication.

Authors should submit their articles electronically to SEEU Review in Microsoft Word format, and all manuscripts must be spell-checked and proofread prior to submission. All submissions must follow APA (American Psychological Association) style for format and references. Manuscripts should not exceed 8,000 words, including the abstract (which should be 200 to 300 words), references, and other elements. Authors are discouraged from using figures. If there is sufficient cause to include figures, authors must submit original electronic copies in EPS, TIF, or high-resolution JPG format.

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

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Hyrje • Предговор • Foreword

Universiteti i Evropës Juglindore filloi me strategjinë e re, duke bërë përpjekje të fuqishme për t'i zgjeruar aftësitë hulumtuese. Ne mendojmë se hulumtimi dhe dija janë kontribut themelor i synimeve tona të vazhdueshme për rritjen e cilësisë në mësimdhënie. Si pjesë e këtij aktiviteti, Revista e Universitetit (University Review), ka pësuar edhe disa ndryshime, me qëllim të përmirësimit të cilësisë së përmbajtjes dhe ta bëjë atë më me ndikim ndaj çështjeve strategjike të Universitetit, por edhe të avansojë kurikulat si në ciklin e parë dhe të dytë të studimeve.

Me shtimin e kërkesave për publikime, ne bëmë thirrje publike për punime edhe përtej kufijve të Universitetit, duke kërkuar kontribut në fushën e dijes, që do të ketë ndikim të drejtpërdrejt në përmirësimin e arsimit të lartë në Republikën e Maqedonisë. Ne, gjithashtu, nga mesi i vitit 2007, do të fillojmë që punimet t'i publikojmë edhe në ueb faqe, me abstrakte në gjuhën shqipe dhe maqedonase, duke mëtuar përmirësimin e qasjes ndaj dijes .

Çështja e tretë paraqet fazën tranzicionale të procesit të ndryshimeve. Shpresojmë se do të tregoni interesim për përmbatjen, andaj edhe me padurim presim komentet tuaja.

Ne shpresojmë se do t'u pëlqejë ky botim.

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Универзитетот на Југоисточна Европа започнува нова стратегија на енергично развивање на вештините за истражување. Ние веруваме дека преземањето иницијативи за истражување и стекнување нови знаења претставува неопходен придинес на нашите напори за подобрување на квалитетот во наставата. Како дел од оваа активност, научниот магизин на универзитетот претрпува промени со цел да го подобри квалитетот на содржината и истиот да го направи релевантен на стратешките цели на Универзитетот и на наставните програми од првиот и вториот циклус на студии.

Со зголемувањето на побарувачката за издавање ние покрај на универзитетот, започнавме со објавување на отворени повици за трудови барајќи придонеси за знаењето кои ќе имаат директно влијание врз подобрувањето на високото образование во Република Македонија. Ние, исто така почнувајќи од средината на 2007 година, ќе ги објавиме трудовите и на нашата веб страна заедно со апстрактите на албански и македонски јазик за да се подобри пристапот до знаењето.

Третата точка представува транзициона фаза во процесот на промени. Се надеваме дека содржината ќе ви биде интересна и со нетрпение ги очекуваме вашите придонеси и коментари.

Се надеваме дека ќе уживате во содржините на ова издание.

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South East European University is embarking on a new strategy of vigorous expansion of its research proficiency. We believe that undertaking research and scholarship is an essential contribution to our continuous effort at quality enhancement in teaching. As part of this activity, the University Review is undergoing changes to improve the quality of content and to make it directly relevant to the University's strategic objectives and advanced curricula at both first and second academic cycles.

With the increase in demand for the publication, we have begun to open calls for papers beyond the University, seeking contributions to knowledge which will have a direct impact on improving higher education in the Republic of Macedonia. We will also, starting mid-2007, make papers available on our website, along with abstracts in the Albanian and Macedonian languages so that access to knowledge is improved.

The third issue represents a transitional stage in the change process. We hope that you find the contents interesting and look forward to receiving your comments and contributions.

We hope you enjoy this edition.

Dennis Farrington

Kryeredaktor • Главен уредник • Editor in Chief

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Business Education and Entrepreneurship in Transition Countries: A Study in the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (Macedonia) is a country working through the transition to a democracy-based market economy. Typical of such societies, entrepreneurs face difficulties in many areas, prominently in restricted access to capital and rampant corruption. Additionally, current entrepreneurs in Macedonia feel hindered by governmental regulation. However, entrepreneurship and small business development are recognized as integral factors in job creation and economic growth. Given the apparently adverse conditions for entrepreneurship in Macedonia, this paper reports on the perceptions of entrepreneurship held by undergraduate students attending university in Macedonia. Prior research in this field has concentrated on demographic and environmental influences on entrepreneurial intent and activity, however the effect of university-level business education on entrepreneurship has been neglected. The primary research question asked survey participants whether they felt university education prepared them to start and operate a business. The findings show that women place a marginally lower value on business education as preparation for starting and operating a business, while the overall perceived value of business education as preparation for starting and operating a business begins at a high level early in a student's studies but decreases over the course of undergraduate study.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, business education, gender

Introduction

Entrepreneurship and SME establishment and growth are vibrant sectors of study in analyzing and understanding developing nations. New and growing businesses spur employment and economic development, important engines in reducing poverty and increasing standards of living, by increasing productivity (OECD, 2005). Many studies have been completed on the demographic and environmental factors that affect entrepreneurial activity and growth of SMEs, however the value of business education in these areas is underrepresented in the current literature. This paper seeks to address this important niche in factors affecting entrepreneurial intent and action. While the results of this study are not claimed to be scientific, they will provide a useful starting point for future research and food for thought among university leaders seeking to evaluate business programs in entrepreneurship at their institutions.

Prior research into factors affecting entrepreneurial activity has focused mainly on governmental regulation, contract enforcement, access to capital and financing, and personal characteristics with the findings providing guidance primarily for lawmakers and development agencies (Mueller & Goić, 2002; Begley, et al., 2005; Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999; Rotefoss & Kolvereid, 2005; Kristiansen, 2002; and Ačevska, 2002). However, university education in business can play an important role in encouraging young adults into attempting entrepreneurial activity, as evidenced by the tremendous growth in university-level programs in entrepreneurship. In the U.S., nearly 2,000 higher education institutions currently offer programs in entrepreneurship, compared with just 300 such programs in 1985 (Gray & Field, 2006). This paper will examine the role of university-level business education and the desire to start a business, concentrating on its effects on female students and its perceived value over the course of the program. Following a review of relevant literature and a description of the business environment in Macedonia, the research method and findings will be detailed. Discussion of possible implications of the findings and recommendations for future research complete the article.

Literature Review

Entrepreneurship, though well-studied, has proven a difficult term to define. An OECD workshop on the topic acknowledged this fact, noting that the flexible definition has complicated empirical study of the subject (OECD, 2005), but one definition voiced in the workshop, "people starting new businesses," (OECD, 2005) will be the definition applied for this paper.

Though the term may be difficult to define, the benefits of entrepreneurship are easier to enumerate. Piasecki (1995) saw entrepreneurship as a means toward encouraging social development in transition economies. Smallbone and Welter (2001, 255) considered entrepreneurship in transition countries as "one of the few fields where an educated, professional person can satisfy his/her need for creative and satisfying work, whilst obtaining sufficient income for an acceptable standard of living." Starting a business is also a means of social mobility for marginalized members of society. In his research study, Koo (1976) found that small business ownership was a means to higher income with less formal education than the average white-collar worker, enhancing upward mobility for less-educated members of society and for persons who might be discriminated against in a corporate environment. In developed countries, students of entrepreneurship earn higher incomes and establish businesses at three times the rate of other business graduates (Gray & Field, 2006).

Given the significant potential benefits of starting a business, many researchers have investigated the personal and demographic characteristics of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs to see if these benefits are available to all or only a few. Though entrepreneurship can lead to higher social status, Kristiansen (2002, 289) found that "[t]ruly innovative business development seems to be stimulated by individual profit seeking rather than searching for social status." Beyond the profit motive, Alexandrova (2004) identified five other factors crucial to entrepreneurial orientation: autonomy, innovativeness, risk tolerance, proactiveness, and competitive aggressiveness. Smallbone and Welter (2001) found three distinguishing features of entrepreneurs in transition economies: previous management and entrepreneurial experience, networks and informal connections, and family background (i.e. having family member entrepreneurs). To assess national entrepreneurial potential, Mueller and Goić (2002) examined several factors to learn their effect on entrepreneurial intent and found that being male and living in a country with high

economic growth were most strongly correlated to potential for entrepreneurial activity. They also learned that culture, religious orientation, and prior experience with free markets had no correlation to potential entrepreneurial activity. The work of Begley, et al. (2005) corroborated the findings of both Smallbone and Welter and Mueller and Goić in that being male, having previously owned a business, and having a parent or relative who owned a business all correlated to desire and perceived feasibility of starting a business.

In contrast to Smallbone and Welter, Mueller and Goić, and Begley, et al., the research of Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999) found that family background in entrepreneurship and gender had no correlation to desire to start a business, but like the others, previous entrepreneurial experience was positively correlated with intent to start a business. A separate study by Rotefoss and Kolvereid (2005) found that young men are most likely to attempt to start a business, especially if they had previous entrepreneurial experience, however, availability of financial resources did not correlate to intent or attempts to start a business. The study by Kristiansen (2002, 290) also found that lack of financial resources can be overcome because "[i]f capital is not available at an affordable rate, there is normally a good supply of cheap labour that can compensate."

In regards to the value of education in entrepreneurial intentions, little research is available, but the studies that have been done are valuable. Peterman and Kennedy (2003) surveyed the effects of a youth entrepreneurship program with participants between the ages of 15 and 18 and found that participation in the program did result in increased desirability and perceived feasibility of starting a business, though the authors admit that the program environment may have affected the results. The Rotefoss and Kolvereid study (2005) also found that education level was correlated to attempting to start a business, but not with desire or actually establishing a business.

Though an individual may have many personal characteristics that make for an ideal entrepreneur, the business environment faced can still play a significant role in encouraging or discouraging entrepreneurial activity. Smallbone and Welter (2001, 260) wrote that "…hostile and unstable macroeconomic conditions, particularly when combined with low domestic purchasing power, uncertainties over property rights and the slow pace of privatisation, provide little incentive for entrepreneurs to commit themselves to long term projects, forcing them instead to concentrate on the task of surviving."

Instability of the business environment was found to be the greatest factor in entrepreneurial orientation in Alexandrova's study (2004), discouraging risk-taking and inhibiting the growth of small businesses. Under ever-changing conditions, "…entrepreneurs prefer to gain rapid returns on their capital emphasizing liquidity, but they are unwilling to widely reinvest for business expansion (146)." In her study of 300 small business owners in Macedonia, Ačevska (2002) found that nine in 10 of them routinely faced some type of corruption, but when asked their perceptions of business impediments, three of the top five were high taxes; six of the top 10 were access to finance; and the remaining item in the top 10 was late payment of bills by customers. In their study of institutions in transition economies, Smallbone and Welter (2003) observed that "[i]n less advanced transition economies, the majority of banks still experience difficulties in mastering the task of guiding savings toward capital investment in private enterprises, especially small business." Not only is capital hard to acquire in transition economies, but it is exceptionally hard to direct toward productive business activities.

For female entrepreneurs, the factors supporting forays into entrepreneurship are just as considerable, but the impediments even more daunting. Lisowska (2002) stated that, in Eastern European countries, there is a mindset that "in a situation of job shortages men are

more entitled to employment than women." According to Erdem (2004, 185), starting a business for a woman could stem from "a need for self-fulfilment and need of power and independence" and the flexible work schedule to leave time for family duties. Further, women entrepreneurs in most transition countries face discrimination from potential customers and suppliers, increasing the difficulty of establishing a new enterprise (Erdem, 2004). Though these additional factors make starting a business even less compelling for women, this does not diminish their chances of success in establishing an enterprise. In Rotefoss and Kolvereid's (2005, 124) survey, they found that "…women are under-represented in both the aspiring and nascent entrepreneurial categories. However, the odds of [starting a business] are not affected by gender, indicating that women succeed to the same degree as men in founding a business."

In concluding their research reports, most of the authors have provided discussion topics that include recommendations for methods to encourage the development of entrepreneurship. An important distinction made by Baumol and Coyne and Leeson is the difference between productive and unproductive or destructive entrepreneurship. Coyne and Leeson (2004, 236) state that when looking at developing countries, "it is critical to understand that it is not a lack of entrepreneurship that is the problem, but rather the institutional context directing entrepreneurial activities toward perverse ends." In this view, corruption is an entrepreneurial activity that is unproductive at best and destructive at worst. Baumol (1990, 909) expressed this concept in his paper:

If entrepreneurship is the imaginative pursuit of position, with limited concern about the means used to achieve the purpose, then we can expect changes in the structure of rewards to modify the nature of the entrepreneur's activities, sometimes drastically. The rules of the game can then be a critical influence helping to determine whether entrepreneurship will be allocated predominantly to activities that are productive or unproductive and even destructive.

Virtually all the researchers concur that governmental policy is the most important factor in encouraging entrepreneurship, but there is no broad consensus on what appropriate policy should be. Smallbone and Welter (2001, 259) write that "the most important role for the state … is through its influence on the value placed on enterprise and entrepreneurship within society" and also state (2003) that improving the regulatory framework and creating centres to encourage development of new technologies from which new businesses can emerge will strengthen the environment for business start-ups. Coyne and Leeson (2004) assert that governmental resources need not be directed toward the encouragement of entrepreneurship, simply preparing the necessary institutions and stepping back are sufficient for entrepreneurship to thrive. Begley, et al. (2005, 51) agree with this strategy, suggesting that "the most effective activities for governments are to facilitate dynamic markets, develop workforce skills, and stand back." Rotefoss and Kolvereid (2005) recommend pairing young entrepreneurs with older, experienced individuals as a means of encouraging establishment of new businesses, combining the energy of youth with the wisdom of age. Krueger Jr. and Brazeal (1994) stress the importance of community leaders in building a positive image of entrepreneurship and of training people in essential skills for entrepreneurial activity to encourage new business development.

From this broad examination of the reasons for, and impediments to, starting a business in developing countries, this paper will now focus on the environment facing new businesses in Macedonia.

The Business Environment in Macedonia

Emerging from the break-up of the constituent states of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1991, Macedonia faced not only the uncertainty and upheaval of transition to a market-based economy, but the small country was already in the midst of a recession (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). Despite these hardships, the least-developed state within Yugoslavia has made great strides, earning candidate status to the European Union in 2005. However, the country still faces a number of problems as it progresses toward greater development and EU membership.

In 2004, Macedonia had a GDP of €4.2 billion, about €2,100 per capita or 25% of the EU25 countries (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). Unemployment to the first half of 2005 was 38% (Commission of the European Communities, 2005), following a steady decline from 34.5% in 1998 to 30.5% in 2001 (Commission of the European Communities, 2004) and then an increase every year thereafter (Rep. of Macedonia State Statistical Office, 2005a and 2006a).

Inflows of foreign direct investment (FDI) varied greatly from 1998 to 2002, from a low of $33 million in 1999 to a high of $442 million in 2001 (Commission of the European Communities, 2004). The surge in FDI correlated with the internal conflict between ethnic Albanians and ethnic Macedonians which led to the Ohrid Framework Agreement, however, in 2002, there was a decline in FDI of $365 million. The relative absence of FDI requires economic growth to come from domestic sources, but in Macedonia, many vital structures are not sufficiently able to stimulate business growth.

The Freedom House "Nations in Transit 2006 Ratings and Democracy Score Summary" shows Macedonia with a 3.82 on a scale of 1 (best) to 7 (worst). The score is derived from individual scores for a country's electoral process, civil society, independent media, national and local government, judiciary, and corruption (Freedom House, 2006a). Macedonia also ranks as "mostly free" with a score of 2.80 on a scale of 1 (best) to 5 (worst), according to the Heritage Foundation Index of Economic Freedom (2006). Though Macedonia showed improvement in the Index of Economic Freedom, it still rated poorly (scores of "4") in property rights, regulation, and the informal market, and the foundation concludes that corruption and political instability discourage FDI (Heritage Foundation, 2006).

Transparency International (2005) placed Macedonia 103rd out of 159 countries surveyed for its Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI), indicating that corruption is a seen as a significant problem in the country. Transparency International's CPI score is one factor in the Informal Market Index (IMI) compiled by the Project on Human Development. The IMI also considers labour, services, and manufacturing supplied on the informal market, smuggling, and piracy to estimate the extent of gray market activities in the countries surveyed. Macedonia ranked in a tie for 123rd out of 154 countries rated, indicating an extensive informal economy within the country (Project on Human Development, 2006).

The Freedom House (2006b) report on Macedonia stated that corruption is so deeply rooted that Macedonian citizens simply regard it as normal and that, if a business owner is compelled to seek justice in court, the case will take about 10 months to resolve (15). Köse and Karadeniz (2004, 29) found that this time frame was twice the average in OECD

countries and that the cost of enforcing contracts more than triple. In the summary of its report, Freedom House wrote "Macedonia's market economy is further impeded by such institutional weaknesses as slow and cumbersome administrative procedures, shortcomings in the judiciary, and limited progress in land and property registration (18)."

The World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) for 2005 lists Macedonia as 85th out of 117 countries compared (World Economic Forum, 2006). The GCI is a measure of a country's potential for sustainable economic growth, signifying that Macedonia has some hurdles to overcome. Small businesses are typically viewed as vital components in job creation and economic development (OECD, EBRD, & Rep. of Macedonia Ministry of Economy, 2001), but their impact on the economy in Macedonia is limited. Recent statistics show significant activity in the area of new business registration, but little effect on reducing unemployment.

From 1998 to 2005, the number of registered businesses increased 52% from approximately 115,000 to more than 175,000 (Rep. of Macedonia State Statistical Office, 2004a, 2005b, 2006b; OECD, EBRD, & Rep. of Macedonia Ministry of Economy, 2001). During the same time period, GDP increased an average 2.4% per year (Rep. of Macedonia State Statistical Office, 2004a, 2005c; OECD, EBRD, & Rep. of Macedonia Ministry of Economy, 2001; Central Intelligence Agency, 2006). However, unemployment has also shown a growth trend over this time period, increasing from 34.5% in 1998 (OECD, EBRD, & Rep. of Macedonia Ministry of Economy, 2001) to 37.3% in 2005 (Rep. of Macedonia State Statistical Office, 2006a). It is apparent from these figures that the rapid proliferation of new businesses in Macedonia has not been able to produce jobs at a faster rate than new workers are entering the market.

For females in the Macedonian workforce, entrepreneurship and "own-account" employment appear to be important sources of work. From 2000 to 2001 (the latest statistics available), Macedonia saw an increase of 15.1% in total female employment and an increase of 22.2% in women describing their employment status as "employers" or "own-account workers," while employment for males increased at just 5.2% and 12% for self-described "employers" and "own-account workers" (UN Economic Commission for Europe, 2006).

The business and employment context in Macedonia for establishing a new business appears to consist of two opposing forces: poor employment prospects that encourage starting a new business and structural impediments that discourage starting one. This, then, forms the basis of the research conducted on business students at South East European University (SEEU) in Macedonia. Are students interested in starting their own businesses despite the adverse conditions in Macedonia, and do they see university business education as valuable to that process? The next section outlines the method used for the survey.

Method

From the background on the current political and economic situation in Macedonia leads to an interesting question in regards to entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduate business students in the country: what is the value they place on their university education in terms of starting an operating a business? To explore this question, two hypotheses were drafted and tested on business students at SEEU.

Hypothesis 1 was that females would place a higher value on business education as preparation for starting and operating their own business than males, due to the historical and cultural impediments faced specifically by women in business.

Hypothesis 2 was that the value business students place on business education as preparation for starting and operating their own business would decrease as they advanced through the program. This hypothesis was prompted by the findings of Van Auken, et al (2005) that MBA graduates place the highest value on new knowledge derived from their programs, as opposed to development of new skills. The greatest amount of new knowledge for undergraduate business management students should come early in the program, when students have had little formal exposure to the concepts of business management, and decrease as concepts become more familiar.

To test these two hypotheses, a 16-question survey was created and distributed to undergraduate business students at SEEU. The business program at SEEU has required courses for each year of study, and courses in which to distribute the survey were selected to produce results from each of the four student classes. This method of distribution also resulted in a simple random sample of students within the business faculty.

The survey consisted of nine questions on the student's perceptions of the current environment for entrepreneurship and used a five-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree; 5=Strongly Agree). The additional seven questions asked for basic demographic information (gender, year of study, etc.) and students' familiarity with (do they know someone who has started their own business, have they started their own business) and interest in starting their own business. Space was provided for students to write additional comments. The survey was written in English and translated into Albanian and Macedonian, the native languages of virtually all SEEU students.

The survey was distributed in 21 classes, resulting in 333 completed surveys, with 87 responses from first-year students, 136 from second-year, 35 from third-year, and 75 from fourth-year. Female students accounted for 172 responses (about 52%), and male students accounted for 161 (about 48%).

Primary Findings

The preliminary analysis of the data provided no evidence for Hypothesis 1. On average, female students returned 3.98 on the pertinent question, while male students returned 4.13. However, a regression analysis on these results revealed that the variation was not statistically significant (p-value of 0.137). An interesting note is that first-year female students (4.27) had the third-highest value, trailing only first-year (4.30) and third-year (4.375) male students.

Strong evidence in favor of Hypothesis 2 was returned. The average value from first-year students was 4.29, from second-year students was 4.06, from third-year students was 4.20, and from fourth-year students was 3.69. Regression analysis on these results produced a p-value of 0.0005, indicating a high level of statistical significance. However, this result is shaded by the low number of responses (35) from third-year students, but the substantially lower value from fourth-year students suggests that this result would hold with a larger sample of third-year students.

Additional Findings

This survey provided an excellent opportunity to test the results of other researchers in the field of entrepreneurship and developing countries. From the survey, SEEU students slightly agreed (3.61) that there is too much governmental regulation that discourages entrepreneurship in Macedonia, and they slightly disagreed (2.71) that they can find funds to start a new business. These findings concur with those of Smallbone and Welter (2001 and 2003), Ačevska (2002), and Alexandrova (2004).

SEEU students virtually agreed (3.93) that having the right connections is the most important element of starting a new business (concurring with Smallbone and Welter [2001]), but they also firmly disagreed (1.90) that writing a business plan is not important in starting a new business.

SEEU students also felt that starting their own business would increase their stature in the community (4.03). This finding concurred with Koo (1976) but may be in contrast to Kristiansen (2002). Further study would need to be done to learn whether social status, income, or employment is more important in starting one's own business in Macedonia.

In contrast to many other studies involving gender and desire to start a business (Begley, et al., 2005; Smallbone and Welter, 2001; Mueller and Goić, 2002; Rotefoss and Kolvereid, 2005), female SEEU students expressed greater interest (97% to 94%) in starting their own businesses. This may concur with the study performed by Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999) that found no correlation between gender and desire to start a business.

Discussion

At this time, it is important to recognize the limitations of this study. First, the sample used for this study, though random, does not reflect the student makeup of the Business Administration faculty at SEEU. Females are overrepresented in the sample, but this is a benefit in that the gender-based results have a larger sample upon which to base conclusions. Second, the unexpectedly small sample of third-year students may have adversely affected the results. The trends in the data appear to indicate this is not significant, but the disproportionately small number of responses must be noted. Third, the demographic factor "year of study" has been used as a proxy for a proper longitudinal study to determine the value students place on business education over time. Because of these limitations, the findings of this study should not be taken as conclusive, only as a guide to further research.

It is intriguing that female students do not value business education more highly than their male colleagues. In Macedonia and other Balkan countries, women are typically discouraged from entrepreneurial activity in a variety of ways and could use the knowledge gained from university study in business to help them overcome the obstacles they face in starting a new business. A possible explanation of this may lie in the fact that, in this study, more females acknowledged having a family member, relative, or friend who owns a business than males did. Other studies have noted the correlation between having such a relationship and desire to start a business, but this correlation may also extend to learning how to start and operate a business from these informal education sources. Even if females are not encouraged to participate in a relative's or friend's business venture, they may still gain valuable knowledge from observation of the business activities.

The finding that students place less value on business education in regards to starting and operating their own business over the course of their program has important implications for university leaders with programs in entrepreneurship or considering programs in entrepreneurship. Given that nearly all new business ventures fail, the challenge to university leaders becomes one of keeping the curriculum relevant to students' interests, and thus to give the students a better opportunity to succeed with their ventures.

Universities and other organizations vested with interest in encouraging entrepreneurial activity can find in the results of this survey two important points: that entrepreneurial desire persists in spite of adverse conditions for business creation and that females are as attracted to starting their own businesses as males. It can be said, then, that efforts to encourage entrepreneurship may be better directed toward providing potential entrepreneurs with the knowledge and skill to increase the possibility of success for new businesses.

Recommendations for Further Research

Despite the limitations of the research method, interesting results were obtained that merit additional study. More research into why females are more interested in starting their own business in Macedonia should provide intriguing answers in relation to prior research that has shown males to be more interested in starting their own businesses. Additional research should also examine the subjective reasoning students have for the values they assign to their business education in terms of starting and operating a business. This type of survey could also inquire as to the motivations students have for desiring to start their own businesses. Finally, additional research could poll students at other universities in Macedonia and the broader region to see if the results of this study hold true on a wider scale, and a proper longitudinal study at SEEU and/or other universities in Macedonia and the broader region will provide better results for the value of business education to entrepreneurship over time.

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The Density of Vowel and Consonant Usage in Published Albanian Texts in Macedonia

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Abstract

Language is the basic and most consummate way of communication between people. It can be materialized in two ways: spoken and written. Every society has a spoken language, even the primitive ones. Although only civilized societies have a written language with a defined alphabet. The Albanian language is one of these languages, which contains 36 letters of individual importance. Their presence in the context of words determines the meaning, while the determined order of these in words presents a work of art!

It is, thus, understandable to raise the question: Which letter is used the most and least in the written Albanian language? The answer to this question is the focus of this paper. Based on statistical methods and computerized language programs, several published Albanian texts in Macedonia have been analyzed, through which the density of vowel and consonant usage has been generated, together with their accompanying characteristics.

Statistical analyses of the Albanian language, as with many other languages, are quite novel. However, with the development of computer programming, this has reached new dimensions.

To study the density of phoneme usage in a specific language, in addition to its practical usage, which among others allows the finding of optimal solutions within telecommunication, holds also a theoretical value, since this allows us to also determine the characteristics of the fundamental articulation of specific languages and the specific nature of their sound system.

Introduction

Linguistic computer products and internet usage have become essentials of communication and other contemporary concepts in the "scientific environment". Linguists have come to acknowledge the provocations of the computer era, even within linguistics, since computer linguistics is the only way to protect, enrich and advance all world languages. The most developed nations in the world consider computer linguistics also as a possible way of enriching tradition and other global values.

On the other hand, language is an important feature that brings people within a nation together. It transmits, from one generation to another, the knowledge of national and global culture. It has prompted and continues to prompt the continuous development of societies. The more advanced a language is, the easier is communication between people within a society achieved and the easier is the functioning of the society achieved. The task of the linguist, to respond the problems brought up by the immensity of language, is very complex. Thus, the survival and integration of small languages and cultures in the global environment depends to some extent on the timely application of Information Technology in language practice and theory.

This research paper aims to present the processing and the permanent advancement of language by adding statistical research components to it. With the help of a program developed using C++, a series of Albanian texts published in Macedonia, of various subject matters, have been analyzed. The achieved results may be found useful by linguists for further linguistic analyses and research.

A large corpus of vowel and consonant phonology was incorporated into the program, where clear linguistic and technical outlines and criteria have been established that relate to the numeration of the letters which appear frequently in each text. The computerized treatments have been based on many linguistic sources in order to make the derived results more clear and convincing.

The achievements of our research will present different perspectives on the digitalized Albanian language from an outward albanological perspective.

The first review on the density of phonemes in the Albanian language is published by V. F. Perishkov. A vigilant view on this review, according to F. Besho, brings three of its fundamental flaws to our attention. Firstly, in it lacks the letter *l*, and secondly, the *e* egresses as the sixteenth. Thirdly, the sum of the relative density of all graphemes reaches 0.9241 (or 92.41%) when it is supposed to reach 1 or 100 %. These flaws make the review take on a limited value.

To determine the usage density of the phonemes in the contemporary literal Albanian language, we have analyzed several textbooks published in Macedonia, which are written by: Abdylmenaf Bexheti, Asllan Bilalli, Hajredin Kuçi, Etem Aziri, Nexhbi Vejseli, Blerim Reka, Arta Ibrahimi, Seadin Xhaferi, Baki Ymeri, Mustafa Ibrahimi, Hamit Xhaferi, Hasan Jashari, Mustafa Spahiu, Riza Lahi and Shazie Hoxha-Hyseini.

The Albanian Alphabet

The Albanian language, as with the languages of many other European and world nations, has developed its alphabet based on the Latin language. The Latin alphabet, as known, is composed of the following 26 letters:

Table 1: The Latin Alphabet

A a	B b	C c	D d	E e	F f	G g	H h	I i	J j	K k	L l	M m
N n	O o	P p	Q q	R r	S s	T t	U u	V v	W w	X x	Y y	Z z

These letters are, all in all, applied by the written English and Italian language and adapted in various ways in languages such as French, German, etc. However, the combinations of graphemes to create specific phonemes are not considered as letters. Thus, for example, the English language, as a rather developed language, uses more than 200 letter combinations to interpret 40 of its fundamental sounds.

Despite these complicated ways of writing, the Albanian language uses the Latin alphabet, though adapted to its phonematic inventory. To interpret all the existing phonemes in the spoken Albanian language, 36 in total, the same amount of letters are used, respectively, graphemes.

Although the Latin alphabet has 26 letters, they were not enough to denote the 36 phonemes of the Albanian language. Thus, the 25 Latin letters (except the *w*) have been supplemented with additional letters. This issue was resolved at a congress in Manastir in November 1908, where the alphabet of the Albanian language was defined as follows:

Table 2: The Albanian Alphabet

A a	B b	C c	Ç ç	D d	Dh dh	E e	Ë ë	F f
G g	Gj gj	H h	I i	J j	K k	L l	Ll ll	M m
N n	Nj nj	O o	P p	Q q	R r	Rr rr	S s	Sh sh
T t	Th th	U u	V v	X x	Xh xh	Y y	Z z	Zh zh

Thus, if we were to evaluate the graphic system of the Albanian language in a general context, we would be able to say that it is one of the simplest (compared with the alphabet of other languages) and it has easily resolved the issue of writing. The 36 phonemes of the Albanian language are interpreted using 36 individual letters, which consist of 25 simple letters, 9 digraphs, and two letters with diacritic signs (ë and ç). In this context, we can say that the fundamental principle of the grapheme is more or less respected entirely: that the same phoneme is present in every possible scenario with one specific letter (single or digraph).

It is worth while emphasizing, that solving the grapheme in this way, finds also support in the practice of Albanian text typing. The simple Latin alphabet is homogeneous when it comes to the characteristics of the letters. It is easy to write and very convenient for typing. However, Albanian requires typewriters with more signs (Hamiti 2005, p. 32).

The Classification of Letters and Characteristics of Computer Processing

The 36 letters of the Albanian alphabet can be categorized as: simple letters and complex letters.

The total amount of simple letters is 27 and they are denoted using only one sign:

Table 3: The Simple Letters

A a	B b	C c	Ç ç	D d	E e	Ë ë	F f	G g
H h	I i	J j	K k	L l	M m	N n	O o	P p
Q q	R r	S s	T t	U u	V v	X x	Y y	Z z

As can be seen in table 3, twenty-five of these are letters from the Latin alphabet, while the two letters, "Ç ç" and "Ë ë", do not come from the Latin alphabet and are considered as letters with diacritic signs. These two specific letters induce additional difficulty in using computers to write and to analyze texts written in the Albanian language. Hence, since standard keyboards only posses the 26 Latin letters, the compromise is found in the use of one of the following solutions: keyboard configuration, the implementation of different fonts for specific word processors or the use of codes to generate these two letters.

The complex letters are also called digraphs. These are formed by the adhesion of two Latin letters, forming a single phoneme in the Albanian language. The nine digraphs in the Albanian alphabet are presented in the following table:

Table 4: The Complex Letters

Dh dh	Gj gj	Ll ll	Nj nj	Rr rr	Sh sh	Th th	Xh xh	Zh zh

These letters induce also additional burden on the computer analysis of the Albanian texts, since the combination of two letters has to be treated as a single letter. Thus, a so-called sting, a communion of symbols, must be treated as one grapheme or a single letter. Usually, this problem is solved with the implementation of different algorithms during the programming.

Based on the two characteristics mentioned above, we can ascertain that the existing text analysis software of other languages such as English can not be used to fully analyze the written Albanian language, since the Albanian language in this context is much more complex. Thus, we are obligated to apply programming language and develop specific programmes to analyze texts written in the Albanian language.

For this reason, the software package "*Microsoft Visual Studio 2005*" has been used and in the programming language C++ has a specific program been designed, which meets the demand for a program that can process texts written in the Albanian language. The source code of this program, which is used to generate concrete results, is presented in detail in the remaining of this paper.

We have titled the program "Albanian Text Analyzer" (*fig. 1*). It fully meets the need for analysis of texts written in the Albanian language. It enables the reading of text files; it determines the total number of characters in the text file (files with the extension *.txt*); it counts the representation of letters, in particular punctuation and special characters such as spaces, the use of *Tab*, shifts to new lines, and so on. Furthermore, it also enables the direct estimation of the frequency of letters used in the specific text file read.
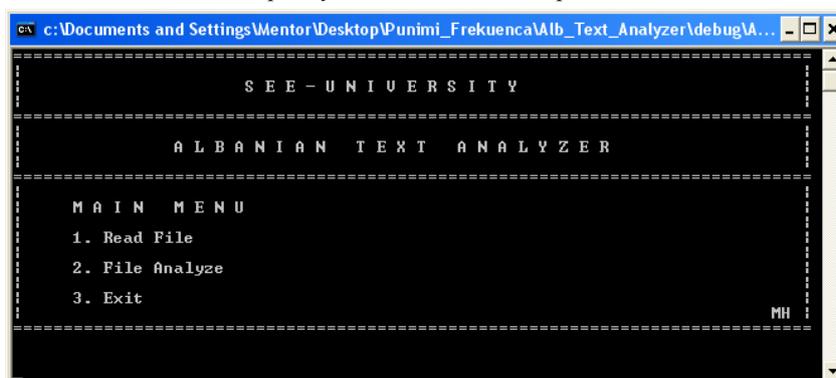

Figure 1: Albanian Text Analyzer.

With the aim of generating reliable and valid results, altogether 18 texts published in the Albanian language have been analysed. Most of these texts are university textbooks of

various subjects, published in Macedonia by Albanian authors that live and work in Mace-donia. This sample is undertaken intentionally with the purpose of generating practical conclusions relating to characteristics of the written Albanian language in Macedonia, which as it happens is also the purpose of this paper.

Figure 2, presented below, presents the total amount of characters in the analysed texts, altogether 6,456,132. The figure has been developed based on the following catego-risation:

- Letters
- Punctuation signs
- Spaces
- Other symbols

The category "punctuation signs" cover the symbols presented in the following table:

Table 5: Punctuation Signs

,	.	:	;	!	?	'	"	-	(	)

While, the category "other symbols" covers numbers, the use of *Tab* or the passing to a new line, and other special symbols that do not fit into the punctuation signs category.
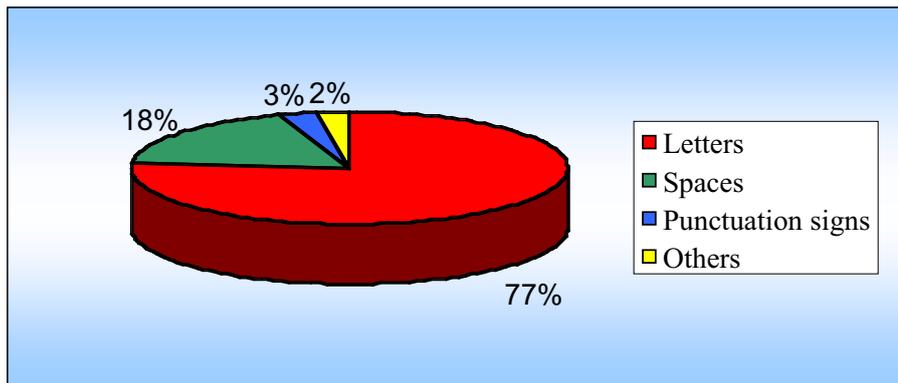
Figure 2: The overall categorization of symbols.

Based on the specific treatment features of the symbols during the usage of computer programming for textual analysis and, at the same time, on the development aspect of the Albanian language, letters can be categorised as follows:

- Latin letters
- Letters with diacritic signs (Ç, ç, Ë, ë)
- Digraphs
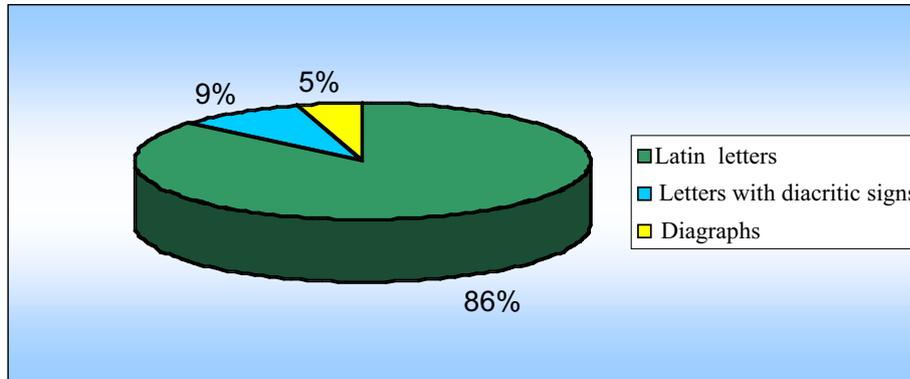
Figure 3: Computer and constructive categorization of letters.

Thus, out of altogether 4 765 071 applied letters, 4 100 999 are Latin letters, 433 262 are letters with diacritic signs such as "Ç, ç" or "Ë, ë", while the rest, 230 810, are digraphs.

As for the punctuation signs, the distribution of these within the text is also important for the syntax of the Albanian language. The presence of these and their respective numerical values is presented in figure 4.

The figure shows that periods and commas are most frequently used. In relative terms, periods and commas are used 71% of the time, while the other punctuation signs mentioned previously are used rarely, altogether 29% of the time.
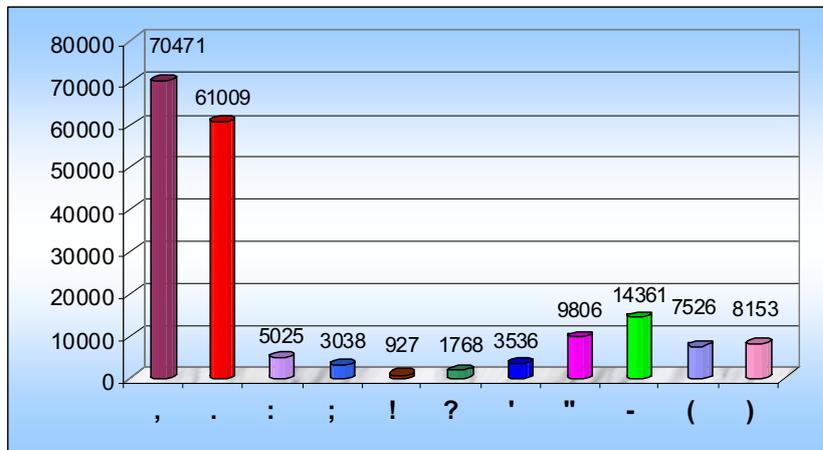
Figure 4: The usage of punctuation signs.

The Phonetic Classification of Letters

In a phonetic context, just as with other languages, the sounds of the spoken Albanian language can be classified into two major groups:

- Vowels
- Consonants

Vowels and consonants differ from each other based on several features such as articulation, acoustics and function. However, since the aim of this paper is more statistical, we will not go into detail with these features, but rather analyse the presence of these within the analysed texts (*fig. 5*).
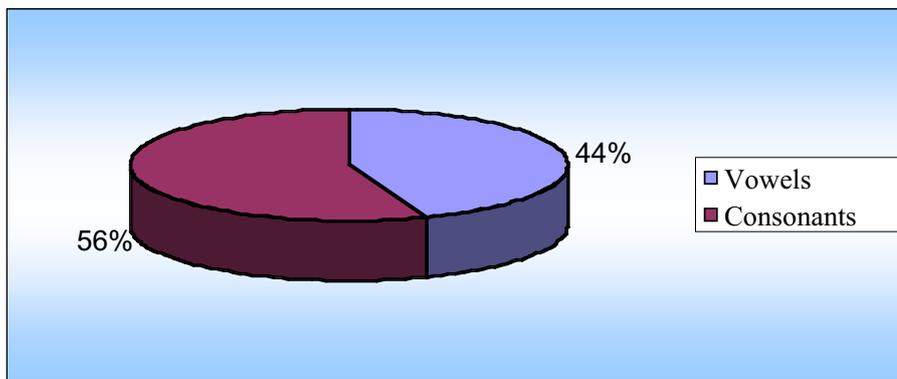
Figure 5: Phonetic classification of letters.

Despite the size of the Albanian alphabet, the vowels make up only a small part. There are altogether seven vowels in the Albanian alphabet: a, e, ë, i, o, u and y. However, as can be seen in figure 5, the representation of vowels in the analysed texts come, despite the fact that only a few letters are considered vowels, very close to the representation of consonants, which there are 29 of in the Albanian alphabet. As can be seen in figure 4, the difference is only 12% points.

Classification of Vowels

Vowels are voiced sounds. They are unavoidable features of any sentence and the presence of these in the analysed is equal to 2 103 073.
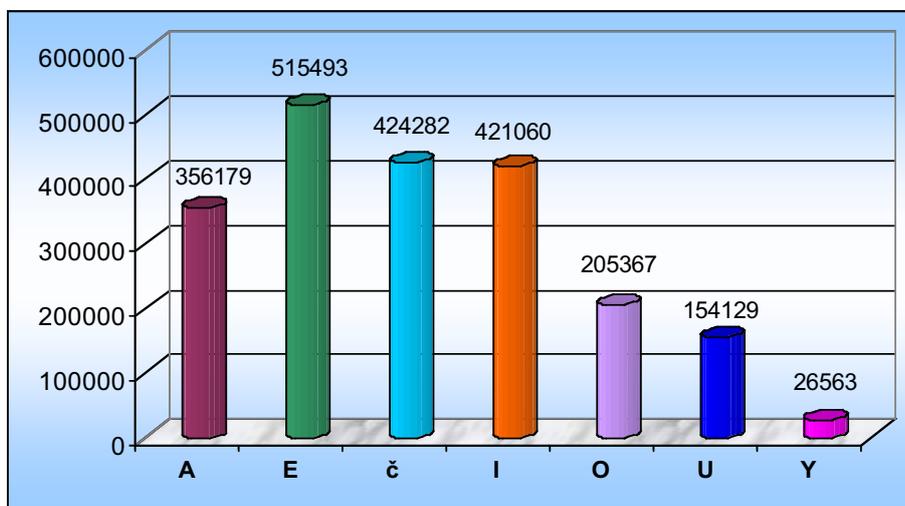
Figure 6: Occurrence of vowels.

In figure 7 the relative occurrence of vowels is presented based on the total number of letters represented in the analysed texts, which is 4 765 071 letters altogether.
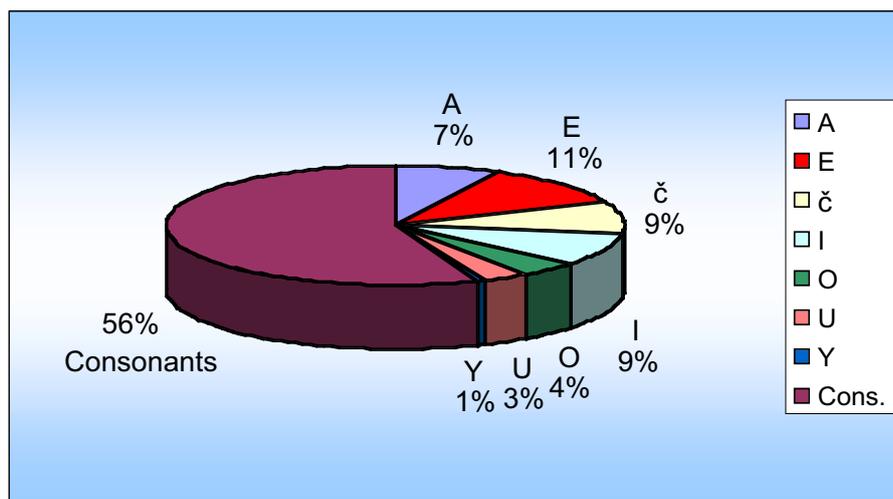
Figure 7: Relative vowel usage.

Classification of Vowels

In a lingual aspect, vowels are considered as voiced sounds and they are articulated as such; the air runs through without interruption during pronouncement. Vowels are, therefore, classified into two groups:

1. According to the position of the tongue (horizontal movement and perpendicular)
2. According to the position of the lips (labial).

Classification of Vowels According to the Horizontal Movement of the Tongue

When the tongue moves horizontally, the levels of vowel differ:

- Front vowels (i, y, e)
- Back vowels (u, o)
- Central vowels (ë, a)

In figure 8, it can be seen that the occurrence of *front vowels* is 46%, while the second most frequent occurrence of vowels is *central vowels* with 27% and lastly *back vowels* with 17%.
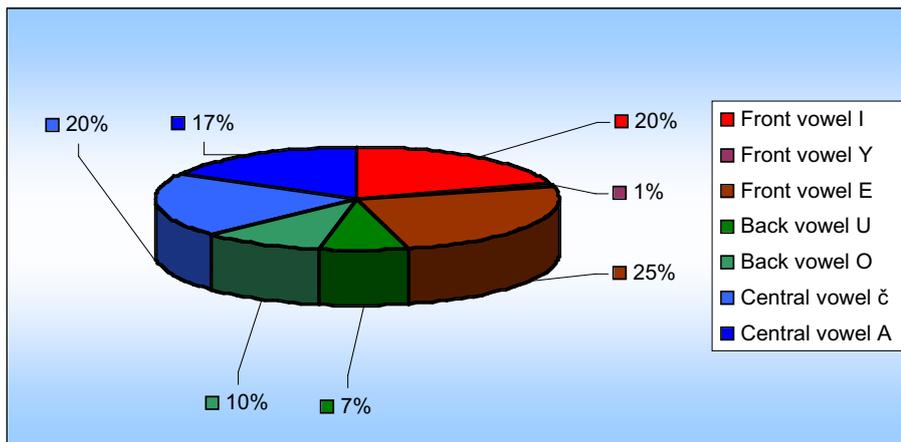
Figure 8: Classification of vowels according to the position of the tongue.

Classification of Vowels According to the Perpendicular Movement of the Tongue

When the tongue moves perpendicular, the vowels are classified as:

- High vowels or closed (i, y, u)
- Low vowels (a)
- Mid vowels (e, ë, o)

As can be seen in figure 9, mid vowels are mostly represented with 55%, while high vowels and low vowels are represented, respectively, with 28 % and 17%.
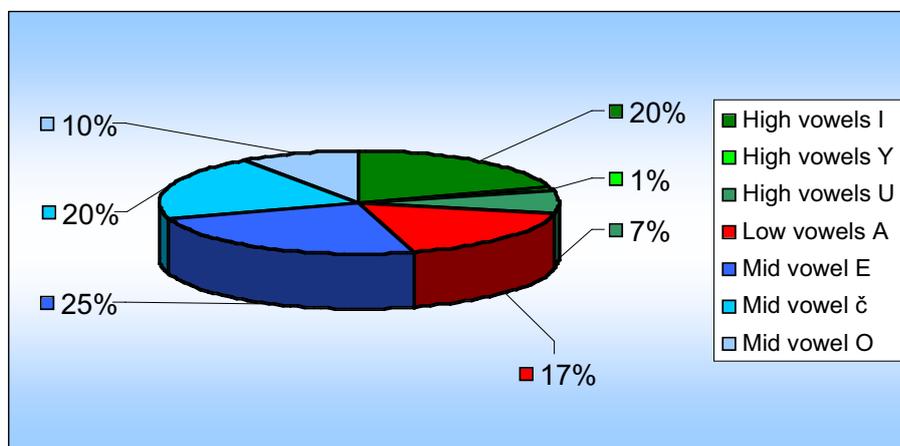
Figure 9: The classification of vowels according to the position of the lips.

Classification of consonants

There are altogether 29 consonants in the Albanian language. Each of these, in the context of words, plays an important and specific role. How often these occur in written texts is illustrated in figure 10. The analysed texts include 2 661 998 consonants altogether.
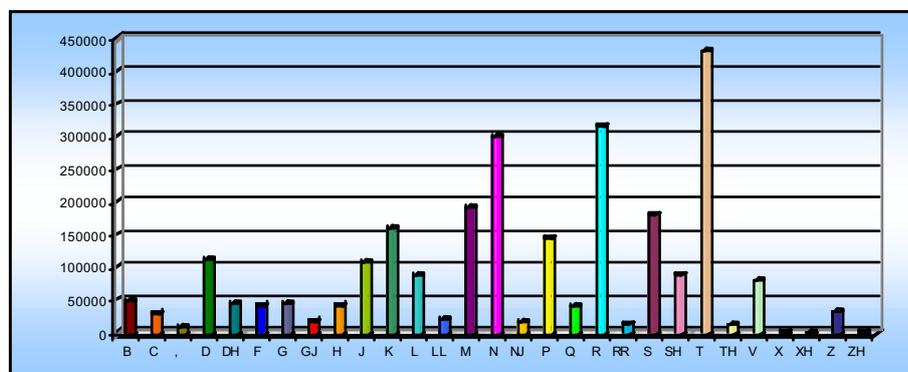
Figure 10: Occurrence of consonants.

The main feature of consonants is that they are pronounced differently from vowels, by creating disruption in the mouth cavity.

The classification of consonants is based on the following criteria:
1. According to the place of formation
2. According to the manner in which the disruption is formed
3. According to the involvement of the voice or noise

4. According to the nasal resonance

1. The Classification of Consonants According to the Place of Formation

When speaking of consonants classified by the place of formation, these can be divided additionally into the following classifications:

1. Classification of consonants according to the passive organ and

2. Classification of consonants according to the active organ.

Let us examine these two specific cases.

Table 6: Classification of Consonants According to the Passive Organ

I. Alveodental:	[t, d, ll]
II. Alveolar:	[c, x, s, z, n, l, r, rr]
III. Interdental:	[th, dh]
IV. Alveopalatal:	[ç, xh, sh, zh]
V. Palatal:	[q, gj, j, nj]
VI. Post palatal:	[k, g, h]
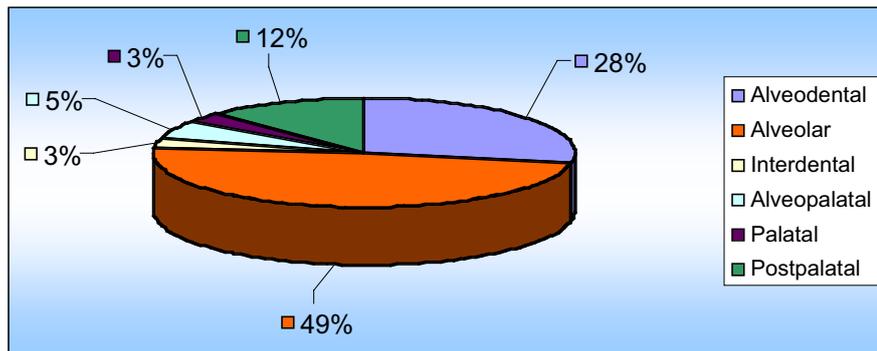
According to this classification, the consonants are distributed as shown in figure 11.

Figure 11: The usage of consonants according to the passive classification.

Table 7: Classification of Consonants According to the Active Organ

Labial	
Bilabial	[p, b, m]
Labiodental	[f, v]
Lingual	
Prelingual	
Apical	[t, d, n, s, z, sh, zh, th, dh, c, x, ç, xh]
Cacuminal	[l, ll, r, rr]
Mediolingual	[q, gj, j, nj]
Post lingual	[k, g]
Pharyngeal	[h]

From the diagram, we can ascertain that approximately 50% of time alveolar consonants are used, more precisely the consonants: [c, x, s, z, n, l, r, rr]. Thus, despite the fact that they only amount to eight letters, these are most frequently used. The group of consonants with the lowest frequency of usage are the interdental consonants (th and dh) with 3%.

If we classify the consonants according to the passive organ, the classification of these will be as presented in table 7.
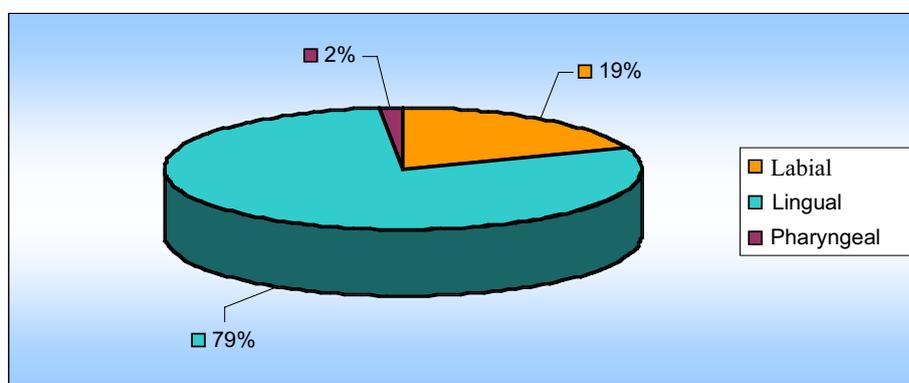
From figure 12, we notice that there are no surprises in the usage of these. The distribution is almost proportional to the number of consonants within each group. Thus, the groups which contain more consonants are also the groups which have attained a higher percentage.

Figure 12: The use of consonants according to the active organ.

2. Classification of Consonants According to the Manner of Formation

According to the manner of formation of consonants, these can be classified as presented in table 8.

Table 8: Classification of Vowels According to the Manner it is Formed

Occlusive

Articulated with great difficulty and a burst of air occurs during their pronunciation	[p, b, m, t, d, n, q, gj, nj, k, g]

Fricative

The formed disruption is not completely closed, but remains a gap through which the air passes with friction	[f, v, s, z, sh, zh, th, dh, l, ll, j, h]

Vibrant

Articulated using one or a few light vibrations of tongue under pressure coming from the flow of air	[r, rr]

Affricate   [c, x, ç, xh]
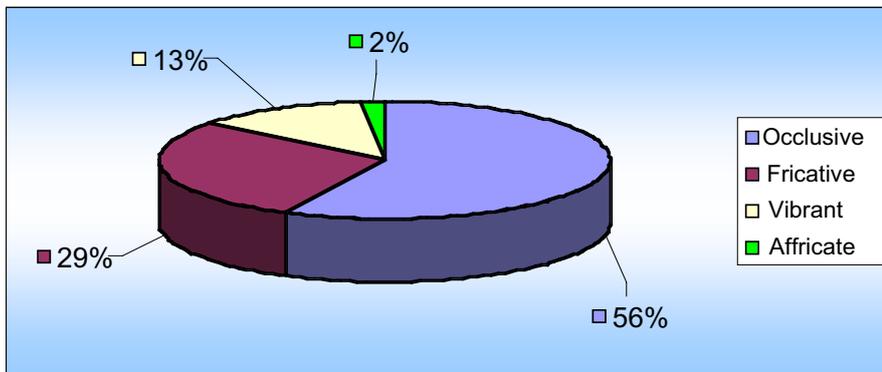
In this context, from figure 13, we can see that two consonants, r and rr, are the most frequently used and amount to 13 % of the incidents relating the respective categorization.

Figure 13: The use of consonants according to the manner they are formed.

3. Classification of Consonants Based on the Involvement of the Voice or Noise

Consonants can also be classified using the acoustic effect as a fundamental criterion, in stead of the disruption, and tendons as a second criterion. Classification based on the acoustic effect includes: sound consonants, of which there are eight altogether, and noise consonants, which account for the remaining 21 consonants. The latter is further sub-

grouped into *voiced* and *unvoiced* consonants. The classification is best described in the following table 9.

Table 9: Classification of Consonants Based on the Involvement of the Voice and Noise

Sound consonants – formed with the help of the voice and have the value of a vowel:

Nasal   [m, n, nj]

Vibrant   [r, rr]

Liquid   [l, ll]

Voiced consonants – besides the noise, these are also accompanied by a sound created by the tendons of the voice; these stretch and vibrate during articulation:

[b, d, dh, g, gj, v, x, xh, z, zh]

Unvoiced consonants – accompanied only by characteristic noise. They are unvoiced because the tendons are not stretched and do not make sound:

[p, t, th, k, q, f, c, ç, s, sh, h]
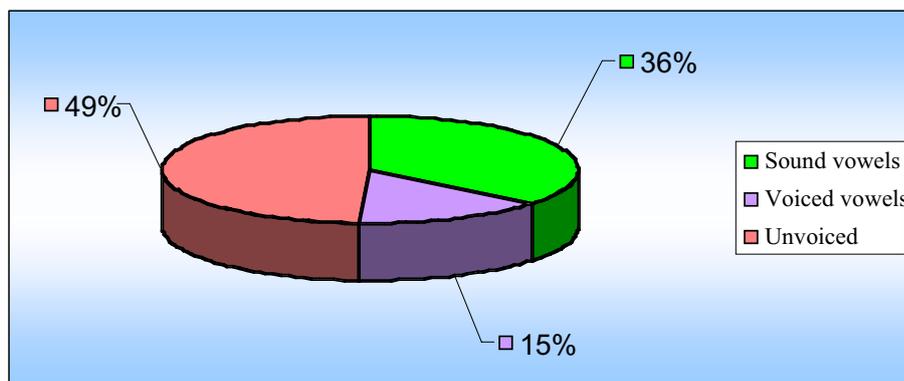
The presence of consonants in the analysed texts based on the above mentioned classification is presented in figure 14.

Figure 14: The presence of consonants based on the involvement of voice and noise.

4. Classification of Consonants Based on Nasal Resonance

During the articulation of most consonants, the air streams out only through the mouth, while for some consonants, only a small portion of the air streams out through the mouth while the rest flows out through the nose. Thus, consonants can also be classified based on nasal resonance:

1. Non-nasal: 26 consonants
2. Nasal consonants: *m, n, nj*
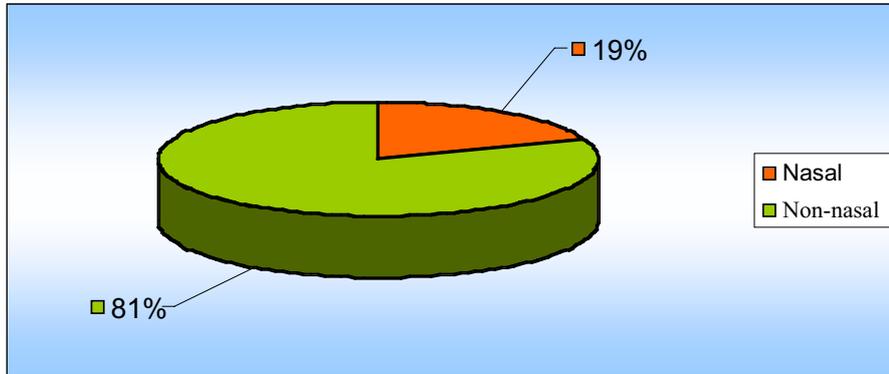
The presence of nasal and non-nasal consonants in the analysed texts is presented in figure 15.

Figure 15: The presence of consonants based on nasal resonance.

Judging from the figure, we can ascertain that nasal consonants, although three in total, are quite often used and account for 19% of consonant usage.

Conclusion

In the framework of this article for the analysis of text, an original application was designed using the C++ program language titled "Albanian Text Analyzer", where the author offers codes for all interested parties that want to use it. With the aim to have more efficent results, 18 books from different authors were used. The books were from different fields edited in Albanian and Macedonian language possessing 6.5 million characters.
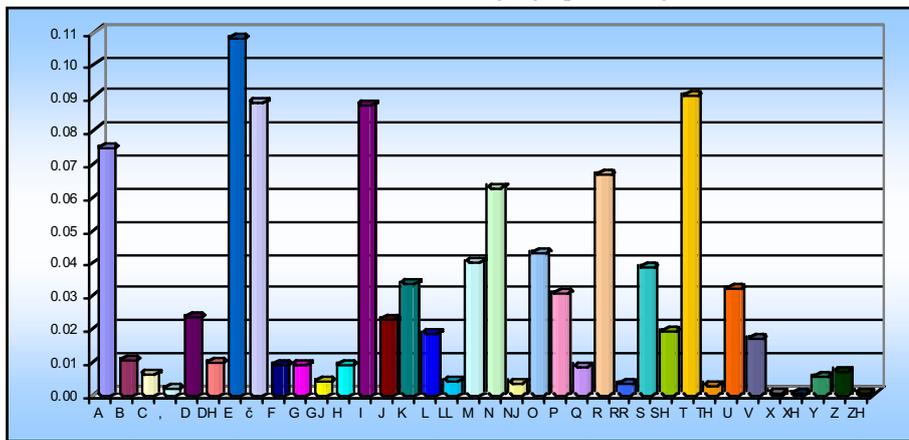
From these books, the study of characters, a diagram of the Albanian letters can be generated (fig.16), also as the range list of their use (table 10).

Figure 16: Frequency of letters.

Table 10: Ranking of Letters Based on theirUsage

	Letter	Frequency	Percentage
1	E	0.10818	10.82
2	T	0.09065	9.06
3	Ë	0.08904	8.90
4	I	0.08836	8.84
5	A	0.07475	7.47
6	R	0.06687	6.69
7	N	0.06295	6.29
8	O	0.04310	4.31
9	M	0.04042	4.04
10	S	0.03858	3.86
11	K	0.03393	3.39
12	U	0.03235	3.23
13	P	0.03091	3.09
14	D	0.02365	2.37
15	J	0.02300	2.30
16	SH	0.01928	1.93
17	L	0.01870	1.87
18	V	0.01719	1.72
19	B	0.01052	1.05
20	DH	0.00974	0.97
21	G	0.00939	0.94
22	F	0.00921	0.92
23	H	0.00908	0.91
24	Q	0.00878	0.88
25	Z	0.00719	0.72
26	C	0.00666	0.67
27	Y	0.00557	0.56
28	LL	0.00443	0.44
29	GJ	0.00402	0.40
30	NJ	0.00374	0.37
31	RR	0.00325	0.32
32	TH	0.00280	0.28
33	Ç	0.00188	0.19
34	ZH	0.00077	0.08
35	X	0.00064	0.06
36	XH	0.00040	0.04
		1	100%

The following conclusion can be drawn from the analysis:

1. The density of usage differs significantly from one phoneme to another. The *e*, which is the most frequently used phoneme at 10.82 %, has a usage density of 270.50 times higher than *xh*, which is the least used phoneme at 0.04 %. The relation among the consonants *t* and *xh* is 9.06% and 0.04 %, thus 227.33 times, while for the vowels *e* and *y*, respectively 10.82 % and 0.56 %. The difference is thus 19.41 times.

2. The density ratio of consonant and vowel usage is quite close (56 % consonants and 44 % vowels).

3. According to articulation features, the consonants *ç, zh, x,* and *xh,* have the lowest density of usage at 0.76 %.

4. Unvoiced consonants have a higher usage density than voiced consonants. The ratio between these is 49% against 15% in favour of unvoiced consonants, while the remaining 36 % are sound consonants.

Noteworthy is that there are also other differences in the usage density of the forms presented in detail in the analysis presented above.

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Ibrahimi, M. 2003. *Interpretime dhe studime gjuhësore.* Skopje.

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Macedonian and US Students' Perceptions of Gender and the Opportunity for Change

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Abstract

This paper presents undergraduate students' perceptions about gender. Students from Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI), a public university in the Midwestern United States, and South East European University (SEEU), a private non profit university in Tetovo, Macedonia, were asked to tell stores about gender—such as lessons learned from parents, peers, and institutions including school and the workplace, the influence of role models, feminism, and media, and the types of games and activities engaged in as a child. The paper examines most prominent themes which have emerged throughout the stories and assess the students' perceptions of gender and gender roles, taking into account cultural similarities and differences. Also, this essay expresses the finding of the authors for much optimism toward positive change in the Balkan region even if the US students did not identify with the need for such systemic change in their own culture, suggesting complacency with the status quo. Facilitating partnerships among US and Macedonian students and faculty not only enrich those individuals involved, but provide tangible benefits of the Higher Education Linkage Program (HELP) to which these universities have committed valuable time, resources and personnel.

Introduction

Undergraduate students' perceptions about gender suggest many influences, not the least of which is culture. In this project, students from Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI), a public university in the Midwestern United States, and South East European University (SEEU), a private university in Tetovo, Macedonia, were asked to tell stores about gender—such as lessons learned from parents, peers, and institutions including school and the workplace, the influence of role models, feminism, and media, and the types of games and activities engaged in as a child. Throughout the stories, several themes emerged. This essay will discuss the dominant themes and assess the students' perceptions of gender and gender roles, taking into account cultural similarities and differences. Through the analysis of the stories, we found much optimism toward positive change in the Balkan region even if the US students did not identify with the need for

such systemic change in their own culture, suggesting complacency with the status quo. Facilitating partnerships among US and Macedonian (this term refers to people who are citizens of the Republic of Macedonia) students and faculty not only enrich those individuals involved, but provide tangible benefits of the Higher Education Linkage Program (HELP) to which these universities have committed valuable time, resources and personnel.

I. Student Population

Before assessing the emergent themes in the stories, it is helpful to understand the student populations who participated in this study. All students were enrolled in either an Advanced Gender and Communication class during the winter 2005-06 Semester at SEEU or the same class in spring 2006 at IUPUI. Specifically student characteristics are as follows:

	US students	Macedonian students
Year in School	Junior or senior (3rd-4th year)	Senior (4th year)
Age	20-55; most 20-26 years of age	22-25 years of age
Sex	18 Female, 9 Male	8 Female, 6 Male
Race/Ethic Background	3 African American 1 East African 23 Caucasian	8 Macedonian 5 Albanian 1 Turkish
Major Area of Study	10 School of Science 18 School of Liberal Arts	Communication Sciences

II. Thematic Analysis

We asked the students to tell eight stories (see Appendix A). Responses were content analyzed and dominant themes emerged. The themes clustered in the following ways.

- Stereotypes are Alive and Well
- Independent and Professional are Human Qualities
- Female Athletes and Wonder Woman
- To Be or Not To Be a Feminist
- Education as the Means Toward Change

This essay will interpret the themes in light of the research on gender and culture and point out the interesting exceptions to each. The essay ends by noting, in particular, the Macedonian students' optimism for the future and the hard work ahead in achieving gender equity.

II. 1 Stereotypes are Alive and Well

Each Macedonian student recounts numerous stories about the gendered lessons received as a child from "*boys don't cry*" to "*girls should be quiet and polite*" to boys are "*naughtier*" to you can't be an architect because it's "*not a woman profession, because [you] will have to work long hours [and] . . . not have time for house works and family*." As one student summarizes: "*Well I say this generally that every little girls and boys are brought up and raised by those unwritten guidelines in the society where girl is a girl and she should be raised in the manners of a woman, building her education based on girly courses like ballet, dancing... and then the boys are raised in a manly way, of course, by teaching them to be tough, not to show emotion*." These distinct gender characteristics are found in numerous studies cited by Julia T. Wood (2007) in her chapter entitled "Becoming Gendered."

The family is by far the most significant agent of socialization, even being called "sacred" by some Macedonian students. The socialization process encourages gender-appropriate norms leading to separation and independence for males and connection for females. As was written in one of the Macedonian stories: "I remember well that the time I was a kid I used to play in the street with the boys and my grandmother would say to me: "Why do you play with boys? You should play with girls, because boys are different, you are going to end up being like them." Another male student writes, "The role that my father gave me, during my puberty, was to develop my body, and later to develop my spirit. His expectation was for me to get stronger, to grow more and to straighten my body. That's how all males should look like." These stories confirm what Virginia Satir wrote in the introduction of her book People Making, calling "the family the 'factory' where the person is made" (Satir, 1972).

While the US students insist that they in fact embrace a range of gendered behaviors, that is not always the quality that comes through in their stories. US students very clearly see polar opposites in masculine and feminine. They know the stereotypes, lived by them as children, and seem rather comfortable in sharing those stories today. For example, one female student writes: "I can remember noticing that my mother always did all of the cooking and laundry. Occasionally my father would help pick up toys and straighten up the house, but it was my mother who always did the bulk of the housework. I also noticed that my father was the disciplinarian, which had in the past always been seen as the father's responsibility. As a result, at a young age, I began pretending to cook in my little Playskool kitchen and demonstrating female gender roles." Another student writes: "I remember playing house and being the "mom" and wanting to be a princess for Halloween… I was always a quiet and reserved child who preferred to sit and read a book than to play basketball."

Sometimes the US students reinforce gender polarity in their discussion of rebelling against the stereotypes. To rebel is to do the opposite. For example, one female US student openly rebels at the gender expectations her parents put on her, refusing to wear the "frilly" girly socks that her mother put on her as a child. Her solution was to wear no socks or wear what the boys wear. A seemingly innocent story, but it illustrates the expectation that "appearance still counts" (Haag, 2000; Greenfield, 2002). It is also an interesting contrast to the Macedonian student stories whose rebellion is in embracing a range of options depending on the person rather than on the gender of the person.

Perhaps that these students see the stereotypes isn't necessarily news, but what they do with the stereotypes might be. By comparison, Macedonian students are relatively pro-

gressive in their views of gender in that they are more likely than their US counterparts to view masculine and feminine as two ends of a continuum that holds a range of options. Further, instead of just living with the stereotypes, Macedonian students call them "ridiculous" or admit to being "mad and upset" by differential treatment. A female student writes about the various gendered lessons she's been taught growing up: "I mean that these are that kind of lessons that I haven't accepted and which I don't plan to put in practice." Such a view may be the product of the culture in which these Macedonian students have come of age. As one male student explains: "Republic of Macedonia gained its independence after the breakdown of ex Yugoslavia. Since then, 16 years passed in construction of democracy and tolerance, the process which required a lot of efforts and patience. Almost with the same difficulty was to create an economy development plan which led the country into a transition period. Males were the persons who guided and still guide Macedonia through this period of changes. The main question to be asked is: Why males? The answer is simple. Macedonian history is patriarchal. Always man was the 'head of the family'. He was the breadwinner, protector and fighter for the family. It was [a] blessing if somebody got a son. . . . If you add the fact that for five hundred years Macedonia was occupied by the Turkish Empire, you will find out some cultural norms and mixtures with the Islamic traditions on the roles of women in society which usually prescribe woman as mother, housekeeper distracted from active participation in political life or any sphere of important decision."

The overall theme in these stories from the Macedonian students is that gender roles are very much defined through communication with family, culture, and institutions and there is nothing "natural" about women's or men's work and nothing wrong with performing a variety of tasks because that is simply what a good person does. One male student insists, "*I respect women and do think that they should have totally the same rights as men, not because they are women but because they are human beings and we must not maltreat them, or think that they are just an object that will clean our mess that we left behind*." Finally, another male student expresses: "*I believe that if the leader of my country is woman, I will have more beautiful life in this country*." One step toward productive change may be in seeing the continuum of masculine and feminine as communicative choices rather than oppositional structures attached to a biological sex.

II. 2. Independent and Professional Are Human Qualities

A second theme that developed in both groups of students was the use of two terms: independent and professional. While both terms are gendered masculine (Farrell, 1991; Doyle, 1997), these students see the terms as something that any human being can embrace. Stressing that professionalism (not gender; not physical appearance) is that which matters, in one Macedonian story there are sentences like: "I believe the most respected women from the political or cultural (and entertainment) life in Macedonia are the ones who are professional in their jobs. But whatever the case is, if the woman is professional in what she does, I don't believe that she would have trouble that considers her looks. Maybe she would be laughed at by people who don't have any other or smarter thing to do, but . . . We should work first of all, with people and second, with professionals. Other group divisions are irrelevant to organizations."

Not only are professionalism and independence important, but also the Macedonian students could name specific public women who embodied these qualities. One student names a prominent woman politician and describes her as "*smart, ambitious, directive and*

independent. Her style of dressing is little bit conservative but still, she is the perfect female professional."

Similarly a US woman writes the following: "*My mother never went to college and had to depend on my dad and step dad for money. She did not like this so ever since I can remember she has taught me to be independent and responsible so that I would never end up in tough situations like she did. From the time I was a little girl, I was praised for getting good grades, and deeply encouraged to go to college*" And another proudly declares: *I am a born-again liberal feminist. Life has taught me the vital lesson that every woman should control her own destiny, claiming her own power and mapping out her own future. But more important than my future is what I teach and demonstrate to my two daughters. For the past six years, I have tried to tell them and show them that being a strong, smart, independent woman is the best gift they can give themselves and anyone else who loves them. I believe in the equality of the sexes. I believe women should take steps to insure their own health and happiness. I believe women have the responsibility to fight for political, civic, and economic power. I believe higher education is the key to reaching all of those goals. I believe in liberal feminism.*" This student's declaration is the most forceful of all the US students, but she also happens to be the most senior student and one who has performed the duties of a single-mother raising two daughters. Her standpoint is different from that of the rest of her classmates.

What is interesting is that even though the US students, mostly women, identify as independent, highly motivated women who want a career outside of the home, some still present in their stories a highly internalized distinction between the genders and the proper way to run a household. Women cook, raise children, care for the husband, and have a career, while men do yard work and work outside the home. In this way, US women set up for themselves an unreasonable expectation as the next theme illustrates.

II. 3. Female Athletes and Wonder Woman

US women, while acknowledging the binary stereotypes, embrace for themselves both masculine and feminine characteristics. In this way, the boundaries for women are opening, but not so for men, and resonate with research by Shaw and Edwards (1997) who found that narratives for US women emphasize both connection and independence, whereas US men's narratives are more likely to emphasize the gender-stereotypical characteristics of being active and independent. One area in which women embraced masculine behaviors was in the area of athletics. According to one female student: "*I must say that as a child, and still today, society would call me a tomboy because I didn't really play feminine games. By feminine, I mean the traditional house, playing with dolls, playing dress-up with friends that were girls, etc. The games I played were with boys such as tackle football, army games, videogames, or just "rough housing" such as wrestling for fun. The games I played taught me that you could be a girl and be "tough", but one thing that I did notice is that I was usually the only girl playing these games with my friends that were boys.*"

Female Macedonian students expressed similar sentiments. One female student says "*But I was having fun time in playing both types of games, not sorting them whether they are for girls or for boys. It was more often case to see girls to play with guns for example, than boy with dolls, which for me is nothing frightening.*" One interesting side note to the Macedonian students' stories is the protection impulse explained as the reason for it being more acceptable for girls to play "male games;" they will be protected by males who are physically stronger. We can see that impulse through these sentences: "*The games taught*

me that boys must always win (this was only a case when I was just a child), that the girls are softer, complain more, and cry a lot. Boys appeared to be always stronger, but they protected us girls from the boys of other companies."

It is all right for young women to be tomboys and play games with the boys but those boys do not have the same latitude. Many stories from both groups indicated that "*boys must always win*" and this resonates with research that boys and men must be successful, athletic, competitive, and aggressive (Doyle, 1997; Cohen, 1997; Messner, 2000). Male students write that it is not allowed for boys to be involved in "girls games." Male games are full of power, competence, aggression and dominance, as it is in the following example from one Macedonian male student: "*Nevertheless, there were far more dangerous games . . . like passing the narrow tunnel which connected two bunkers near our buildings. That task was the scariest thing that we could imagine in that time. Only the brave ones and 'real boys' could do that.*" Another male student recalls: "*I played a lot with little electric cars that run on batteries and also to not forget my famous bicycle riding and racing. In this last one racing bicycles we had girls too but of course we often laughed at them by saying that they have no chance to beat us in this boy game.*"

One problematic observation is that the increased latitude for young women translates to young women who grow up and expect to have it all. Wood (2007) writes about the superwoman theme that is emerging in cultural expectations about women. Coltrane & Adams (2001) and several other sources document the stress placed on women who try to do everything themselves. Superwoman is the norm rather than the exception. The US students are no exception. One US female writes: "Part of the reason I decided to work was because we need a dual income in order to have the things we want and need. The other reason is because I like to work. It gives me a sense of self-confidence and accomplishment. Although, I would love to stay at home with my daughter, right now in my life I need to work. . . . I believe women should have the equal opportunity to work if they want just as men do. . . . I like the unique characteristics I have as a woman. Yes, I like to feel sexy, sweet, and sometimes innocent which are stereotypical characteristics of women. I do not want to have to wear pant suits to work, although sometimes I do. I do not think I am being hypocritical because as a woman, there is a difference between having equal rights, and celebrating your individuality and along with that, your feminine side."

Increased latitude from women does not always translate in adopting the feminist label. To the contrary, US women are not necessarily comfortable with the label even though they benefit from the gains made during the feminist movement. The next theme articulates this apparent paradox.

II. 4. To Be or Not To Be a Feminist

Wanting to have it all encompasses the US students' definition of feminism, if they claim the term at all. Some embraced the term feminism but only when they could define it first. However, most admitted to a fear of using the word because of negative connotations and they would not openly label themselves a feminist in public. One student called this phenomenon a "frustrating paradox." Liss, O'Connor, Morosky, and Crawford (2001) explored the perceptions, attitudes and experiences differentiating those who supported the goals of feminism without claiming the label and those who supported the goals and claimed the label. Their findings suggest that a positive identification of the word is predicted by a positive evaluation of feminists and a belief in collective action. For the students who shared stories about their feminism, independent and professional are the key

words rather than feminism or feminist. Their focus was on self-reliance and individual achievement rather than collective goals. It may be that the word feminism itself appears to be outdated for these students who see change not in the collective, but in themselves—independence, self-reliance, the way they raise their families, much smaller scale social change. As one female student described it, "*In the grand scheme of things I tend to adapt my beliefs to a viewpoint which some may consider passive, but I believe I am my own activist. I am in charge of manipulating the variables in my life as best I can. Fair or not, I will play the cards I am dealt*."

The three strongest claims to the label feminist in US students were by women. One woman proudly proclaims, "I am a born again liberal feminist." Another states: "I have always had a strong sense of fairness/justice and hate being told what I "can't" do just because I am female. Because of this and after much thought, I decided that there are some biological differences in men and women but that almost everything else is exaggerated in order to make a "polar" society. We, as a culture, enjoy opposites and this is easy to see in our view of good and evil, heaven and hell, woman and man, black and white. All of these issues are strong areas of conflict because we do not easily accept the idea that most things fall in the middle, without extremes. For the reasons stated above, I consider myself a liberal feminist." And a third explains, "I guess that relates to my currently being a feminist because I still get that frustrated feeling when I feel like I'm being told I can't do something now. I knew that people expected me to act differently and more modestly as a woman and I resented that. I think also I was rebelling somewhat against the ideas of what a girl was supposed to do, and against the body shame that is forced on kids so often. Of course, I had that negated by the teacher and my mom, so I learned to be a good girl and I learned to dislike my body, but I didn't learn to like it. I think that's what makes me a feminist: not liking it, and wanting things done differently."

What these students express rather clearly is that I'm a feminist because no one is going to tell me what I can and cannot do. I am my own person and can make my own decisions, resonating with earlier themes of independence and self-reliance that appear to be so important to these students.

Interestingly, the majority of the Macedonian students did embrace the word feminism. It was very illuminating to see. When they were asked, "Do you believe that women and men should receive equal treatment and opportunities in all aspects of life?" they replied with a confident, hearty affirmative. And, what we have found was interesting, the opposite of the US students, the Macedonian students are not afraid to use the "new F-word" (De Francisko, 1992). Most of the students very bravely expressed their identification with liberal feminism and clearly declared that they do consider themselves as feminist. For, example one female student has declared "*Until I read the chapters on Gendered Lives I haven't accepted that I am a feminist. But now proudly I can declare: Yes, I am a feminist. And I feel great while I am saying it in front of the others. In Albanian it goes like: Une jam feministe! Very softy; but you know, with a meaning! There is a certain little light in the eyes while I am saying it.*"

Only a few students (three males) believe in gender equality but do not want to be called this new F-word. This is a consequence of the image of feminists that is still dominant in Macedonia, related with man-haters, radicals, masculine women, frustrated women who are trying to gain superiority over men. These negative connotations in large part come from the low level of public awareness about gender equality, low knowledge for women's and men's movements in the world, and selective and sometimes chauvinist images that media transmit to the audience. As one student has written in one of her stories "*Unfortunately, here in our country, Macedonia, these feministic movements are still*

unknown and you'll be surprised to see how many people have never heard about at least one of them. To some of them even the word Feminism will seem to be strange, but still they will not try to understand the actual meaning of this word, because they will not ask you to explain it." Or these sentences of another student: "*Men still connotate the word "feminism" with "anti-men". And for me Feminism means gender equality. I am a feminist; I am not a man – hater or bra-burner.*" But the question remains, what to do to change perceptions and advance a more egalitarian society?

II. 5. Education as the Means Toward Change

This US male student appears to possess the most progressive attitude for the future out of all the US students. In his response he signals the final prominent theme in the stories: the role of education in advancing social change. "*True social reform is more likely to occur if the general public is educated about gender equality in the workplace. . . . Finally, many current policies and laws hinder women's development in economic sustainability and independence. Many laws currently limit women's ability to advance in the workplace, as there are very few protection laws for women who have been sexually harassed in the workplace. Furthermore, women, who are more likely [than men] to care for their children, are rarely offered the opportunity to receive work compensation for sick days taken to care for their children, nor are they likely to receive complimentary child care services. These are some of the many reasons why I believe I am a liberal feminist. In an ideal society, both men and women will be viewed equally in society.*" This student shares many of the same values as the Macedonian students who express strong views in support of feminism, equality in the workplace, and the opportunity education offers to change things for the better.

Like the US students, Macedonian students agree that education is very important and highly valued, as a means to reach goals and end oppression, as a way to gain independence and equality. Particularly, they stressed the new modern way of teaching and learning, which is a part of the SEE University educational system. One SEEU student, a female, is quite forceful in her description of gender roles and the necessity for change, illustrating optimism about the attitude or possibility of change. "*We should work in order to change people's view about [the] bad image of feminism and try to educate them about gender equality. I don't think that women are better than men or vice versa, but that men and women are equal, and should be valued equally. I think that men aren't superior to women and they should not dominate us or order us what to do and what not. That's basically like saying we can't think for ourselves. I do absolutely reject the idea that because of some differences, one sex should "preside" the other.*" One SEEU male writes: "*Where I live (my small sub cultural environment) almost everybody thinks that being a teacher or working as a nurse are the main professions dedicated for the girls. And yes, sometimes there are some hidden messages by teachers for girl students. I have to admit that this thing is changing very fast in positive way. I like to believe that this result came because of educational 'globalization'.*" The progress that these students have seen and envision for the future can be credited, in part, to the strong partnerships that have been developed by the universities where these students attend and the educational opportunities afforded at SEEU that were not present even a decade ago.

Conclusions

Several insights can be drawn from these themes. First, both groups construct very tight boundaries around what it means to be masculine. This conforms, for example, to

research conducted by Doyle (1997) and others on the expectations of masculinity. But interestingly, the Macedonian male students more than their US counterparts were more likely to express comfort with a range of gendered behaviors. Second, while women's gender role expectations appear to be expanding, there is still the binary notion of masculine and feminine behaviors as evidenced in the US student stories. Perhaps because of the cultural and linguistic proclivity in the US to see things in terms of opposites, the US students did not offer a new or different orientation toward the way that the range of gendered behaviors fits together. Further, for US women, the expanded role options create the norm of the Superwoman and the impression that she must do everything well. However, the primary characteristic that was emphasized for women, and in particular as a result of feminism, is independence. Whether it is by virtue of culture or wanting "what men have," women seek independence and value their education as a means of achieving that independence. So the end goal desired for US students isn't necessarily making society or community a better place, but personal independence is the key.

Schwartz (1993, 2001) identifies Macedonia as an "ethnic mosaic," an area "in the middle" full of "contested identities." Unlike the Midwestern US, Macedonia is a culture full of cultures, identities, and peoples. Comfort with multiple answers and ambiguity is a way of life and is displayed in the Macedonian students' stories, accounting for their insistence of a range of behaviors that are human behaviors and not necessarily gendered behaviors.

Finally, the women's movements in each country may be useful in framing the themes as well. The US has a long history of women's activism, from suffrage beginning in the 1840s to the second wave feminism of the 1960s to current women's movements. Young women today enjoy the freedoms for which earlier women's activists fought and may even take those freedoms for granted because they were realized before many of the students were born. This fact may account for the undercurrent of complacency expressed by some of the US students who never experienced women's prohibition from high school or collegiate athletics, for example, and most expect to have a high paying job, get married, have a family, and "have it all" and consider doing so the "norm." The idea of gender discrimination in the workplace couldn't be further from the minds of the US students. Macedonia, by contrast, has experienced much turmoil during the lifetimes of these students, including ethnic wars, gender discrimination and violence, and women's political activism encouraging quotas and voting law changes to effect more women in politics. Although the political parties observed the legally prescribed gender quota of 30 percent with impeccable mathematical precision, as was shown by the Gender unit of the NGO Info Center in Macedonia, in-depth analysis of the candidates' lists shows that their efforts for equal participation of women in local level politics are more virtual than real and true (GUDI- NGO Info Center, 2005). Not only is university education about gender a relatively new phenomenon, but the political system itself has undergone change and may contribute to the students' relative optimism for the future and their place in it.

Macedonia bears a heavy burden from the patriarchal way of living and the traditional patriarchal conservative society. We are seduced by the picture we have about our environment and ourselves. It looks like we are living in an emancipated society, together with aware and self-conscious individuals who don't have problems or questions about gender and sexuality, but the facts show us something opposite. Attempts for raising awareness about gender issues are few and restricted to NGO activities, one or two services on the governmental level and several gender related courses at schools and universities. From there comes our hypocrisy connected with this issue as well as further complexities in the psychophysical development of young people. That is why the number of domestic vio-

lence acts is increasing, as well as the number of sexually abused women and children, divorced marriages, traumatized children from divorced marriages, drug addicts and alcoholics, the number of abortions, sexual infectious diseases, and dishonesty and disloyalty in marriage and partnership relations is considered to be normal.

Some of these problems come out from our own gender perspective and the perspective of the others, and are our responsibility. Our goal is to get these questions out in the open transparently and to offer solutions for them. One of the concepts in solving this problem, as it was suggested in SEEU students' stories, is through education (conversations, interactive learning and teaching, locating the problem and main gender issues, inducing cooperation, distributing educative materials, education of educators, offering methods and techniques in discovering, understanding and solving the problem). Every individual success in education may contribute to success in general, by cultivating public opinion and raising awareness about the meaning of the importance of gender equality.

As we all know, feminism, women's and men's movements, and gender issues, are terms that provoke in the south Slavic countries, sometimes even in the intellectual circles, astonishment, (un)meaningful laughing and very often depreciation. Gender identity is an integral part of the personality of every human being. The complete development of gender identity has essential meaning for the individual's personal and the social well-being. It is long overdue, and it is the one of the duties of the teachers of the next generations to transform gender issues from the personal to the public sphere. We need to humanize, demystify and remove the taboo from sex and gender as well as to start respecting their roles in our lives, as our students have demonstrated already in their stories. It's time to tell our students, parents, our ministers and national leaders that gender equality can be promoted only if *everyone* accepts this challenge.

Appendix A

Story One: Please tell a story that describes one interaction from your parent(s) or guardian(s) (the earliest you can remember) that communicated expectations for your gender. Also tell a story that describes the most recent interaction with someone who communicated expectations for your gender.

Story 2: Please tell a story that illustrates why you do or do not consider yourself a feminist. In the story, try to illustrate why you might identify with a particular branch (or branches) of feminism OR why you do not identify with any branch of feminisms discussed in the text.

Story 3: Tell a story or two that illustrate(s) the answers to the following questions. Who were your heroes as a child? How would you describe your play as a child? If you have children, nieces, and/or nephews, compare and contrast their heroes and play with your own as a child. What does this tell you about the rhetorical shaping of gender? What might we take for granted? Also, tell a story that illustrates an artifact that represents gendered communication to you. Describe it and how and why it represents gendered communication to you.

Story 4: Tell a story that illustrates your family dynamics. Here are some questions to help you compose your story. Think back on your childhood, on family dinners. Did they exist? If so, who organized them? Where did everyone sit? What type of table did you have? What types of chairs? Who communicated with whom? What can you observe about the gendered dynamics of your own family? Tell a story that illustrates the messages your

family gave you about gender identity. Here are some questions to get you started. Thinking about the early years in your family, recall an incident or the messages that were given to you by your family that told you what it meant to be a boy or a girl. Reflect on how these messages helped shape your gender identity.

Story 5: Tell a story that illustrates the games you played as a child and what those games taught you about being a girl or a boy? In addition, tell me a story that narrates what you have learned about society's messages concerning the importance or nonimportance of friendships. Which did you learn to value the most: family, friends, or romantic partners? Why?

Story 6: Tell a story that illustrates the messages you were given by teachers about gender. Here are some questions to help you. Think back to when you were in grade school or high school. Recall messages that were given to you by your teachers. For example, recall if any teachers gave you gendered messages such as, "boys are better at math and science and girls are good at language and reading." Think about how these messages may have affected how you viewed what career choices were available to you. Do you feel these types of messages have had an impact on other areas of your life today?

Story 7: Narrate one gender and/or sexuality lesson you have been taught in your life. The following are questions to help you brainstorm that moment. Who or what was it that taught you that "lesson?" Did you act or speak in particular ways to provoke this incident? What was the justification or occasion for your "lesson?" What were you told would be the consequences if you did not change? Would you pass that "lesson" on to others?

Story Assignment 8: Hillary Rodham Clinton is mentioned as one woman who was portrayed by the media as an "iron-maiden." Tell a story about another woman who may also represent the book's definition of an iron maiden. What are the benefits of a woman changing her appearance and communication style to fit into a traditional male job? Should women have to worry about being too feminine or too masculine in the work place? Use your own experiences and theory from this chapter to justify your responses.

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The Effect of EU law on Anti-Competitive Practices on University Mergers and Rationalisation and the Impact on the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

A recent determination under English competition law related to the merger of two universities in the same city, where the combined turnover of the merged entity would be large enough to give it a 'dominant position' in the market. The English law gives effect to the provisions of the anti-competition Articles of the EU Treaty; the Republic of Macedonia has amended its legislation in this area in line with those provisions (Law for Protection of Competition of 2005), as required by the Stabilisation and Association Agreement. The question is whether a similar determination may be necessary should two institutions in Macedonia wish to merge. The national recruitment market for a private university with a public commitment, such as SEEU in Macedonia, is growing, albeit most students are locally-based, whereas public universities may draw on students from across the country, or may have a particular local target group in mind, such as for example the Albanian-speaking sector of society.

Introduction

In 2004, VUM (the Victoria University of Manchester) and UMIST (the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology) merged to form a new University of Manchester, now one of the largest in the UK, with about 35,000 students and 10,000 staff. In a sense this was a re-merger, since until the mid-20th century university-level courses at the former Manchester College of Science and Technology had been under VUM, but UMIST then became a university institution in its own right. The 2004 merger process involved a special private Act of Parliament, the revocation by the Queen (the executive) of the two universities' charters and statutes and the grant of a new charter and statutes. The process was complex, took about two years to accomplish because of the legal complexities of transferring real (immoveable) property rights, trusts for scholarships, intellectual and other property rights to the new entity, as well as compliance with the Transfer of Undertakings (Protection of Employment) Regulations which implement EU Directives protecting workers on transfers of businesses. However, this particular merger for the first time in higher education engaged EU competition law, since the com-

bined turnover of the merged entity would be large enough to give it a 'dominant position' in the market, with a combined annual income of over £500m (about €750m). This article deals with the impact of EU competition law and the UK law which implemented it. It is of interest to the Republic of Macedonia in the light of the country's candidature for accession to the EU, the impact on the new Law on Protection of Competition of the Republic of Macedonia, and the markets which higher education institutions seek to exploit, nationally or regionally.

EU Competition Law

Article 81 of the Treaty of Rome (i) is concerned with the activities of 'undertakings' which in some way actually or potentially distort trade between EU Member States. The basic rule is that any commercial agreement, arrangement or concerted practice which may affect trade between EU Member States and which has as its object or effect an adverse effect on free competition, such as price-fixing, is void and unenforceable. 'Arrangement' has a very wide interpretation. It need not be formalised, and can even relate to an understanding between undertakings not to compete in each other's territory. Article 82 of the Treaty prohibits any abuse by one or more undertakings of a dominant position in the EU or a substantial part of it, for example by imposing unfair prices or other unfair trading conditions. The Treaty does not define 'dominant position' but the European Court of Justice (ECJ) has held that it relates to a position of economic strength held by an undertaking which enables it to prevent effective competition in the relevant market (ii).

The 'relevant market' necessitates a consideration of the relevant product or services market and the relevant geographical market and whether that is a 'substantial part of the EU' (iii). A single country or even part of a country is sufficient to constitute a 'substantial part of the EU' and the Commission has stated that a dominant position could be said to exist if a market share of 40-45% is reached although a dominant position cannot be ruled out in respect of a market share down to 20%. In *Centre Belge D'Etudes de Marche Tele-marketing v Compagnie Luxembourgoise de Telediffusion and Information Publicite Benelux* (iv), it was held that Article 82 applied to an undertaking even where the dominant position was attributable not to the undertaking's own activity, but to legislation which ensured that there could be little or no competition.

Any contract or arrangement which offends Articles 81 and 82 (and has not been permitted by the Commission, or is of minor importance, or where a 'block exemption' has been granted) will be void and unenforceable and, in addition, heavy fines may be payable to the Commission depending on the gravity of the infringement and any mitigating factors. The Commission encourages 'whistle-blowing' by exempting the first discloser of the infringement from fines, subject to other conditions (v). Furthermore, the Commission has extensive powers of investigation and inspection, including search powers with or without notice, and can compel the production of information and documents with fines for breach of the legal provisions. The precise wording of contracts needs careful checking, but just as important are their objects and practical effects. Otherwise, possibly many years later, unforeseeable 'effects' may make what started out as a valid contract void and unenforceable.

UK Competition Law

The Competition Act 1998 (CA) amended by the Enterprise Act 2002 (vi) (EntA) prohibits anti-competitive practices in the UK by means of controls modelled on Articles 81 and 82 of the Treaty with some differences. It affects agreements entered into after 1 March 2000: its major provisions are the Chapter I Prohibition and the Chapter II Prohibition. EntA provides more independence to the competition authorities, reformed the bankruptcy laws and tackles trading practices that harm consumers. The Chapter I Prohibition prohibits agreements, decisions by associations of undertakings or concerted practices which may affect trade within the UK; and have as their object or effect the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition within the UK, unless they are excluded by CA or are exempt. The obvious change from Article 81 is that CA applies to agreements which may affect trade in the UK rather than between Member States. But since the UK is a Member State an agreement which falls foul of the Chapter I Prohibition may also fall foul of Article 81 if it affects trade between Member States, and double penalties may be incurred. The Chapter I Prohibition also contains a list of offending provisions which is identical to that in Article 81. The Chapter I Prohibition will only be applicable where an agreement brings about an 'appreciable restriction' on competition in the view of the Office of Fair Trading ('the OFT') (vii). This is where the undertakings' combined market share of the relevant market does not exceed 25% unless the agreement fixes prices or shares markets or imposes minimum resale prices. An agreement which offends the Chapter I Prohibition is void (although it may be possible to sever the terms which are void). In addition, aggrieved third parties may claim damages and penalties may be payable to the OFT.

There is no legal requirement to notify the OFT of an agreement which may fall foul of the Chapter 1 Prohibition but, if the agreement is notified, the undertaking will gain provisional exemption from the date of notification. Notification will not provide immunity from third party claims for damages. Finally, agreement which is exempted under an EU block exemption is also exempted from the Chapter 1 Prohibition. The determination of the 'relevant market' is undertaken generally in accordance with the criteria outlined above for determining a 'dominant position' for the purposes of Article 82 but the geographical market may be far smaller if customers are not able or are not likely to obtain competing products from another area due to mobility issues.

Chapter II Prohibition is modelled heavily on Article 82 and prohibits any conduct on the part of one or more undertakings which amounts to abuse of a dominant position in a market if it may affect trade in the UK. A list of similar offending provisions to that set out in Article 82 is also contained in the Chapter II Prohibition. 'Dominant position' relates to the UK or any part of it which, in turn, depends on a determination of the market and the undertaking's market share (see above). The OFT will generally consider that an undertaking with a market share below 40% will not be individually dominant and that with a market share above 50% will be presumed to be dominant, in each case in the absence of evidence to the contrary. There are no exemptions from the Chapter II Prohibition and only very limited exclusions. Notification for guidance can be made to the OFT, but it will not provide immunity from penalties until favourable guidance or a decision is given. The OFT has similar powers of investigation and enforcement as the EU Commission. Failure to co-operate is a criminal offence and OFT can impose substantial fines 'Whistleblowers' are encouraged to come forward with information and thus avoid fines. Any agreement or practice which contravenes Articles 81 or 82 may prove void and unenforceable, and can attract large fines, even though it may comply with English law. This

can be the case even where the agreement or practice is between two English entities. HEIs must be able to rely on a secure contractual framework.

The Universities in Manchester

The first relevant determination by the OFT under s 22 EntA concerned the completed acquisition by the University of Manchester of VUM and UMIST where a relevant merger situation had been created as the combined turnover of the two existing institutions exceeded the threshold of £70m (approximately €100m.) (viii). There was also apparent academic overlap in degree courses and in the provision of research (the 'relevant market'). If a course or programme which is only likely to be taken up by students living in the local area is exclusively licensed or franchised to another provider the combined market share of the parties may well exceed the threshold, whereas a course of national appeal would be less likely to do so. The OFT checked with 'third parties-competitors' (i.e. other universities) and concluded that the merger was not anti-competitive, given the national (and indeed overseas) recruitment market for a university such as Manchester. (citing about 36 of the UK's 127 universities as comparators). It concluded, in para. 35 of its decision, (ix) that: 'VUM and UMIST overlapped in the following areas: the provision of academic courses at undergraduate and postgraduate level and in academic research. In almost all segments, there remain a significant number of competitors. In those isolated instances where competing alternatives may be more limited, supply-side substitution appears to be relatively easy and is therefore considered to provide an effective constraint. No third parties have raised concerns about the competitive effects of this merger.' So the merger would not be referred to the Competition Commission.

On the other hand, the provisional finding by OFT in November 2005 (x) that 50 fee-paying English independent schools are in breach of CA by exchanging information about their proposed fees has some relevance to universities. For example, it is clear from the Parliamentary debates leading up to the enactment of the new Higher Education Act in 2004 which introduces much larger tuition fees (up to the equivalent of about €4500) from 2006, that universities are expected to act independently of 'competing' institutions when setting differential fees. Universities might fall foul of the Act by making agreements restricting their freedom of action in granting bursaries, offering facilities, introducing a numerus clausus, or even, although this seems most unlikely, setting minimum academic standards or standard curriculum. Some types of exclusive collaboration agreement might also be non-compliant. It may be implied that the merger of two more regionally/locally recruiting universities, especially if recruiting local part-time students, might have been more questionable but the economics of merger are obviously more attractive when universities are physically proximate as was the case in Manchester, being located within 400m of each other.

Discussion

It may seem odd that universities, some of which have been operating as academic institutions for centuries (in the case of Oxford and Cambridge, for 800-900 years, and Manchester for over 150 years, VUM originating in 1851 and UMIST in 1824) should be subject to this kind of regulation, treated as if they were makers of car components, brewers or telecoms companies, sectors in which much of the litigation on Articles 81 and 82 of the Treaty arises (xi). But it is clear, certainly in English law, that the definition of 'undertaking' includes universities (xii), so we can treat large public and private universi-

ties within the EU as competing businesses, albeit not operating for a profit in terms of returns to investors.

But publicly-financed universities 'cannot win'. In relation to public procurement rules, which do not apply to commercial business, have already been the subject of court action confirming their status as public bodies or 'contracting authorities' for the purposes of the Directives (xiii). A body governed by public law means any body: established for the specific purpose of meeting needs in the general interest, not having an industrial or commercial character, and having legal personality, and financed, for the most part, by the State, or regional or local authorities, or other bodies governed by public law, or subject to management supervision by those bodies, or having an administrative, managerial or supervisory board, more than half of whose members are appointed by the State, regional or local authorities or by other bodies governed by public law. In *Commission v Spain* ("Madrid University") (xiv), it was accepted that the University of Madrid fell within this definition as a legal person governed by public law. Spain was unable to rely on an exemption for 'extreme urgency,' the need to complete work - which had not been advertised as required by the then applicable Directive 93/37- before the start of the next academic year. The ECJ held that the exemption should be interpreted strictly and applied only where there was 'extreme urgency brought about by events unforeseen by the contracting authority.' Student numbers had been increasing steadily over a period of years and the influx due at the start of the next academic year was neither unforeseeable nor would it cause any greater overcrowding than in previous years. In addition, the ECJ considered that, had the accelerated time limits provided for in the Directive been applied, there would have been sufficient time (around six weeks) to advertise the contract and organise a proper selection procedure, whilst still achieving completion of the work before the start of the academic year. Moreover, Annex 1 to the Directive includes as one of the categories to which public procurement rules apply: universities and polytechnics, maintained schools and colleges and also Research Councils. However, in R v H M Treasury ex parte University of Cambridge (xv) the ECJ held, that whether a higher education institution is subject to the public procurement rules depends on more than half of its annual income being publicly financed, which term did not include endowment income nor payments made in the context of contracts for services such as research, consultancy or the organisation of conferences, nor students personally paying tuition fees. Obviously this percentage will vary from year to year but most universities will in practice be 'contracting authorities' In the UK, a few institutions (including most Oxbridge colleges) will never exceed the 50% public funding test and hence might be able to ignore the public procurement rules. In the event, the University of Cambridge was not able to show that it was less than 50% publicly funded in the period 1996-2000 (xvi). The latest accounts for the merged University of Manchester show that it received about one-third of its approximately €750m income from government (through the Higher Education Funding Council), about 25% from tuition fees and the rest from other sources. Depending on the precise source of its funds in any given year, it may be both a 'contracting authority' (put more simply, a public authority) for the purposes of one set of EU rules, but a 'competing business' for another set.

The Legal Position in the Republic of Macedonia

Article 69 of the Stabilisation and Association Agreement between the EU and the Republic of Macedonia (xvii) provides for a competition regime to be applied in trade relations

between the EU and the Republic of Macedonia, based on the rules enshrined in the EU Treaty, namely Articles 81, 82 and 87. As required by Article 68(3) of the Agreement, the Republic of Macedonia has made significant progress to align its legislation with EU competition rules (xviii), notably with the implementation of the Law for Protection of Competition in 2005 (xix). This has changed the regulation of public and private enterprises with respect to elimination of unfair competition, with respect to the pre-existing Law on Competition implemented in 2000 (xx). Article 1(3) of the old Law clearly brought all public and private enterprises within the legal provisions aimed at eliminating unfair competition. However, Article 3(2) of the new Law states that the law applies to private enterprises and to the state administration given the fact that after privatization the State become a major share holder in a number of enterprises. This also can apply to state financed Universities since they can be regarded as an integral part of the State and its administrative procedures (xxi).

The old Law is complex, Article 25 defining a dominant position when the enterprise has market share of over one-third of the relevant market, at least €2.5m (5m DEM at the time) in value, the new law is somewhat more general and in Article 13 defines dominant position as follows:

> '(1) An enterprise has a dominant position in the relevant market if as a potential seller or buyer of certain goods or services:
>
> > 1) It has no competition on the relevant market
> >
> > 2). In comparison to its competitors has a leading position on the relevant market…
>
> (2) Two or more enterprises have a dominant position on the relevant market if for certain types of goods or services there is no difference between them and they fulfil the conditions of Article 13(1).
>
> (3) It is presumed that an enterprise has a dominant position if its share on the relevant market is more then 40%,
>
> (4) It is presumed that two or more enterprises have a dominant position if they together participate in the relevant market with more then 60 % of the shares.'

In the case of mergers, notification to the Competition Authority ('Commission for the Protection of Competition' the equivalent of the UK OFT) is required by Article 16 of the new law which sets a threshold of approximately €5m. The Competition Authority then has powers similar to those of the OFT in the UK.

Discussion and Conclusion

It is probable that most public and private universities in Macedonia which plan mergers or rationalisations will fall within the financial threshold set by the new Law for Protection of Competition. Whether it is necessary for the Competition Authority to invoke the Law depends on what is perceived to be the 'market' for the universities' services and to what extent they hold, as a merged or rationalised entity, a dominant position in that market. Bearing in mind that the OFT in the UK, applying similar provisions (albeit the thresholds are much higher, reflecting the differences in the economic circumstances of

the UK and the Republic of Macedonia) considered it a proper use of public funds to investigate the VUM/UMIST merger, why should not the Macedonian authorities take a similar view? If the OFT reasoning is applied, if a course or programme which is only likely to be taken up by students living in the local area is exclusively licensed or franchised to another provider the combined market share of the parties may well exceed the threshold, whereas a course of national appeal would be less likely to do so. For example, take the suggestion of 'merger' between a private university and a public university, which has often been mentioned in the media. The national (and indeed 'overseas' i.e. outside the state boundaries) recruitment market for a private university with a public commitment, such as SEEU in Macedonia, is growing, albeit most students are locally-based, whereas public universities may either be like Manchester, and draw on students from across the country, or may have a particular local target group in mind, such as for example the Albanian-speaking sector of society. Certainly, the two universities in Tetovo do currently overlap directly in the provision of some academic courses at undergraduate level and if they were simply to merge, no competition would effectively be provided by other institutions. Hence any proposal for 'merger' would have to be evaluated against the provisions of the competition law.

References

i   Reference to Articles in the Treaty of Rome and to the Treaty itself are to the consolidated version introduced following the Single European Act (Amsterdam) and the Treaty on European Union (Maastricht).

ii   See the case law on http://curia.eu.int/jurisp and search for relevant decisions.

iii   Official Journal C 372, 9 December 1997 and the Notice on definition of 'relevant market.'

iv   Case C-311/84 (1985).

v   See Leniency Notice 2002 (OJ C 45, 19 February 2002, pp 3-5) in the context of whistle blowing and Regulation 1/2003/EC regarding procedural changes.

vi   See also the Enterprise Act 2002 (Protection of Legitimate Interests) Order 2003, SI 2003/1592.

vii   EntA established the OFT as a statutory body to replace the Director-General of Fair Trading (DGFT) whose office had been known, informally, as the OFT.

viii   Section 23(1) (b) EntA. See also EC Merger Control (Consequential Amendments) Regulations 2004 (SI 2004/1079) and EC Merger Regulation, Council Regulation (EC) No 139/2004, O.J. L24, 29 January 2004.

ix   See www.oft.gov.uk and enter keyword search 'Manchester' for the full decision.

x   November 2005 was designated by OFT as its 'come clean on cartels' month. OFT has been criticised in the media for spending public funds on a lengthy investigation into non-publicly-funded schools. The schools eventually entered into an agreement to pay a reduced fine and to stop their offending activity.

xi   For examples, see the list of cases decided by national courts at http://ec.europa.eu/comm/competition/antitrust/national_courts/index_en.html. Cases arise in only a few relatively large Member States. As yet, no cases involve universities.

xii   In English law as charitable non-profit institutions: see Bettercare Group Ltd v Director-General of Fair Trading [2002] CompAR 226; in civil law countries as public institutions or private foundations.

xiii   SEEU is described as a 'contracting authority' for these purposes, despite not being situated in the EU, nor being a body governed by public law, as the European Agency for Reconstruction is financing most of the cost of the Business Education Centre.

xiv   Case 24/91 [1992] ECR 1-1989, [1994] 2 CMLR 621.
xv   Case C – 380/98, The Times, !7 October 2000.
xvi   The Queen on the application of the University of Cambridge v HM Treasury
        [2001] EHWC Admin 978.
xvii   http://ec.europa.eu/comm/enlargement/fyrom/pdf/saa03_01.pdf.
xviii   Apart from further fine-tuning of its legislation, the EU view is it is now important
        to adopt the relevant implementing legislation and to visibly enforce the already
        existing antitrust and State aid rules. The European Commission will closely moni-
        tor developments in these areas and will report to the Council on progress
        achieved. See http://ec.europa.eu/comm/competition/international/bilateral/
        background/mk1_en.html.
xix   Official Gazette of R. Macedonia 4/2005.
xx   Official Gazette of R. Macedonia 80/99.
xxi   Article 70 of the Stabilisation and Association Agreement refers specifically to
        public undertakings.

Basic Indicators of Trafficking in Women for Sexual Exploitation as a Gender-based Practice

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Abstract

As a growing global phenomenon, human trafficking is a reason for concern for many countries whether they are involved as countries of origin, transit or destination. Some of the basic indicators of trafficking in persons that will be elaborated are the level of profits that the practice brings to crime syndicates, the numbers of trafficked women worldwide which reaffirms the rise in the practice and as a third indicator the distinction between the countries of origin, transit and destination for victims of trafficking. It should be noted that all these indicators point to the common link between the disadvantaged position that women hold in societies, such as being exposed to systematic discrimination by state officials and state agencies thus showing how inaction on the part of government in preventing discrimination can be a catalyst of trafficking as such. Actions should be taken if this phenomenon that threatens modern societies and democratic values is to be fought, especially in the civilized era that we live and the future based on rights the world tries to build.

Introduction

Trafficking in human beings represents a growing global phenomenon. In order to see just how enormous and alarming this phenomenon is, it is of a great importance to identify some of the basic indicators of trafficking in persons in general and trafficking in women in particular.

Once we establish the fact that even though people are trafficked for several reasons and for a variety of purposes, we will show that women and girls make up the majority of trafficked persons in the world. Accordingly, without neglecting the other forms of trafficking, the overall concentration of this paper will fall on the trafficking in women and girls for sexual exploitation. By concentrating on trafficking in women for the purposes of sexual exploitation, more specifically prostitution, we will highlight the gender-based character of the practice that influences the way and the form in which the violations of human rights of victims of trafficking occur.

Having that in mind, the early identification of the basic indicators to trafficking is important for further analysis of the essence of the issue of trafficking in women as a human rights violation. Also it is crucial in the process of identification and selection of human rights based policies to prevent and combat trafficking, which presents the current literature of which this article forms part.

The first indicator will elaborate the level of profits that the practice brings to crime syndicates, which puts into perspective the illicit character of the practice, establishing a link between trans-national organized crime, criminal law, human rights, and trafficking in women.

The second indicator will elaborate the numbers of trafficked women worldwide, which reaffirms the rise in the practice. This aims towards establishing a link between the disadvantaged position that women hold in societies, such as being exposed to systematic discrimination by state officials, state agencies, and through discriminatory laws and policies passed and exercised by the respective states, thus showing how inaction on the part of governments in preventing discrimination and discriminatory practices perpetrated on women by private actors can be a catalyst of trafficking as such.

The third indicator will elaborate the distinction between the countries of origin, transit and destination for victims of trafficking. This differentiation is relevant not only for understanding the *modus operandi* of the criminal groups, but more importantly it facilitates the identification of human rights violations in the separate phases of the trafficking process with close connection to the origin, transport and destination.

The Magnitude of the Problem

Trafficking as a Global Problem Driven by Profit

> "We recognize that trafficking in human beings represents a serious and rapidly expanding area of trans-national organized crime, generating huge profits for criminal networks that may also be associated with criminal acts such as trafficking in drugs and arms, as well as smuggling of migrants…" (1)

Trafficking in human beings has become a global business affecting almost every country in the world. It "cuts across age, gender and countries frontiers," (2) and as a global problem it impacts all countries: destination, transit and origin.

There are several factors influencing the rise of this problem: globalization, the gender character of the practice interconnected to the declining socio-economic status of women, the profit factor and the inaction and/or complicity on the part of governments influenced by state obligations which are not clearly determined with respect to trafficking (3). The violation of women's dignity and integrity through trafficking are undermining all processes of stabilizing and re-organizing peaceful democratic or other forms of societies according to the principles of equality of men and women and human rights (4). To that end it is very important to understand the essence of this heinous practice, if one wants to build a democratic society.

The rise of the world's ongoing globalization and internationalization of certain shadow economies, such as prostitution in general and prostitution of children as a specific category, is proportionally increasing. The inhuman reality of trafficking of women or children as part of a globalised economy with its basic structure of making women an object of men's business and hegemonial power has disastrous effects upon future generations (5).

Some of the products of globalization such as the facilitation of the connections between far reaching regions through fast modes of transportation, unlimited ways of com-

munications via the internet, and developed marketing and advertisement networks directly fuel the practice of trafficking as well (6).

Understanding its magnitude in the contemporary framework cannot be done without comparing it to drugs and weapons trafficking which were the biggest money generating organized crime practices so far. Francis T. Miko states that the trafficking in humans has become the third most lucrative business in the world after drug and weapons trafficking (7), generating huge profits with very little risk (8). Nevertheless, even though trafficking in humans holds the third place after drug and weapons trafficking, if the numbers presented by the United Nations are accurate, (according to United Nations estimates the traffic in human beings results in illicit profits to criminal syndicates of seven up to ten billion dollars annually) (9) then: "trafficking is now more lucrative than international trade in illicit weapons (10)."

Women and girls especially fall victim to this heinous practice as will be elaborated later. Various reports such as World Watch Institute's report show that trafficking in women as commodities for sex industries (11) is a multi-billion dollar industry (12). Its study on trafficking in women and girls found that: "profit is… at the root of the whole business [of forced prostitution] (13)." Having that in mind in the makings of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Trans-national Organized Crime (14) several of the delegates prior to the fifth session of the Ad Hoc Committee, expressed the view that in the definition of trafficking there was a need to refer to "profit" as an element of trafficking in persons for the purpose of sexual exploitation (15). In the final version profit was not included, but the proposals by the delegations with reference to it stressed once again that profit is a core element of trafficking.

The enormous profits on the other hand also testify to the huge demand for women to be used in the sex industry (16). This reality points at the correlation of the supply and demand of women with the dynamics of trafficking. Namely, more demand generates the need to supply more women for exploitation that in the end results in more profits for the traffickers.

However, the magnitude of the problem of trafficking in humans especially women, does not solely lie in the numbers describing just how many people have fallen victim to the practice, or how much money this has brought to criminal organizations and private persons but it also lies in and points towards its side effects, or the by-products inevitably following trafficking. These side-effects referred to are the numerous human rights violations that are the trademark of trafficking. As trafficking becomes more expanded and more organized the United Nations placed it alongside and included it in the list of practices that constitute human rights violations (17). It called on its bodies to review developments in the field of slavery and the slave trade, slavery-like practices and trafficking in persons and the exploitation of the prostitution of others (18). As the technical Advisor on Migration and Trafficking Jean D'Cunha states: "gross human rights violations for capital accumulation-ironically in a 'civilized, global era (19).'"

Along those lines is the UN Commissioner of Human Rights Mary Robinson's comment when she sees trafficking as "money being made at the expense of human dignity (20)," providing an insight into the exploitative nature of the practice of trafficking, where human dignity and a whole body of other human rights such as the right to life, the right to security of person, freedom from discrimination on the basis race, gender, or other status, freedom from slavery and servitude, torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and others are violated (21).

The impact of trafficking on society has the so-called reversibility effect. This can be explained as: for trafficking to exist and grow several preconditions have to be met such as the existence of a special category of people who due to economical, social, cultural, and legal factors, such as corruption, economic disparities, and discrimination and similar violations of human rights, will be vulnerable to trafficking. Moreover, the instability within a country such as internal conflict can also be a pre-condition to trafficking. However, once trafficking gets hold of a country it enhances the vulnerability of the whole group of potential victims, by increasing corruption, economic disparities, and discrimination. But, also, with its trans-national organized crime character it seriously endangers the stability of a country and poses a serious threat to national and international security (22). In other words, trafficking targets many areas of the very existence of modern societies including its base- state and human security (23), as Ms. Gulnara Shahinian speaking of its character points out: "[It] Has structural, systematic rather than episodic one, its implications destroy entire fabric of society (24)."

Evidently, this phenomenon is complex and multi-faceted. Because of its complexity, it can be viewed as a problem of organized crime, illegal migration, labour and human rights.

Numbers of Trafficking in Human Beings

From the 1990s and onwards the number of trafficked people has risen dramatically (25). Trafficking in human beings involves traffic in men, women, and children (26). Since there is no unified database on trafficking in human beings (27), there are no unified reported numbers of trafficked persons annually in the world. Thus the numbers vary from organization to organization (28). There are a couple of reasons why there is so little and so different data on trafficking in human beings. One of the reasons is that trafficking is an unreported crime, thus the majority of cases stay undiscovered. Furthermore, a number of trafficking cases get mixed up with smuggling, intentionally or unintentionally, by police and judicial organs, and finally different organizations collect different data due to priority assessment criteria, funding, etc, and, data is seldom shared among different organizations, or even within different government agencies (29). In addition to the absence of a unified database on trafficking in human beings there is another problem connected to the efforts to determine accurate numbers. The clandestine nature of the practice (30) creates problems for the detection and documentation of trafficking cases (31). Also, the fact is that the fight against trafficking on an international level is a relatively recent effort.

Though precise numbers are difficult to determine, whether one chooses the high or low estimates it is clear that the scale is significant if not enormous. According to the *Comprehensive European Strategy Trafficking in Women, Information-sheet*, at the world levels the numbers reach up to 700,000 women and children being moved across international borders each year (32). The U.S. Government estimations are higher than those of the EU and amount to approximately 800,000-900,000 people trafficked annually across international borders(33) worldwide (34). Trafficking in women for the purposes of sexual exploitation is a constantly growing problem around the world. The exact numbers of this practice remain unknown since few women are ready to report the traffickers to the police. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) estimates that about 500,000 annually are trafficked from poorer regions into the OSCE region (35). The highest numbers presented are those of the United Nations. They estimate that four million people are trafficked throughout the world annually each year (36).

It is essential to note that these numbers refer to international trafficking and that most of the internal trafficking data is not available or inaccessible since only recently international organizations and some governments started collecting data on internal trafficking. Speaking about the numbers of trafficking and being aware of the discrepancies and difficulties surrounding the issue, as said before, a question can then be raised as why international organizations have not yet created a central database on trafficking, when there is a tremendous need for shared central database on trafficking. The creation of such a database is a fact *sine qua non* for the successful fight against trafficking (37).

As pointed out, due to on-going globalization the trans-national organized crime groups have access to various segments of the formal and informal sectors of societies regardless of boundaries. In order to fight these groups the response has to be trans-national as well, meaning access of government agencies involved in the fights on four levels from which the third is of essential importance for this paper (38).

The first level indicates the extent of the trafficking (the size of the problem indicates how big the response should be); the second level represents the nature of the problem (who is the target group of trafficking); the third level is the impact that trafficking has on society and on its victims (human rights violations); and lastly, the fourth level determines the response to trafficking (39).

Countries of Origin, Transit and Destination

The distinction between the countries of origin, transit and destination can be regarded as a third indicator to trafficking in humans. In practice this distinction is very important because it determines the strategies and measures created and implemented. For example, different strategies are necessary in the countries of origin than the ones needed in the countries of destination, with respect to prevention of trafficking and protection of the victims of trafficking (40). Therefore, the importance of this distinction lies at the assessment of the strategies that are already being used and that will be used in combating trafficking in women. In other words, in order to create a successful strategy to combat trafficking, one can not disregard that trafficking is a practice that inevitably involves several countries on different levels. According to Helga Konrad, the OSCE Special Representative on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings:

> "Since human trafficking makes up a whole chain of criminal behaviour, I would address it as a continuum from countries of origin to countries of destination involving all the relevant factors…" (41)

In principle, trafficking routes flow from the poor countries to the richer ones. This factor results from the economic distinction between the countries of origin and destination (42), since this trans-national trade in women feeds on the supply from the countries of origin and the demand coming from the destination countries (43). In the mid-eighties until 1989, the majority of women came from Thailand and the French Overseas territories, but after the fall of the Iron Curtain more and more women came from Eastern Europe (44). Today it is still believed that the overwhelming majority of trafficked people come from the countries of South and Southeast Asia, such as Thailand and the Philippines (45), whereas the biggest new source of trafficking for forced prostitution/sexual exploitation are the states of the former Soviet Union Newly Independent States (NIS), such as Ukraine (46), Belarus, Latvia, and the Russian Federation and the states of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) (47). In addition to these as countries of origin are the countries of Latin America especially the Dominican Republic, then, the Caribbean, and fi-

nally, Africa (48). Today the major countries of destination are the countries of Western Europe (49), North America, North Africa, the United Arab Emirates, Turkey, and Israel. Asia, apart from being known for trafficking humans internationally, *i.e.* across borders, is also infamous for the amount of internal trafficking which constitutes a significant number of trafficking cases in general.

The CEE (Central Eastern Europe) and SEE (South Eastern Europe) regions that are situated *en route* to destination regions, such as Western Europe, even though predominately known as transition regions, also qualify as destination countries and also but to a lesser extent as countries of origin (50). Some of the worlds most infamous trafficking routes lead through the Balkan: "the Balkan route is one of the best known routes used by organized crime and human traffickers-where victims are sold to brothels and on markets, and moved on to Albania, through Slovenia, Hungary and into EU (51)." Other well-known routes are the so-called Eastern route through Poland, starting in Belarus and Moscow, and the Central route that leads from Central Europe via Croatia and Slovenia into Austria and so on deeper into the EU (52).

However, even though practice shows that the trafficking vector goes from poor to rich countries, still one has to take this indicator with reserve because it would "not be adequate to understand trafficking in humans only [from] the divide between the industrialized world and the one still struggling with mass poverty; because the status of countries can change rapidly (53)." What can be concluded by this survey of the trafficking routes is that no country is safe and immune when it comes to trafficking, regardless of whether it is a country of destination, origin or transit.

Destination countries, in the past, some even today, have tried to fight this phenomenon by introducing a myriad of tight and rigorous customs policies that were to stop the traffickers and keep the trafficking victims beyond their borders. Some of the countries of origin introduced discriminatory practices meant to target female migration such as Philippines' policy of restraining women from travel abroad by introducing a requirement for permission of parents or a male relative that significantly restricts and violates women's right to migrate (54). And most of the transit countries, such as the Republic of Macedonia have on many occasions denied that they have a problem with internal trafficking in women (55).

However, crucial in preventing trafficking is addressing the previously described factors that push women to migrate, as without such a strategy the supply keeps constant and increases. Moreover, taken from the victim's perspective, differentiating between the occurrences experienced by victims of trafficking in their country of origin, prior to the trafficking process, and during the trafficking process in the transit country and the destination country describes the variety of human rights violated in each of the stages of trafficking determined geographically. For example, different rights get violated at different stages.

So, trafficking is on the rise. It is being publicized and put on the national and international agendas, but the fact remains that so far unified action has not been introduced among countries of destination, origin, and transit. The countries of transit and destination do not usually perceive the problem in the same manner as the countries of origin. They tend to solve the problem on a same level as the origin counties do, hence leading to serious gaps in addressing the issue on an international level (56). To that end it be concluded that there is need of serious reconsideration of the prevention strategies applied so far *vis-a-vis* trafficking in humans in general and trafficking in women in particular depending on the different stage of trafficking.

Women and Girls as Vulnerable Groups to Trafficking

Trafficking as a Gender-Based Practice

Human beings are trafficked for several purposes: bonded labour markets, such as sweat shops and similar forms of industrial labour exploitation, agricultural plantations, domestic service or domestic servitude and sexual exploitation (57). Even though men and children are trafficked too, the majority of trafficked people in the world consist of women and girls for the purposes of sexual exploitation (58). In order to illustrate the aforementioned, it is necessary to point out the enormous differences in percentage between trafficked girls and boys for the purposes of forced prostitution:

> "Trafficking in females younger than 18 years old-mostly for prostitution-accounts for approximately 30 percent of total trafficking. Males under 18 years old account for a very small fraction, approximately 2 percent." (59)

Each year thousands of women are trafficked across international borders and within country borders, forced to live and work under slavery-like conditions as prostitutes, domestic workers, sweat shop workers and wives (60). Due to the female's inferior and vulnerable status in most societies the harsh reality of the practice renders trafficking in humans as predominately a gender-marked practice (61). In that direction is Kathleen Barry's observation that trafficking and prostitution as highly gendered systems are a product of structural inequalities between men and women (62). Consequently, vulnerability comes from "their status as women as well as from other factors such as youth, a low level of education, a lack of sophistication, mental retardation, family coercion, poverty, sheer desperation, or a combination of these factors (63)," as described by Pring, a woman from Soi Dao (Thailand) about women forced into prostitution: "by necessity, such as separation from husband, being widowed, the poverty of their parents, or debt (64)."

As will be pointed out in the text below: "the lack of rights afforded to women serves as the primary causative factor at the root of both women's migration and in trafficking women (65)." These root factors of trafficking in women explain why women make up the majority of trafficked persons and can be grouped in three major categories: economic, social and cultural, and legal factors.

Economic Factors

The main economic problems that encourage trafficking in women are the poverty and unemployment that have led to the worldwide feminization of poverty and the increasing economic hardship of women. Lack of opportunities for the young generation of women, low income, and division of population into rich and poor, push women to migrate in search for jobs. Women also face discrimination that limits their employment opportunities. In the employment setting, women are often the last hired and first fired (66).

In the Russian Federation women represent between 70 and 95 percent of the unemployed (67). In 1994 the former Minister of Labour, Genady Melykian, stated that the government would disregard female unemployment until the day when all Russian men are employed (68). According to Marina Piskalova, President of the Russian Association of Crises for Women: "there is no hope in Russia for the future of women. They are now willing to take a risk without even thinking about the effects (69)." A survey conducted by

IOM showed that 40% of women in Ukraine are at risk of becoming victims of trafficking due to their interest to migrate in search for a job abroad (70). Even though we take the NIS as an example, unfortunately these and similar conditions faced by women are every-day realities in many counties throughout the world.

The Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action brought at the World Conference on Human Rights affirms that extreme poverty and social exclusion constitute a violation of human dignity, and urges states to take urgent measures to eliminate those factors (71).

Social and Cultural Factors

Discrimination and gender-based violence as social and cultural diseases contribute greatly to trafficking in women. The main sources of discrimination can be found to be coming from the household, family and the immediate community. It creates low a level of education of women and loss of influence in society that prevents them from influencing and participating in changing discriminatory practices (72).

Gender discrimination within a culture is a strong factor for forcing women and girls into prostitution and falling as victims to trafficking. Girls sold into prostitution have sometimes returned home with honour, because their sale brought money for the family (73). The number of countries in the world where the birth of female children is not as desirable as that of a male, and where education is mostly a male privilege, is not insignificant (74). This type of discrimination on the one hand renders women economically dependent but on the other hand charges them with the duty to support, and take care of elderly parents and other family members, therefore a lot of women who migrated did so to improve the family financial circumstances (75). Furthermore, because it is often the case that girls are not as desired as boys are, families invest less or nothing at all in their future (76).

In some countries women and girls are viewed as sexual property in a religious and cultural context. Under the *Trokosi* system (77) found in West Africa (e.g. Nigeria, Togo, Ghana, Benin) (78), families are known to give female children as young as seven to a shrine in order to atone for a family transgression. The girls are obliged to work and act as wives to the priests, providing sexual services. Religious and cultural traditions in the form of the *Devadasi* system of dedication of young girls to gods and goddesses in some parts of India or the *Devaki* system in Nepal sanctifies and institutionalizes the crime of sexual exploitation of females (79), by offering girls to temples to provide services, including forced prostitution (80).

In Latin America the *machismo*, a cultural tradition that promotes and perpetuates gender disparities in power, allows men as a social group to hold power and to impose it on others, especially women and children. This tradition severely undermines and represses women, and as a factor has contributed greatly to the impoverishment of women, denial of education and subjected them to the worst forms of sexual exploitation within their communities (81). That power often leads to violence and coercion. These hostile conditions have been a prime factor for women and girls from Latin America to seek refuge and better life through migration, legal or illegal elsewhere, usually in the USA (82).

Violence against women is a violation of women's human rights (83). At its most complex, domestic violence exists as a powerful tool of oppression. Violence against women in general, and domestic violence in particular, serve as essential components in societies which oppress women, since violence against women not only derives from but also sustains the dominant gender stereotypes and is used to control women in the one

space traditionally dominated by women, the home (84). This kind of oppression is closely linked to gender discrimination and it poses a serious threat to societies because it marginalizes women, which on the other hand encourages them to seek alternative ways to reach freedom including migration, legal or illegal. In connection to that, the author points out that the Vienna Programme of Action especially calls for:

> "The importance of working towards the elimination of violence against women in public and private life, the elimination of all forms of sexual harassment…the elimination of gender bias in the administration of justice and the eradication of any conflict that may arise between the rights of women and the harmful effects of certain traditional or customary practices, cultural prejudices and religious extremism." (85)

However, as long as women and children are generally exploited and like slaves stripped of all human rights, without the international community of states immediately taking effective action against this and succeeding in eliminating it, it will not be proven that their declarations of women's rights are seriously defended and guaranteed (86). Moreover, the victims of trafficking will not be able to experience the obligations of states as to equal human rights for women as a serious commitment (87).

Legal Factors

Lack of appropriate legislation, failure to implement legislation and public sector corruption are also reasons for women becoming victims of trafficking. Absence of adequate laws that will protect women from sexual harassment and gender-based violence such as domestic violence and/or failure of the states to implement such laws if they exist, propel women to seek salvation in escaping their current situation by migrating in search for better life.

Sexual harassment often goes sidelong with job discrimination, for example in Russia there are no civil or labour laws on sexual harassment, which is extremely common, as seen from Elena's words: "In Russia there is also sexual exploitation at work with no legal protection (88)."

Another way of contributing to trafficking is by so-called efforts to curb trafficking. As mentioned in the text above, restrictive migration policies targeting women (89) not only limit a person's ability to migrate (90), but also contribute greatly to trafficking in women, since desperate women find recourse in illegal means to migrate often falling as a victim to traffickers (91).

The aforementioned factors that contribute to the gender specificity of trafficking (92) derive from the universal and historical presence of laws, policies, customs and practices that justify and promote the discriminatory treatment of women and girls and prevent the application of the entire range of human rights law to women and girls. Having this in mind, it is necessary to recognize that women and girls *per se* are the vulnerable groups when it comes to trafficking and that the gendered character of trafficking pre-determines the myriad of human rights violations perpetrated on the victims of trafficking. The Special Rapporteur Ms. Radhika Coamaraswamy in her report highlights the women-specific character of many violations of human rights committed during the course of trafficking (93).

Bearing this in mind, it is absolutely necessary not to neglect the root factors that encourage trafficking and furthermore, to address them in terms of prevention as pointed out

by the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children in its Article 9 *Prevention of trafficking in persons* (94):

> "4. States Parties shall take or strengthen measures, including through bilateral or multi lateral cooperation, to alleviate the factors that make persons, especially women and children, vulnerable to trafficking, such as poverty, underdevelopment and lack of equal opportunity.
>
> 5. States Parties shall adopt or strengthen legislative or other measures, such as educational, social or cultural measures, including through bilateral or multi lateral cooperation, to discourage the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation of persons, especially women and children, that leads to trafficking."

In a historical perspective trafficking was also recognized as a practice perpetrated mostly if not exclusively on women and girls. In order to understand the origin of that occurrence as previously said, it is important to underline the undeniable link with the discrimination of women mirrored in their treatment by societies as if they were children thus denying the rights attached to adulthood, such as the right to have control over one's own life and body (95).

Conclusion

This article has set bases for further analyses of the issue of trafficking in women. It highlighted the basic indicators of trafficking: the profit, the economic differentiation between countries of origin and destination, through which it showed the magnitude of the practice in contemporary times. Furthermore, though both genders are being trafficked for various purposes, women and girls trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation represents the majority of cases. Therefore, trafficking can be characterized by its gender basis, consequently, the human rights violations occurring in all of the stages of trafficking have a gender dimension as well.

This article also offered a brief survey of the three major factors that contribute to trafficking in women and girls for sexual exploitation: the economic, legal, social and cultural, especially stressing the influence of gender discrimination that underlines all of the three factors, and violence against women.

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The Heterogeneous Equilibrium of Al (III) ion with Phtalic Acid and Sulphosalicilic Acid

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Abstract

This paper examines the precipitation of Al (III) ion in water solutions of $AlCl_3$ (10 mM, 5 mM and 3 mM) with phtalic acid and sulphosalicilic acid (100 mM, 10 mM and 1 mM) in constant ionic strength of 0,6 M NaCl. The region of concentrations clearer solutions were found and also where the solid phase is presented is determined. Solid phase is analyzed by means of elementary chemical analysis, IR spectroscopy and x-ray diffraction. The isolated compounds are:

Al(III) – phtalic acid	$Al_8(OH)_{18} [C_6H_4(COO)_2]_3 \cdot 5H_2O$
Al(III) – sulphosalicilic acid	$Al_5(OH)_{13}[C_6H_3OH(COO)SO_3] \cdot 2H_2O$

The product of solvability of isolated compounds can be approximately calculated in the solid phases, which is of great importance to better understand the distribution of aluminum in earth and in water.

Introduction

Aluminum is the third most abundant element and the most common metal in the earth's crust, comprising about 8% of the lithosphere (Lide 1997). Its concentration in soils varies widely, ranging from about 0.07 percent by weight or 700 mg/kg (ppm) to over 10 percent by weight or 100,000 mg/kg (ppm) (Shacklette & Boerngen 1984; Sorenson et al. 1974). Data gleaned from texts and literature reviewed by soil scientists, suggest a typical aluminum concentration in soil of 71,000 mg/kg (Frink 1996). Varying concentrations are found in different soil samples taken from the same area and in areas with different vegetation types (Brusewitz 1984; Sorenson et al. 1974). For example, in different soils of Missouri, aluminum concentrations ranged from 4,800 to 58,000 mg/kg (ppm) (USGS

1972). The aluminum content of soils is strongly correlated with its clay content. Aluminum levels in soil also vary with different vegetation types. For example, aluminum levels in the soils of coniferous forests are often higher than in soils of beach forests since coniferous forests tend to have more acid soils (Brusewitz 1984). Aluminum has been identified in soil and sediment samples, respectively. (Haz.Dat.1996). The concentrations of dissolved aluminum in water vary with pH and the humic-derived acid content of the water (Brusewitz 1984). Aluminum is only sparingly soluble in water between pH 6 and pH 8. Because pH of about 95% of naturally-occurring water is between 6 and 9 and since high aluminum concentrations occur in surface water bodies only when pH is < 5, the aluminum concentration in most natural waters is extremely low (Filipek et al. 1987, Snoeyink and Jenkins 1980; Sorenson et al. 1974). Generally, aluminum concentrations in surface waters at pH levels above 5.5 will be< 0.1 mg/L (ppm) (Brusewitz 1984; Miller et al. 1984; Sorenson et al. 1974; Taylor and Symons 1984).

However, even at neutral pH levels, higher aluminum levels have been found in lakes with a high humic acid content (Brusewitz 1984). At lower pH levels, the aluminum content significantly increases because of increased solubility of aluminum oxide and salts in acidic solutions. For example, aluminum has been found at concentrations of up to 90 mg/L (ppm) in tributaries of drain mines containing massive sulfide deposits (Filipek et al. 1987). In heavily contaminated surface waters in a mining region rich with sulfides, the water was highly acidic (pH <3.5) and the levels of soluble aluminum were greater than 2 mmol/L (50 mg/L) (Alvarez et al. 1993). Similarly, surface water samples contaminated with acidic mine drainage collected at seven different locations in the vicinity of abandoned coal mines in West-central Indiana had aluminum levels of 6.0 to 269 mg/L (Allen et al. 1996). The pH ranged from 2.1 to 3.4 at these sites.

Exposure to aluminum is inevitable due to its natural abundance in the earth's crust and its many uses. The intake of aluminum is mainly oral, and the major sources of human exposure to aluminum are drinking water, food residues, cooking utensils, food and beverage packaging, antacid formulations and antiperspirant formulations (Marquis 1989). Aluminum is present in the human diet, in amounts varying from relatively low concentrations in animal products to relatively high concentrations in some processed foods. However, the gastrointestinal absorption of aluminum is low (<0.1%) and renal elimination is very effective in removing aluminum in healthy individuals (Muller et al. 1993b). Aluminum is inhaled from air primarily as aluminosilicates associated with airborne dust particles (Koo and Kaplan 1988). Since a large aqueous concentration of aluminum (i.e., >100 mg/L) can only occur when the pH is < 5 (Sorenson et al. 1974), the levels of aluminum in most natural waters (pH>6) are not expected to be of significant concern to human health. Miller et al.(1984) reported that the median aluminum levels in finished drinking water throughout the United States varied from 0.026 mg/L to 0.161 mg/L (ppm). More recently, (Schenck et al. 1989) reported concentrations of aluminum in finished drinking water in various regions of the United States were highly variable, ranging from undetectable to 1.029 mg/L (ppm). The median aluminum concentrations in drinking water from 346 surface water and 35 groundwater sources were 0.06 and 0.02 mg/L, respectively. A correlation between aluminum and sulphate, Mn, and pH were ascribed to the effects of acid precipitation.

Materials and methods

To preparation solutions these substance are used: AlCl$_3$, phtalic acid and sulphosalicilic acid, NaCl, NaOH and the puffer solutions. Concentrated solutions are kept

in dish glasses at room temperature; meantime watered solutions are prepared fresh for each series of precipitate systems. The preparation of precipitate systems is based on Tezhak's method (Tezhak et al.1951). To determine the precipitation diagram of Al (III) ion with concentration $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M and the changeable concentration of phtalic acid and sulphosalicilic acid, various series are prepared. It goes also for Al (III) ion with concentration $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M and $3 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M. Acids concentration varies from $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ M to $1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M measure for each Al(III) ion concentration. To all series, on one hand, is added NaCl in order for the general ionic strength to be 0,6 M and on the other hand, NaOH solution to increase pH value gradually. The precipitation systems are thermo stated in 25°C in 24 hours. Afterwards precipitation systems are examined to prove precipitation border between solid phase and the clear solution, then the pH value is measured beyond the precipitation. Samples in characteristic points of precipitation diagram are prepared for analysis in larger quantities. Later filtration gets inexpressive with 96 % ethyl alcohol (to eliminate Cl$^-$) and dried.

To these precipitations is recorded infra – red spectrum , they are verified by means of roentgenographic diffraction and analysis is done for C, H and N, whereas the quantity of aluminum is sized by means of gravimetric analysis. Later, based on complete data gross formula is proposed for every isolate compound.

Results and discussion

Analysis of solid phase Al (III) – phtalic acid

Precipitation of Al (III) ion with phtalic acid is examined to get the concentration of Al (III) ion $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M; $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M and $3 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M, and concentration of phtalic acid $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$M - $1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M. From the precipitation diagram of Al (III) ion $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M with phtalic acid $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$M-$1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M (fig.1) we can see that the concentration of Al (III) ion $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M and concentration of phtalic acid $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ M, precipitates down in pH = 4,95. If the concentration of phtalic acid lessens under $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M respectively $1 \cdot 10^{-3}$M, the precipitation starts to drag down even lower pH value (4, 29 respectively 4, 49).

It is noticed that precipitation diagram has not changed during the stand on dateless, which is why the time of 24 hours is taken as the time in which the balance for other quantification examinations is achieved. The precipitation is used for the analysis of solid phase. After the precipitation has been prepared in quantity and dried up, necessary chemical analysis has been done such as infra- red spectroscopy, elementary analysis and is registered roentgenogram. By the complete data introduced to table 1, gross formula of aluminum compound with phtalic acid it's proposed ,which is synthesized from sampling with this content: (Al, L, pH); ($1 \cdot 10^{-2}$M, $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$M , 5,47).

Table 1: Analytical data of solid phase in AlCl$_3$ – phtalic acid system NaCl 0,6M-NaOH

Figure 1: The precipitation diagram of AlCl$_3$ = $1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M with phtalic acid.

Infra red spectrum of compound $Al_8(OH)_{18}[C_6H_4(COO)_2]_3 \cdot 5H_2O$ differentiates from infra red spectrum to pure phtalic acid (fig. 2; 3). Main peak of carbonyl groups at pure

phtalic acid is found in 1694 cm^{-1}, whereas at consentaneous compound of Al this peak is conveyed in lower value of wave numbers (1558 cm^{-1}), that signifies incoming to coor-

Proposed Formula	Findings			Computed			Loss During Calcinations
	%Al	%C	%H	%Al	%C	%H	
$Al_8(OH)_{18} L_3 \cdot 5H_2O$	19,38	26,23	3,60	19,56	26,08	3,62	63,37%
L = phtalic acid, $C_6H_4(COOH)_2$							
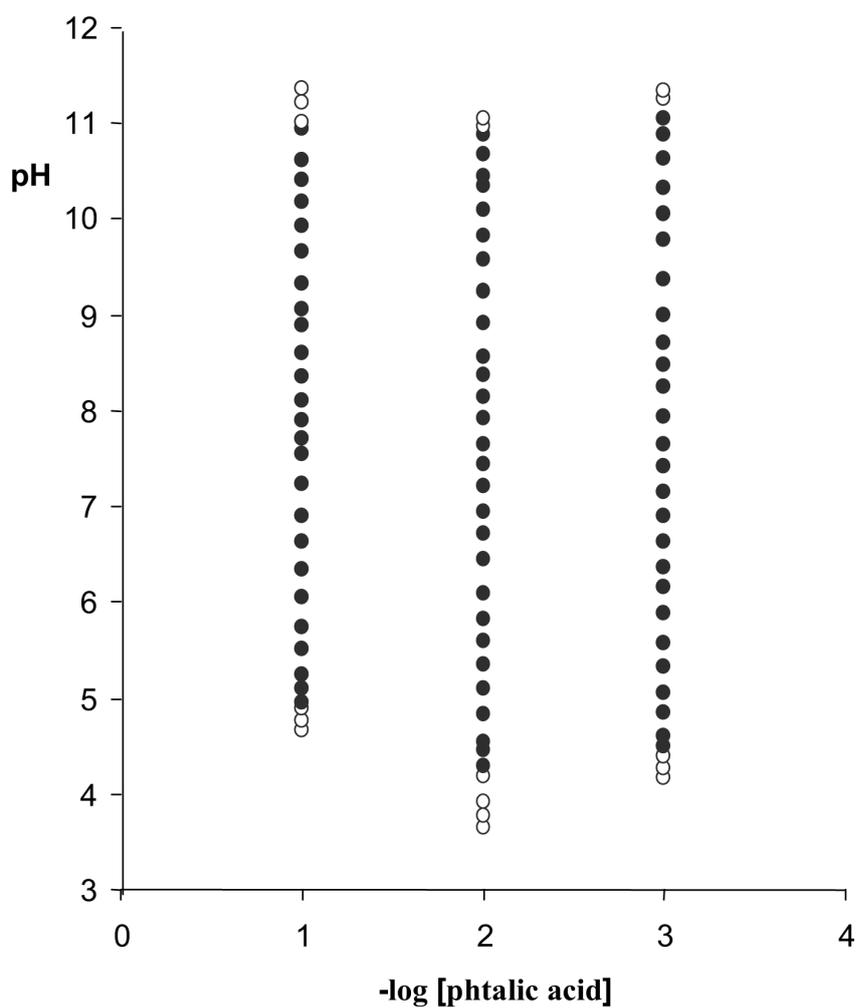
dinate with COOH groups of phtalic acid (A.D.Gross 1985).
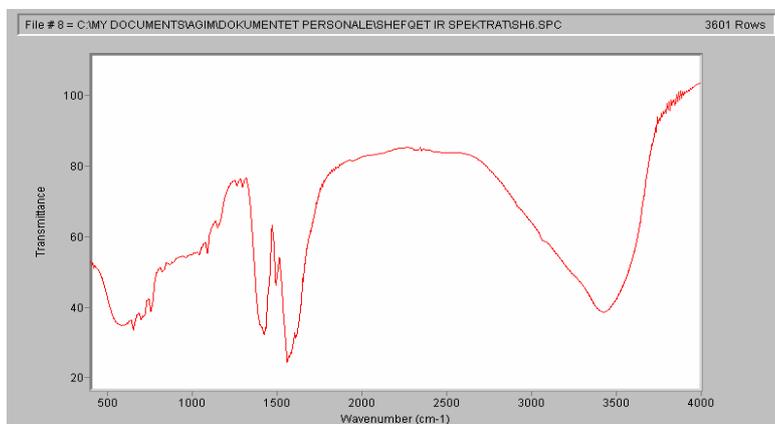
Figure 2: Infra red spectrum of $Al_8(OH)_{18}[C_6H_4(COO)_2]_3 \cdot 5H_2O$.
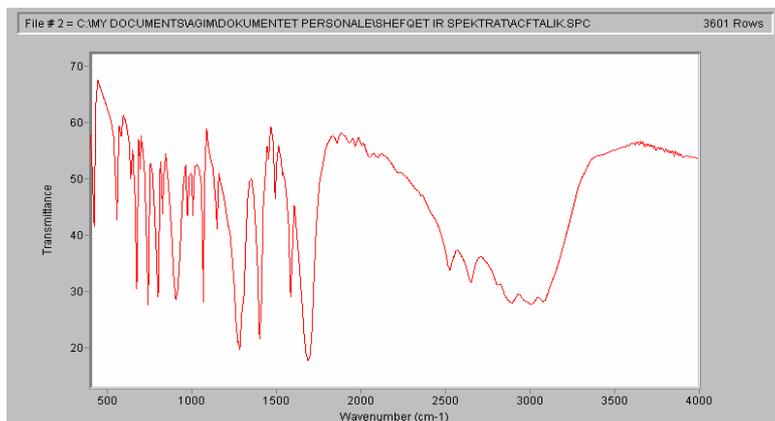
Figure 3. Infra red spectrum of phtalic acid.

Analysis of solid phase Al (III) – sulphosalicilic acid

Precipitation of Al (III) ion with sulphosalicilic acid was examined with concentration of Al (III) ion $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M; $5\cdot10^{-3}$ M and $3\cdot10^{-3}$ M and various concentrations of $1\cdot10^{-1}$ M $-1\cdot10^{-3}$ M, by adding NaCl solution in order for the general ionic strength to be 0,6 M and various concentrations of NaOH and HCl solution to adjust the pH value. From precipitation diagram of Al (III) ion with sulphosalicilic acid (fig.4) we can see that in concentration $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M of Al (III) ion and in concentration of sulphosalicilic acid $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M, the precipitation begins in pH=4,63. Under lower concentration of sulphosalicilic acidin, respectively $1\cdot10^{-3}$M, precipitation lowers in value (4,47).

It is noticed that precipitation diagram is not changed during the waiting period, which is why the time of 24 hours is taken, because balance is achieved for after quantity research.

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To analyze the solid phase, a sampling quantity of solid phase is prepared and after drying up, necessary chemical analysis, infra red and elementary analysis have been done. By complete ratings which are introduced in table 2, gross formula of Al compound with sulphosalicilic acid is proposed with this content:(Al, L, pH); ($1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M ,$1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ M, 5,18).

Table 2: Analytical data of solid phase in AlCl$_3$ – sulphosalicilic acid– NaCl 0,6 M – NaOH

Figure 4: The precipitation diagram AlCl$_3$ = 1 10^{-2} M with sulphosalicilic acid.

Infra red spectrum of Al$_5$(OH)$_{13}$[C$_6$H$_3$OH(COO)SO$_3$] 2H$_2$O differentiates from infra red spectrum of pure sulphosalicilic acid (figs. 5 and 6). The main peak at carbonyl group (C=O) in pure sulphosalicilic acid is found in 1674 cm^{-1}, whereas at consentaneous com-

Proposed Formula	Findings				Computed				Loss During Calcinations
	%Al	%C	%H	%S	%Al	%C	%H	%S	
Al$_5$(OH)$_{13}$L·2H$_2$0	22,75	12,85	3,25	4,97	22,20	13,81	3,45	5,26	57,02%
L = sulphosalicilic acid, C$_6$H$_3$OHCOOHSO$_3$H									
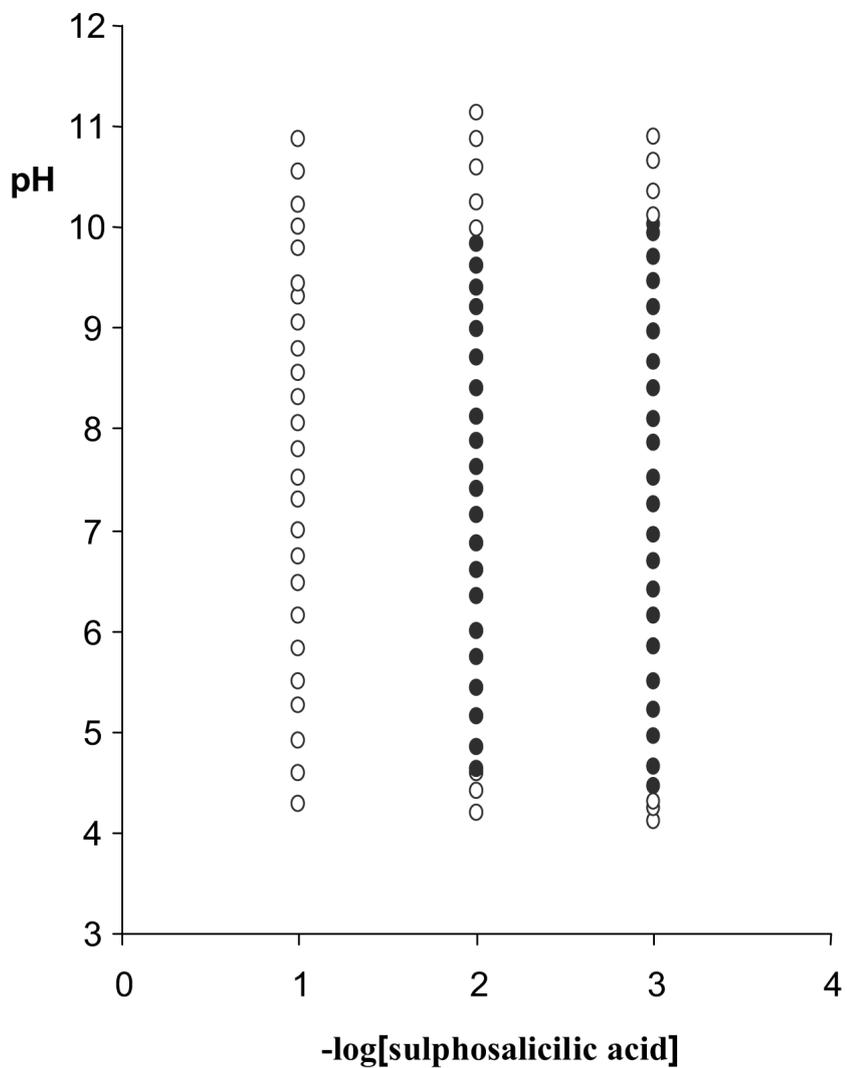
pound with aluminum this bond is conveyed at lower value of boiling point (1621 cm^{-1}), that signifies incoming pending consentaneous at COOH groups of sulphosalicilic acid with aluminum (A.D.Gross 1985).
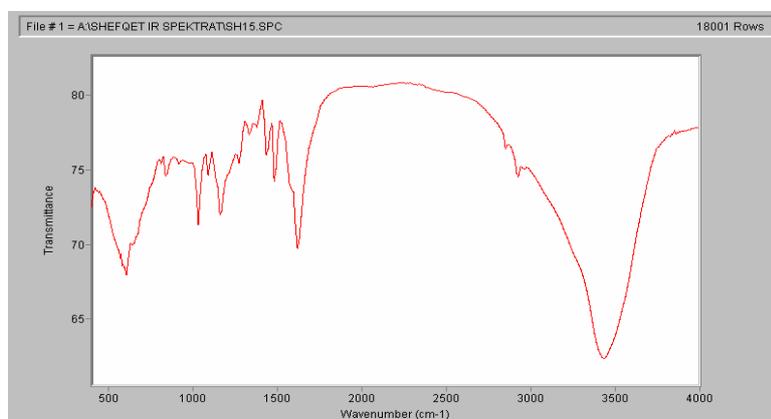
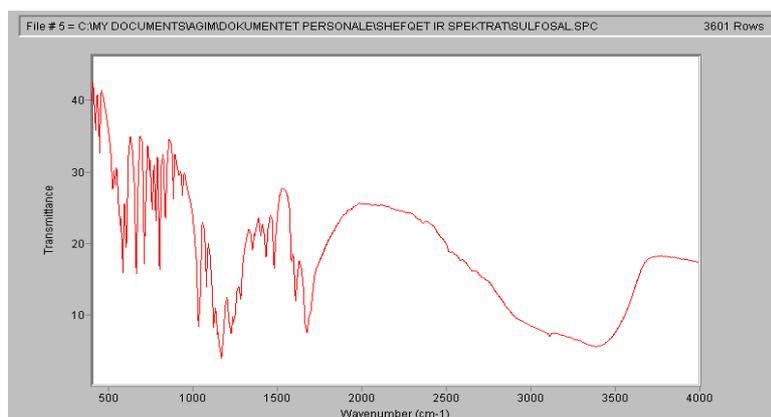Figure 5: Infra red spectrum of $Al_5(OH)_{13}[C_6H_3OH(COO)SO_3] \cdot 2H_2O$ compound.

Figure 6: Infra red spectrum of sulphosalicilic acid.

Conclusion

During the last decades, with the impetuous development of industry and use in the industrialized part of the word of more fossil fuel containing sulphur, the increase of acidity in the surface water has become obvious. In different rocky regions, the above influences the growth of geochemical dispersion of aluminum and the concentration of Al (III) ion in natural water. Increased concentration of aluminum in water of rivers and lakes has indicated that the presence of the Al (III) ion causes damage to fish and other liuine creatures (Driscoll, et al. 1988, 1990).

To have knowledge of characteristics of the Al (III) ion in water systems is necessary in order to examine the toxic character of aluminum and also to understand aluminum dispersal in land and in natural waters. Plenty of molecules and ions with organic and inorganic origin are located in natural waters. Kations in natural waters can exist like complex compounds, meantime different anions in natural waters derive as a result of human activity (phosphates and carboxylic acids) or lie as natural matter (humus acids and ami-

noacids). The importance of organic ligands on aluminum complexion in natural water raised the interest of many researchers.

Precipitation of Al (III) ion with phtalic acid and sulphosalicilic acid is examined at the concentration of Al (III) ion $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M; $5\ 10^{-3}$ M and $3\ 10^{-3}$ M and different concentration of phtalic acid and sulphosalicilic acid in $1\cdot10^{-1}$ M $-\ 1\ 10^{-3}$ M, adding NaCl solution in order for the general ionic strength to be 0,6 M, and the solution of NaOH with different concentrations for the regulation of pH value. From the precipitating diagram of Al (III) ion with phtalic and sulphosalicilic acid is noticeable that regions of solid precipitations and clear solutions are formed, according to pH value.

Based on experimental examination was found that at concentration of Al (III) ion = $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M, of phtalic acid $1\cdot10^{-1}$ M and value of pH = 5,47, aluminum with phtalic acid reacts by forming the compound $Al_8(OH)_{18}[C_6H_4(COO)_2]_3\ 5H_2O$ in proportion to Al : L = 8 : 3.

With the sulphosalicilic acid aluminum forms the compound $Al_5(OH)_{13}[C_6H_3OH(COO)SO_3]\ 2H_2O$ in proportion to Al : L = 5 : 1, at concentration of Al (III) ion = $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M, sulphosalicilic acid $1\cdot10^{-2}$ M and value of pH of the solid sample is 5,18.

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Synthesis of Some Aspirin Heteroaryl Derivatives of Coumarin

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Abstract

By the interaction of 3-amino pyrazole, 3-amino-5-mercapto-1,2,4-triazole, 2-amino-5 ethilmercapto-1,3,4-thiadiazole, 2-amino-5-ethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole, 5-amino- 1,2,3,4-tetrazole, 2-amino-6-fluor benzothiazole and 2-amino- 3-hidroxy pyridine, respectively, on chloro acetylsalicylic acid (1), the corresponding o- heteroaryl- 2 acetoxy benzamide (2-7) have been isolated in very good yields.

Introduction

Although aspirin was found more than 100 years ago by Felix Hoffman [1-4], even nowa-days it represents an interesting area of study by chemists, pharmacists, doctors, as a result of its physiological activity[5-11].

In this project we considered optimum possibilities of synthesis of the O-acetylheteroarylamides starting from chlor acetylsalicylic acid (1) and the appropriate heteroarylamine. Some of these obtained amides were treated with answer of 15-25% HCl.

Experimental

Melting points were determined with a Buechi apparatus.

The IR spectra were recorded for KBr pellets with a Perkin Elmer Spectrum BX FTIR spectrophotometer.

^{1}H and ^{13}C-NMR Bruker Avance DPX 300 at 300 MHz for 1H and 75.5 MHz for ^{13}C nucleus, using DMSO-d6 and CDCl3, with TMS as the internal standard, as solvents.

General procedure for preparation of Heteroaryl - 2 acetoxybenzamides

The solution of chlor acetylsalicylic acid 1g (0,005 mol) in dioxan (20 ml) and an appropriate equivalent portion of heterocyclic amino derivatives, in presence of catalytically amount of triethylamine, were refluxed for 2-8 hours.

After cooling, the precipitated solid was filtered off, washed with dioxan and dried.

3-Pyrazolyl - 2 acetoxybenzamide (2):

Reaction was achieved at t=4°C, reaction mixture was in ice bath, later filtered and washed off with cold dioxan, then crystallized from mixture of acetone: ethanol (2:1) and gained product with pale yellow color.

> Yield 82%, M.P. 193-195°C. IR (KBr): 3256 (N-Has); 3173 (N-Hs); 3032 (C-Har); 1738 (C=0,0COCH$_3$); 1650(CO,-CONH); 1584-1472 (C=Car); 1456 (CH$_3$as); 1433 (CH$_3$s);1300 (CC(=O)-O, acetate); 1239 (O-C…..Cas); 797-750 (C-Car).

> ^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6):10,8s (1H,NH);10,3s (1H,CONH); 8,1-6.5m (6H,ar);1,2-1,06s (3H,CH$_3$).^{13}C-NMR (DMSO-d6):(39,52-46.3d); 168.23; 165.55; 158.95; 147.98; 147.35; 134.51; 130.48; 129.71; 120.12; 118.04; 117.81; 23.94.C$_{12}$H$_{10}$O$_3$N$_3$ (244.07) C 59.01; H 4.12; N17.20 Exp. C 59.52; H 4.33; N 17.81%.

5- mercapto-3-(1, 2, 4-triazolyl)-2 acetoxybenzamide (3):

Reaction was achieved at boiling t°, was refluxed for 8 hours later filtered, washed off with dioxin, then crystallized from DMF and gained brown product.

> Yield 72% M.P. 215-217°CIR (KBr) : 3256 (N-Has); 3200 (NHs); 3052 (CHar); 2936 (CHal); 1690 (CO,OCOCH$_3$); 1639 (CO,CONH); 1609-1470 (C=Car); 1279 (CH$_3$as); 1242 (CH$_3$s); 1182 (CC(=O)-Oac); 1124(O-C…Cas); 756 (C-C ar); ^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6): 1159 s (1H, NH); 10,96s (1H, CONH); 7,97-6,72 m (4H,ar); 4.08-4.01 s (1H, SH); 3.57-1,23 s (3H, CH$_3$). C11H10O$_3$N4S 278.08: C 47, 47; H 3.62; N 20.13Exp: C 47.88; H 3.56; N 20, 44%.

5-ethylmercapto-2-(1, 3, 4-thiadiazolyl)-2-acetoxybenzamide (4):

Reaction was achieved at boiling t°, was refluxed for 15 min. filtered, washed off with acetonitrile then crystallized from ethanol and gained yellow product.

> Yielded 87%, M.P. 165-167°CIR (KBr): 3248 (NHas); 3163 (NHs); 3052 (CHar); 1699 (C=O, OCOCH$_3$); 1674 (C=O, -CONH), 1604-1460 (C=Car), 1460 (CH$_3$ar), 1443 (CH$_3$s), 1254 (CC (=0)-Oac); 1237 (O-C…. Cas); 797-750 (C-Car); 645(-C-S-C-).

^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6): 12.5s (1H, NH); 7.96-7.03m (4H,ar); 3.2-2.51d (CH$_2$,C$_2$H$_5$); 1.37s (6H,2CH$_3$).^{13}C-NMR (DMSO-d6) : (39.52-46.30); 168.23; 165.55; 158.92; 147.98; 147.35; 134.51; 130.48; 129.71; 120.12; 118.04; 117.81; 23.94 ppm.C$_{13}$H$_{13}$O$_3$N$_3$S$_2$ (323,39): C48.28; H4.05; N12.99 Exp. C48.10; H.4.42; N12.39%.

5-tetrazobyl-2-acetoxybenzamide (5):

Reaction was achieved at boiling t°, was refluxed for 4 hours, filtered, washed off with dioxan, ether, then crystallized from DMF and gained white product.

Yield 80% M.P. > 250°C (degradation) IR (KBr): 3385 (NHas); 3291 (NHs); 2977 (CH); 1824 (CO, OCOCH$_3$); 1677(-CO, CONH); 1586-1458 (C=Car); 1385 (CH$_3$as); 1370 (CH$_3$s); 1305(CC (=O)-Oac); 1290 (O-C…. Cas); 754 (C-Car); ^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6): 9.99s (1H, CONH); 8,01s (1H, NH); 7.99-6.80m (4H,ar); 3.9-1.09s (3H, CH$_3$).C$_{10}$H$_9$O$_3$N$_5$ (247.213), C48.58; H 3.66; N 28.32 Exp. C 49.20; H 3.62; N 28.72%.

6-fluor-2-benzothiazolyl-2-acetoxybenzamide (6):

Reaction was achieved at room t°, was refluxed for 2 hours, filtered, washed off with acetonitrile then crystallized from DMF and gained yellow product.

Yield 85% M.P. 304-306°C.IR(KBr): 3375 (N-Has); 3213 (NHs); 3057 (CHar); 1763 (C=O,OCOCH$_3$); 1643 (CO, CONH); 1483 (CH$_3$as); 1465 (CH$_3$s); 1600-1532 (C=Car); 1250 (CC(=O-Oac); 1200 (O-C….Cas); 767-755 (C-Car); 718-531 (C-F).

^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6): 9.07s (1H, CONH); 7.94-6.52m (7H,ar); 2.99-2.26s (3H, CH$_3$).^{13}C-NMR (DMSO-d6):(39.57-41.24); 180.80; 161.19; 158.57; 158.20; 149.40; 144.60; 135.60; 131.31; 120.52; 118.09; 117.77; 115.47; 115.15; 105.44; 109.08.C$_{16}$H$_{11}$O$_3$N$_2$SF (330.33) C58.17; H 3.35; N 8.48; Exp. C 58.46; H 3.52; N 8.82%.

3-hidroxy-2-pyrydinil-2-acetoxybenzamide (7):

Reaction was achieved at boiling t°, was refluxed for 3 hours, filtered, washed off with acetonitrile then crystallized from mixture of acetone: ethanol and gained yellow to brown product.

Yield : 81% M.P. 261-163°CIR (KBr): 3444 (OH); 3202 (NH); 1668 (C=O,-OCOCH$_3$); 1556 (CO, CONH); 1512-1434 (C=Car); 1398 (CH$_3$as); 1384 (CH$_3$s); 1171 (CC(=O) – Oac); 1069 (O-C….Cas); 805 (C-Car).^{1}H-NMR (DMSO-d6):10.47-10.38 s (1H, CONH); 7.57-7.23m (7H,ar); 4.36,s (1H, OH); 2.51s (3H, CH$_3$).C$_{13}$H$_{12}$O$_4$N$_2$ (272.258) C61.76; H 4.44; N 10.28 Exp. C 61.09; H 4.71; N 10.05%.

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this paper is to present preparation of several condensed compounds of type heteroaryl-2- acetoxybenzamide.

Chloro acetylsalicylic acid (1) was prepared by the action of PCl_5 with acetylsalicylic acid in dry petroleter (in system protected from moisture).

New compounds (2-7) were obtained in reaction of (1) with amino derivatives of heterocyclic compounds in presence of accepting base thriethylamine:

(1)

Diagram 1

(2)

(3)
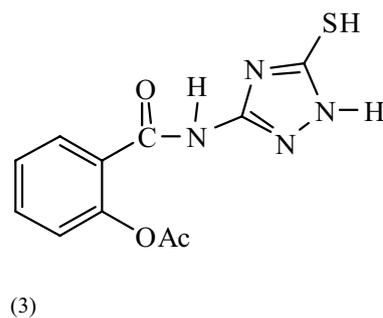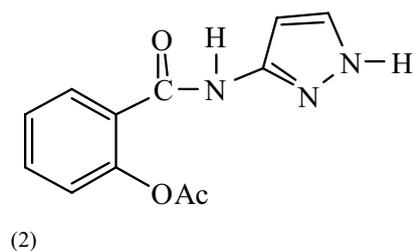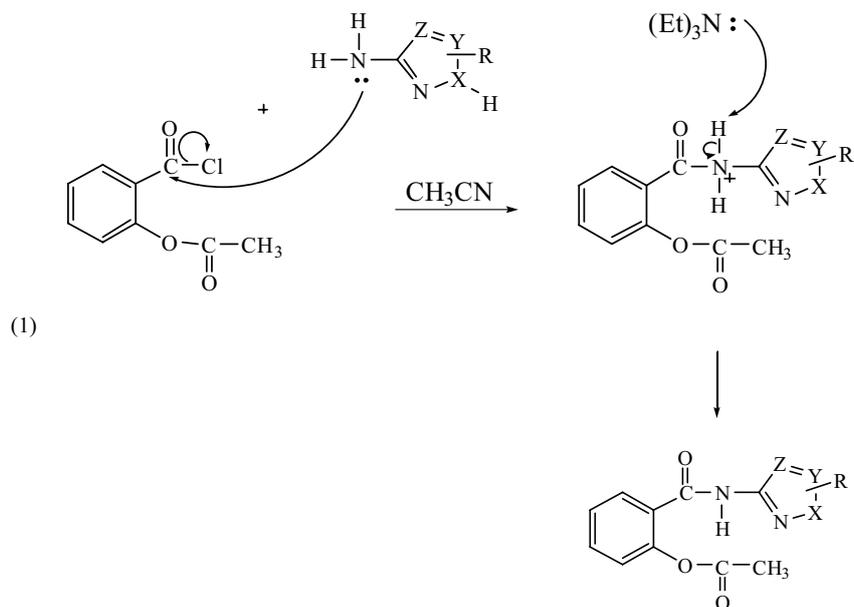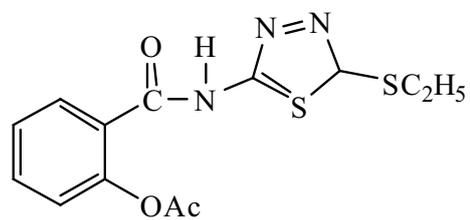
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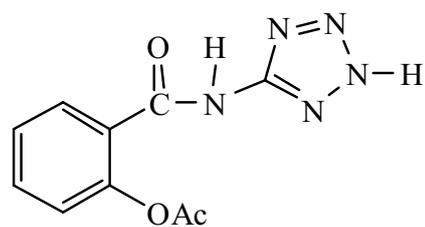
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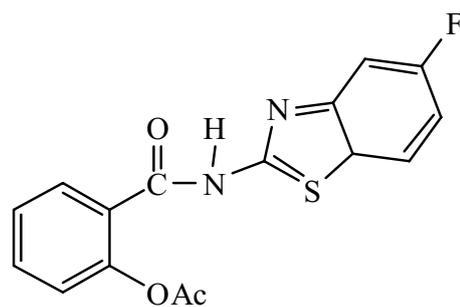
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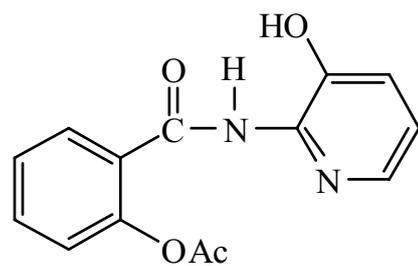
(7)

Structure of obtained compounds (2-7) was determined from spectral analysis IR, ^{1}H-NMR, ^{13}C-NMR and elementary analysis.

In IR spectra of (2-7) analyzed compounds we can see characteristic bands in region 3385-3202 cm^{-1},corresponding to (N-H) asymmetric stretch and in 3213-3163 cm [-1] there is another band from (N-H) symmetric stretch.

Vibration of (C-H) aromatic bonds are visible through the medium bands in the region 3057-2977cm^{-1}. In 1824-1668 cm^{-1} there is characteristic band for (C=O) vibration from carbonyl group of acetyl group (-OCOCH$_3$), and (C=O) vibrations from amid group are visible in 1677-1566 cm^{-1}.

In [1] H – NMR spectra of gained compounds there are signals in expected positions, 12,5-9,07 ppm as singlet, characteristic for protons from – CONH group.

Signals as multiplet that come from aromatic protons can bee in 8, 10-6, 50 ppm.

From ^{13}C-NMR spectra we can see signals that prove the kind and number of carbon atoms that are present in ring.

Chlor acetylsalicylic acid was prepared by the action of PCl$_5$ with acetylsalicylic acid in dry petrol-ether (in system protected from moisture).

We know that amides of acetylsalicylic acid in acid medium transfer to the corresponding 1, 3-benzoxazine with intermolecular cyclization.

Knowing that our compounds are heteroarylamides of acetylsalicylic acid, in our further studies, some of our new compounds were treated with solution of 15-25% HCl, so we could gain 1, 3 benzoxazine N substituted, as in reaction.
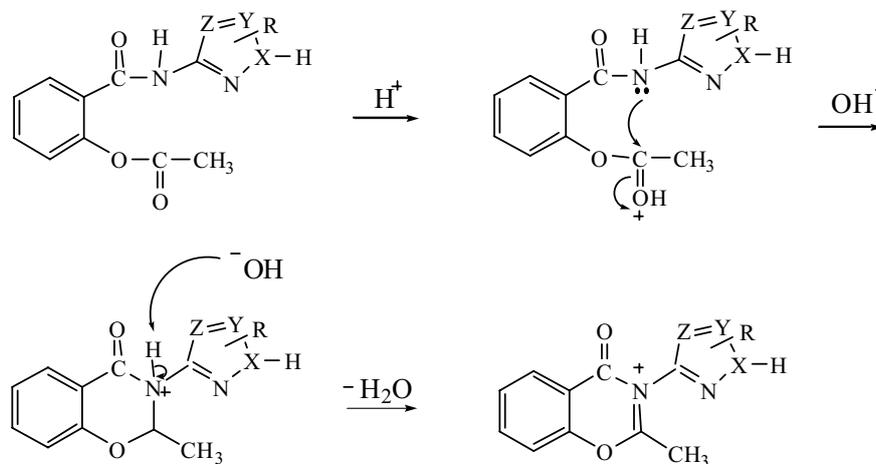
Scheme 2

But, IR and NMR spectra of gained compounds does not match with the structures that we expected but, are identical with those of uncondensed amines, because in ^{1}H-NMR spectra there are no signals in region of aromatic protons.

Conclusion

We obtained six new heterocyclic compounds in relatively good yield, and we suppose that those heteroaryl-2-acetoxybenzamides will show biological activity based on aspirins activity and heterocyclic compounds condensed in position 2.

Acknowledgment

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The Influence of Teacher-Student Relationship on Student's General Academic Performance

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Abstract

It has become a trend recently, especially in countries like Macedonia, and probably in the other countries in the regions, that have been going through periods of transition to look back with nostalgia at the old, traditional schools, with teacher-centered classrooms, in which the teacher was the ultimate authority and the only source of information, and students were passive receivers of information. People do not realize that the changes in society must be followed by changes in all spheres of life and especially in the field of education as its moving force. The purpose of the literature review that follows is to provide possible answers to the question on the influence of teacher-student relationship in the classroom. Do students perform better when they have a friendly teacher or the opposite: Do strict and more reserved teachers stimulate their students more and make them more successful in their studies?

Introduction

It has become a trend recently, especially in countries like Macedonia, and probably in the other countries in the region, that have been going through periods of transition to look back with nostalgia at the old, traditional schools, with teacher-centered classrooms where the teacher was the ultimate authority and the only source of information, and students were passive receivers of information.

Analyzing all possible answers for this phenomenon is a very complex thing. It comprises of observing many factors that have contributed to such a shift in the public opinion. From an absolute appreciation of everything that was coming from the west, and was considered to be new and modern, creative, liberal and democratic and denial of everything that characterized the former socialist system, where discipline and common views were more valued than individuality to looking backwards again and re-examining some of the old values.

It may be thought by some that nowadays students have too much freedom in classrooms in terms of the friendliness and flexibility of the teacher. This freedom, according to them, leads to undermining the authority of the teacher which is considered the most critical factor for student's success, and further on it decreases efforts and engagements by students in their everyday learning activities. The end result is a loud classroom, with disrespectful and irresponsible students, and all this leads to the lowering of academic achievements which questions the whole idea of the role of teachers and education in general. And this might be one of the reasons for the perception that students from Yugoslavia were once ranked very high in the world, where as now, countries like Macedonia,

which made up part of Yugoslavia, are somewhere at the bottom among students from the poorest and most deprived African countries.

The public does not realize that the changes in the society must be followed by changes in all spheres of life and especially in the field of education, as its moving force. As Bobbit (1918, cited in Flinders and Thornton, 2004) says, education must take a pace set, not by itself, but by social progress. And such a change is neither easy, nor simple and it ca not be achieved without side effects, no matter what their immediate causes are. People know that there has been a shift from traditional to interactive ways of teaching/ learning, but they do not realize that schools might not have the conditions to implement all the activities that are characteristic for a new model (because of lack of facilities, crowded classrooms, not having trained teachers, etc.). The blame is usually put on the teachers. It is the teachers who are "guilty" for the bad performance of their students since pupils are not as passive as they were under different teaching methods. Teachers are considered too friendly with their students; they require no discipline in the classroom. "How is it possible that students feel free and make comments or ask questions whenever they want?", is a question often raised on a modern university campus.

The purpose of the literature review that follows is to provide possible answers to the question about the influence of teacher-student relationship in the classroom. Do students perform better when they have a friendly teacher or the opposite: Do strict and more reserved teachers stimulate their students more and make them more successful in their studies?

This question is very relevant for teaching/learning situation at South East European University (SEEU). The university promotes new models of teaching/learning and it has been the first one in the region that has established and applied the changes in the general approach to studies. The key feature of this new model is the teacher-student relationship that is particularly "cherished" by younger teachers and criticized by the more senior ones who taught or still teach at the state universities. That new model is characterized by a more flexible and relaxed teacher-student relationship. This means that students feel free to talk to their teachers, ask questions, offer opinions, discuss, disagree and complain if they are not satisfied with somebody or something. It also means that classrooms at this university, especially if the nature of the subject allows that (language courses or any other courses that are taught in smaller groups) are not quiet any more, but quite opposite; loud and interactive. It also means that if students talk freely to their teachers in the classroom they are also comfortable to do that outside of classroom, in their offices, on campus, via mail, etc.

However, this more "democratic" attitude of students gives food for thinking that they do not take their studies seriously enough. "This could not happen in our time", this is a very frequent comment that senior professors make, "[i]t was known very well then who was who and students respected that!"

As in all cases, both sides have their advantages and disadvantages. It is critical to try to compare and contrast them, analyze the issue more deeply together with the socio-cultural changes and the changes that they have caused in student's consciousness and their attitude towards teaching and learning. Only in this way decisions can be made about what is more appropriate and what brings better academic results for students in the present situation.

The following review is aiming to find out what research has shown so far with regard to the above mentioned issues and offer possible answers about what kind of teacher-student relationship results with student better academic success.

Literature Review

Students' response to their learning experiences and how this makes them feel about themselves is an issue that has been of great concern of theoreticians and educators. It has been pointed out that learners' feelings are as important for their studies as their mental or cognitive abilities. According to Harmer, if students feel hostile towards the subject of study, the material, or the teaching methods, they will be unlikely to achieve much success (Harmer, 2001). The idea is that if students are not relaxed during classes, they do not feel positive and unthreatened, their affective filter is raised and it blocks their understanding and comprehension of what is being taught. This, of course results in their poor performance.

How then can teachers ensure that their students feel positive about learning – that the affective filter is lowered? Examining the teacher's characteristics which students consider important in order to define effective teaching can provide an insight into students' expectations of what a good teacher is and how they feel about it. A study by Koutsoulis, (2003) conducted on a representative number of students in Cyprus showed that out of 94 different characteristics that students considered important in defining teacher effectiveness, teacher's friendliness was listed as the second most common one, after the ability to show understanding. It has been shown that students need humanistic approach from their teacher. It appears that they need love along with their work, they need understanding, and they need effective communication.

Another research conducted among students of different levels of English at SEEU Language Centre showed similar results with regard to what students think the top three qualities of good language teachers are (Dixon, Kecan & Miftari, 2006). Good organization of classes was ranked at the top, then ability to understand different kinds of people was second and openness of the teacher was ranked as the third one. If we try to match these qualities to the two types of teachers in question - traditional in traditional settings and modern in interactive settings, we can see that all of them are characteristic for the second ones. Good organization of class means a variety of activities in which students take an active part in class and are not just passive listeners to a lecture. Then, related to the second and the third quality that students have chosen - ability to understand different kinds of people and openness; a teacher can not have these qualities if he/she is not close, open and personable to his/her students to be able to empathize with them and share their problems and concerns.

However, this study also showed that students at SEEU, probably because of the remains of the old educational system which products they actually represent, are not quite used to the new models of teaching. So their answers to the question, "How do you see your teacher", were mostly, "guide" and "superior" which in a way contradicts with their answers to the previous question about the three qualities of good teachers. On the other hand, "friend" was the secondly ranked quality that students would like to see in their teacher as an answer to the question, "How would you like to see your teacher", after "guide" and "superior" which shared the first position.

Further exploration of students' beliefs about teaching and learning can also provide information about their attitude towards learning in general. Learner's belief systems cover a wide range of issues and it can influence their motivation to learn, their expectations about learning, their perceptions about what is difficult and what is easy to learn, as well as the kind of learning strategies they favor.

For example, it was shown that factors affecting students' English achievement are attitude, motivational intensity, beliefs, strategy, anxiety and gender. Better learners show less anxiety (Banya & Cheng, 1997). This fact leads us back to students' affective states and their importance for success in learning. When the affective filter is lowered – because students are relaxed – learning is more successful. How, we may ask, can the teacher achieve this? The same authors point out that "students showed obvious reluctance to abandon very traditional teaching techniques." Traditional teaching model puts an emphasis on teacher's authority (Nunan, 1999) as opposed to teacher as "learner among learners" a characteristic of the experiential, constructivist or modern model of teaching.

It is not only in the field of language teaching where students prefer more interactive rather than traditional way of teaching. A study by Lord (1999) which compared the traditional and constructivist instructional methods in environmental science revealed that students learning can be considerably enhanced with constructivist-styled teaching. Furthermore, student evaluations in the same study showed that those who attended constructivist classes found the course more informative and enjoyable.

This, leads us to ask, what are the traditional teaching techniques that students do not like? Those which consist of transmission of knowledge with the teacher as giver and controller and students as passive recipients of information and of learning experiences that comprise knowledge of facts and not learning skills, self-inquiry, social and communication skills among their peers and with their teacher.

The influence of classroom environmental factors, such as teacher discipline and control practices, teacher-student relations and the opportunities for student decision making, in the context of the negative effects of traditional middle schools on student motivation was observed by a group of authors. Eccles and the others (1993) suggest that in middle schools where teachers *control* students more and provide them fewer decision-making opportunities students show poorer performance (Eccles et al. 1993). So, again enhancing student's performance does not go in a line with authority and discipline. On the contrary; negative consequences related to student motivation are shown to be a direct result of an increase in teacher control, a decrease in teacher efficacy and in the quality of teacher/ student relationships. "In particular, based on results of our studies, we recommend that efforts be made to improve student/teacher relationship in schools that serve early adolescents", (Eccles et al. 569).

And indeed, it appears that teacher-student climate does have a significant effect on general student behavior in schools and especially their academic achievements. Miller (2000) claims that focusing on improving the climate of relationships between teachers and students in the school might be an important component in reducing school failure. In far too many schools a substantial group of the student body drops out before graduation. His study suggests that positive teacher-student relationships can play an important role in getting students off on the right foot, thus reducing their chances of future bad outcomes.

That teacher-student climate has an effect of keeping students off track is in many ways not surprising. First, the features that make up a positive climate are in many ways just what an adult would desire in a learning or working environment. Schools that have students who are more likely to be on track at the end of their freshman year are schools where students trust teachers to be fair and reasonable, to treat them with respect, and to guide them in their learning when they are having trouble. This climate also suggests a level of personal interaction: a teacher cannot respond to students' struggles in a particular area or offer them extra help if they are not aware that the student is struggling with some-

thing. This can be achieved only if teachers are oriented towards creating caring and understanding teacher-student relationships.

Analyzing the influence of teacher-student relationship on students' performance would not be possible if the issue of motivation is not considered. In all fields of learning, students have to want to do something to succeed in it. Without such motivation they will definitely fail to make the necessary effort. If motivation at its most basic level is understood as a kind of internal drive that pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something and if motivation is so important, then we need to find answers to the questions about what kind of teacher-student relationships stimulates students more? Or why do we have cases of "demotivation" of students? How we then ask can motivation be increased and sustained in such cases?

Some findings reveal that students who have support from and confidence in their teachers are able to have confidence in themselves. As a result, providing a caring and supportive environment was found to be a necessary component in achieving student academic success (Juarez, 2001). The ability to produce effectiveness depends upon the confidence of students' capabilities. Students' beliefs about themselves in relation to task difficulty and task outcome are a very strong source of motivation. In psychology these are referred to as self-efficacy beliefs (Driscoll, 2005).

How do students acquire self-efficacy beliefs and how might these beliefs be changed when they prevent learners from undertaking tasks that they have the capability to do? According to Driscoll (2005), it is very important to instill confidence in learners who believe they are unable to do, or fear they will fail if they attempt, a given learning task. The same author points out that learners are likely to gain confidence when they are given just enough assistance to perform a task that they are not capable of achieving on their own. Another strategy suggested by this author for stimulating motivation through building confidence is providing learners with a reasonable degree of control over their own learning. This can be achieved by providing feedback to students, but in a way that will help them learn from their mistakes. This, in turn requires discussion and exchange of opinions with students.

If the model of motivational design developed by Keller and suggested by Driscoll is observed, it will be realized that all four conditions for motivation (attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction) require a lot of engagement by the instructor and can not be achieved by the traditional transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the students. For example, students' attention can be captured by varying the instructional presentation. No matter how interested someone is in the topic of a lecture, that interest will be lost if the mode of presentation is always the same. Alternating lecture with demonstrations, small group discussions or whole class debate will make them more interesting.

Then, enhancing the relevance can be achieved by providing opportunities for matching learners' motives and values with occasions for self-study, leadership and cooperation. Generating satisfaction requires verbal praise from the teacher. None of these requirements (including building confidence) characterizes the traditional teacher. Simply the way he/she teaches does not allow application of such strategies. The traditional classroom would not be traditional if it addresses the above mentioned issues and the traditional teacher will loose his attributes that are so much appreciated by some if he behaves in accordance with these requirements.

Discussion

Results from this literature review suggest that the teacher-student relationship can significantly influence students' success. This influence is shown to be very positive when teachers are characterized with some features that qualify a modern, constructivist teacher: ability to understand, friendliness, support, flexibility, student-centered teaching. On the other hand, the influence of teacher-student relationship on student's performance is negative when the teaching style is traditional. As traditional teaching goes together with authority and discipline, with transmission of knowledge from the teacher as the only source of information to the students as passive receivers of knowledge, whereas the friendly teacher goes together with the modern classroom, the conclusion is that by preferring this modern type of teaching, students actually choose teacher's friendliness as one of the most important components of their favorable teacher.

It was shown that students perform better when they work in a positive surrounding, free from stress and anxiety. So, by teacher friendliness, here one should not only understand a character feature, but rather a wider scope of characteristics that define a whole teaching approach; student-centered teaching where the teacher is only a facilitator and the students are the center around which the whole process of teaching and learning takes place. Teacher friendliness here becomes a synonym for non-traditional teaching. The friendly teacher is flexible and creative, ready to offer support and help whenever students need it. He does not create an atmosphere of fear and anxiety with his authority and discipline. He creates a positive and friendly atmosphere in which students do not feel threatened even if they do not succeed in performing a task.

Some of the studies also revealed that it is not only that students preferred teachers using modern methods more, but also their academic performance was improved in such circumstances. This proves that their choice is not made just because of feeling more comfortable when having a friendly teacher. It was shown that students really achieved better results in non-traditional classrooms.

However, some questions regarding this issue need to be considered more carefully in the future: What should be the limit of teacher friendliness? How do teachers acknowledge whether students do not abuse their flexibility and understanding? How far can this flexibility go? In which cases is teacher authority threatened? In which cases does anarchy appear instead of cooperative interaction and student-centeredness? Special attention needs to be paid to situations like in the case of SEEU, where a direct transition from traditional to modern is not optional, but some sort of 'interphase' is necessary to prepare students to adjust successfully to the new setting, especially since most of the institution's students come from state schools where reforms have a very slow pace.

A university aims to create an unthreatening environment for students to learn and not to do anything which may damage their self-esteem. Cases like SEEU, where the institution enforces a modern approach to teaching, however, students may not necessarily be prepared for this, still embrace a modern approach. However, the questions may arise: How far can we go in being "modern"? What are the limits of interaction and student-centeredness? Future research may define where limits may or should be drawn in the classroom.

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Vocabulary Acquisition and Learning

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Abstract

According to Ellis (1985:5), "second language acquisition (SLA) is used as a general term that embraces both untutored ("naturalistic") acquisition and tutored ("classroom") acquisition". Many researchers argue that learning or the "conscious process" is not the same as acquisition or "unconscious processes". Nevertheless, acquisition is understood as how a language is learnt through exposure, and learning is understood as the study of a second language. Some experts imply that learning cannot contribute to acquisition which means that the knowledge gained in a conscious way cannot influence subconscious development of a language. The most generated consistent predictors of the second language learning success are considered the individual differences such as: foreign language aptitude and motivation. (Dörneyi and Skehan, 2005:589)

What Knowing a Word Means

According to Nation (2001), knowing a word, from the point of view of productive knowledge and use, involves: pronouncing it correctly including stress, writing it and constructing it correctly with correct spelling, producing it in different context, producing synonyms and using correctly in an original sentence. He identifies reception with reading and listening skills because the learners receive input from the others. On the other hand, he identifies production with speaking and writing to convey messages to the others. At the most general model, knowing a word involves form, meaning and use. Nation (2001:27) explains in a table what knowing a word means, both for receptive (R) and productive (P) knowledge.

Receptive and Productive Knowledge

FORM	Spoken	R: What does the word sound like?
		P: How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R: What does the word look like?
		P: How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R: What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P: What word parts are needed to express the meaning?

continues

Receptive and Productive Knowledge, continued

MEANING	Form and meaning	R: What meaning does this word form signal?
		P: What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and references	R: What is included in the concept?
		P: What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R: What other words does this word make us think of?
		P: What other words could we use instead of this one?
USE	Grammatical function	R: In what patterns does the word occur?
		P: In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R: What words or types of words can be expected before or after the word?
		P: What words or types of words must we use with this word?
	Constraints on use	R: Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P: Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Receptive and Productive Word Knowledge

Similarly, Qian (1999) believes that vocabulary knowledge is the size of the vocabulary depth and the depth of vocabulary, which includes knowledge of pronunciation, spelling, multiple meanings, the contexts in which the word can be used, frequency with which it is used, morphological and syntactical properties, and how the word combines with other words.

All the above mentioned features make us think more about the complexity of knowing a word and the attention that should be paid when the learners meet the word for the first time. There are two questions: How much vocabulary does a learner need? And how much of a word must a learner know at which level?

> The learner needs to know the 3,000 or so high frequency words of the language. These are an immediate high priority and there is little sense in focusing on other vocabulary until these are learned. (Nation and Waring 1997: 11)

Words occur in the written texts in four different kinds distinguished by Nation (2001):

1. High-frequency words- words that are not marked at all and include words: *in, for, a* etc.
2. Academic words- the academic text containing words: *policy, phase, sustained,* etc.
3. Technical words-the words closely related to the topic and subject area in the text: *indigenous, beech, podocarp, regeneration*, etc.

4. Low-frequency words-the words that we rarely meet in the language use: *pastoral, aired, perpetuity,* etc.

Nation (1990) suggests that after the high frequency words are learned, the next focus for the teacher is on helping learners develop strategies to comprehend and learn the low frequency words of the language. All words presented in one academic text require considerable time and attention to study them.

Nonetheless, Nation (1990) argues that the teachers should not spend time in teaching low-frequency words but instead the focus should be on the strategies – guessing from the context, using word parts and mnemonic techniques to remember words, or using vocabulary cards to remember foreign language and first language word pairs.

With the everyday language growth, the lexicon grows as well and the new ideas must have their labels. New words are related to economics, science and technology, psychology and politics. The students learn collocations, idioms, synonyms and antonyms using different strategies, nevertheless it is a very complex process of how to remember the word and use it correctly in different contexts.

Stoller and Grabe (1993:25) explain that as a way to draw attention about how the vocabulary is learned, we must first ask what is known about the nature of vocabulary: how is it learned, organized, and retrieved. One thing that we can be sure of is that words are not instantaneously acquired, at least not for adult second language learner. Rather, they are gradually learned over a period of time from numerous exposures (Schmitt, 2000).

Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Incidental learning refers to the process of picking up words and structures by engaging in different learning activities especially in reading and listening and the learner's mind is concentrated on the meaning rather than on a form of a language. Gass (1999, cited in Hulstijn, 2003) suggests a broad meaning for incidental learning as the learning of grammatical structures without exposure to instances of these structures. Incidental learning is closely related to learning vocabulary through reading and many people believe that the vocabulary is enlarged mostly while we read different texts and learn new words that we meet accidentally. However, Nation (1982) does not agree that the vocabulary acquisition should be left to incidental learning. Coady (1986) writes that:

> The vocabulary that is acquired through reading takes on the stature of a paradox. One side of the paradox is that less frequent vocabulary is almost exclusively encountered during reading. Consequently ESL students have to read in order to learn less frequent words. But the other side of the paradox is that all too often they don't know enough words to read well.

Laufer (2003) has done three experiments to show whether the reading is the best source of vocabulary learning or not. She investigated the basic assumptions underlying the hypothesis that most vocabulary in a non-native language is acquired incidentally from reading. These are the noticing assumption, the guessing ability assumption, the guessing-retention link assumption, and the cumulative gain assumption. She demonstrated that vocabulary acquisition from short and long texts is small. Reading followed by a word-focused task or word-focused tasks without reading was more helpful in acquiring vocabulary.

> Reading can sometimes be the source of initial knowledge of words, it can
> help to expand the knowledge of already familiar words, or it can reinforce the
> memory of words not yet firmly established in the lexicon. The paper does not
> argue against the educational value of reading activities. What I have tried to
> show is that, in instructed foreign language context, reading alone is unlikely
> to be the best source of vocabulary acquisition. Word focused activities,
> whether they are combined with reading or not, play a crucial role in building
> the learner's lexical knowledge. However, teachers have to look more criti-
> cally at learning through reading and be more accepting of direct learning,
> incorporating the two into a well balanced second language course. (Laufer,
> 2003:34)

Similarly, Luppescu and Day (1993) found out that students who read a text and looked up unknown words in the dictionary remembered them better than students who read the text without using a dictionary.

On the other hand, Stoller and Grabe (1993:31) point out that "just as incidental learning contributes so much to L1 vocabulary acquisition, incidental learning is crucial for L2 students who cannot depend on classroom instruction alone to meet all their vocabulary needs." There is a question whether the students should be advised to read short texts or long texts and the researchers suggest that longer reading texts help the learners to be involved more in varied genres.

Indeed, reading has proven to be a very effective strategy in vocabulary learning but teaching EFL learners to learn vocabulary actively while reading is a challenging task for teachers. They should be encouraged to repeat a word in order to retain it and maintain it in short term memory long enough to be stored in long term memory.

Nation and Waring (1997:1) recommend that extensive reading and listening help in learning new words and many studies suggest that most first language learners learn a lot of vocabulary this way. In addition, intensive reading is a good way to enhance word knowledge and get exposure to the most frequent and useful words. At the earlier and intermediate levels of language learning, simplified reading books can be of great benefit.

Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies is a central issue in teaching and learning especially in encouraging learner autonomy, and many researchers (Oxford 1990, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins 1999, O'Malley and Chamot 1990) dealt with this issue. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) are described by Oxford (1990:ix) as "actions taken by second and foreign language learners to control and improve their own learning and are keys to greater autonomy and more meaningful learning". On the other hand, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1998:2) define LLS as "procedures and techniques that learners can use to facilitate a learning task. Some learning strategies such as: note taking and making graphic organizers are observable but most strategies are mental processes that are not directly observable."

Lessard-Clouston (1997:12) points out that early definition from the educational literature reflect the roots of LS in cognitive science, with its essential assumptions that human beings process information and that learning involves such information processing. Clearly, LS are involved in all learning, regardless of the content and context. LS are thus used in learning and teaching math, science, history, languages and other subjects, both in classroom settings and more informal learning environments.

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

The Classification of the Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990: 38) classifies language learning strategies into two broad groups:

Direct strategies are used to learn a target language and to this group belong the memory strategies that help the learners to store and retrieve new information, cognitive strategies that help the learners to produce new language by different tools and compensation strategies that help the learners to use the language regardless that there are many gaps.

Indirect strategies support learning without involving the target language directly. In this group are included: meta-cognitive strategies that help the learners to control their own learning, affective strategies that help the learners to arrange their emotions and motivation, and social strategies that help the learners to cooperate and learn with their peers.

According to my experience as an EFL teacher, learning strategies defined by Oxford are often not done precisely because there is no clear description of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Language learners use the same strategy for accomplishing the same learning task. Or, the same strategy can be effective in accomplishing two different learning tasks.

A very good example is provided by Cohen (1996: 8) where he emphasizes that "skipping an example in the text so as not to lose the train of thought may reflect a meta-cognitive strategy (ie., part of a conscious plan to not get distracted by detail) and also a cognitive strategy to avoid material that would not assist in generating a gist statement".

> Strategies are sometimes labeled as belonging to "successful" or "unsuccessful" learners when in fact the effectiveness of a strategy may depend largely on the characteristics of the given learner, the given language structures, the given context, or the interaction of these. Moreover, the very same learner may find that a given reading strategy works well for the fifth paragraph of a given text but not for the sixth. The difficulty could result from the learner's vocabulary or grammatical knowledge, from the fact that the material is summarizer-unfriendly in that paragraph, from some distraction in the environment where the reading is going on (the classroom, the home, the library, etc) or from some other cause. (Cohen 1996:7)

Chamot (2005:112) suggests that "once a learning strategy becomes familiar through repeated use, it may be used with automacity, but most learners will, if required, be able to recall the strategy to conscious awareness." There is also a relationship between the language learning strategies and individual difference factors such as motivation self-efficacy, gender learning background and learning styles (Gu, 2003).

As a conclusion, students must do the learning and choose the appropriate strategies and when they are used in combination are more effective for accomplishing different learning tasks.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The learners intend to learn the vocabulary or at least understand the meaning that is conveyed in the text using different strategies. It is the learner's task to be familiar with strategies that they use and to use them in different situations. Many researchers argue that language proficiency plays a significant role in learning new vocabulary. The more proficient the learner is in English, the more effective vocabulary strategies they use. Hence, it is the teacher's responsibility to train them in effective strategy use and support them in difficult learning situations.

> Strategies help the students learn and remember information for a long period of time by building bridges in the learner's mind. Information is retained and connected in the brain through mental links or pathways that are mapped onto an individual's existing schemata. (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary & Robbins (1998: 29).

Gu (2003:3) explains that "one way to see the overall task of vocabulary learning is through the distinction between knowing a word and using a word. Therefore vocabulary learning strategies should include strategies for "using" as well as "knowing" a word. Gu further suggests that "another way to vocabulary learning is to see it as a process of related sub-tasks. Each of these task stages demands metacognitive judgment, choice, and deployment of cognitive strategies for vocabulary learning. And each strategy a learner uses will determine to a large extent how and how well a new word is learned."

Nation (1994:viii) suggests that learners need to be able to use vocabulary strategies to cope with unknown vocabulary met in listening or reading texts, to make up for gaps in productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, to gain fluency in using known vocabulary and to learn new words in isolation. Most of the strategies can begin to be developed in the earliest English classes.

Nation (1997) points out that vocabulary learning strategies:

- Involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from
- Are complex, that is, there are several steps to learn
- Require knowledge and benefit from training
- Increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use

For years, vocabulary strategy researchers have attempted to develop taxonomy of the vocabulary learning strategies. In 1997 Schmitt, following the Oxford's model (1990) of learning strategies based on social, memory, cognitive and meta-cognitive categories designed the taxonomy of the VLS (vocabulary learning strategies) as follows:

Strategy Group

Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning

DET Analyze part of speech

DET Analyze affixes and roots

DET Check for L1 cognate

DET Analyze any available pictures or gestures

DET Guess from textual context

DET Bilingual Dictionary

DET Monolingual Dictionary

DET Word lists

DET Flash Cards

Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered

SOC Ask teacher for an L1 Translation

SOC Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word

SOC Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word

SOC Ask classmates for meaning

SOC Study and practice meaning in a group

SOC Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy

Memory strategies for relating the word with some previously learned words

MEM Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning

MEM Image word's meaning

MEM Connect word to a personal experiences

MEM Use semantic maps

MEM User scales for gradable adjectives

MEM Peg Method

MEM Loci Method

MEM Group words together to study them

MEM Group words together spatially on a page

MEM Use new words in sentences

MEM Group words together within a storyline

MEM Study the spelling of a word

MEM Saw new word aloud when studying it

MEM Image word form

MEM Underline initial letter of the word

MEM Configuration

MEM Use Keyword Method

MEM Affixes and roots (remembering)

MEM Parts of speech (remembering)

Memory strategies for relating the word with some previously learned words, continued

MEM Paraphrase the word's meaning

MEM Use cognates in study

MEM Learn the words of an idiom together

MEM Use physical action when learning a word

MEM Use semantic feature grids

Cognitive strategies to repeat and use mechanical means to study vocabulary

COG Verbal repetition

COG Written repetition

COG Flash cards

COG Word lists

COG Take notes in class

COG Use the vocabulary section in your textbook

COG Listen to tape of word lists

COG Put English labels on physical objects

COG Keep a vocabulary notebook

Metacognitive strategies to control and evaluate own learning

MET Use English-language media

MET Testing oneself with word tests

MET Use spaced word practice

MET Skip or pass new word

MET Continue to study word over time

A Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Mnemonic Strategies

Mnemonic strategies are the memory strategies (memory aids) that help the learners to remember new words using their previous knowledge and recalling words through verbal and visual clues. According to Schmitt (1997:212) "a new word can be integrated into many kinds of existing knowledge (previous experience or known words) or images can be custom-made for retrieval (images of a word's form or meaning attributes)". Using mnemonics, learners will integrate new vocabulary into already existing cognitive structures and retrieve it from memory at later points. They are especially important in remembering names, dates and to handle the situations with the difficulty of learning words that have different meanings. Furthermore, they aid the memory in remembering acronyms, rhymes, linking information by creating visual images or making up a story.

> Memory strategies reflect very simple principles, such as arranging things in order, making associations and reviewing. These principles all involve meaning. For the purpose of learning a new language, the arrangements and asso-

ciations must be personally meaningful to the learner, and the material to be reviewed must have significance. (Oxford 1990: 39)

The mnemonics are more suitable strategies for adult learners but they require more training and more efforts to master them.

The most effective vocabulary learning strategies are believed to be:

- the key word method (memory strategy),
- guessing the word meaning from the context (discovery strategy),
- dictionary usage (discovery strategy),
- grouping (memory strategy),
- associations (memory strategy),
- translation (cognitive),
- asking questions (social strategy)
- the lexical approach.

All these strategies are equally created to support students' vocabulary learning and a wider repertoire of the strategies leads to a more successful learning.

The Key Word Method

The key word method helps the learner to learn new words by linking them with an L2 word that sounds similar. The learners can be presented a new word, L2, identified using the keyword that sounds similar to the target word and then easily illustrate it by a drawing or by a picture. Afterwards, the teachers can create a picture and the students connect the new word with its definition.

Oxford (1990) proposes two steps in using this method: 1) the familiar word is identified in one's own language that sounds like the new word (auditory link) and 2) an image of some relationship of the new word and the familiar one- is generated (visual link). However, Hulstijn (1997) argues that the keyword method comprises three stages:

1. an L1 word is chosen based on acoustic and orthographic similarity with the to-be-learned L2 target word,

2. a strong association between the target word and the keyword must be constructed so that the learner when seeing or hearing it the target word, is reminded immediately of the keyword

3. a visual image must be constructed combining the referents of the keyword and the target word preferably in a silent, odd, or bizarre fashion in order to increase its memorability.

There is no doubt that the key word method is very effective in learning new words but sometimes the learner fails to link it with an appropriate word and after a while a word is completely forgotten. Or, if the visual clue is not strong enough it is again forgotten and the main problem is pronunciation of the new word. However, nobody can contradict the idea that repeating the word will help retrieve and remember the new word better.

Kasper (1993, cited in Hulstijn (1997:205) gives three examples: 1) Spanish payaso ("clown"). English keyword: pie. Think of a clown throwing a pie at his friend. 2) Spanish llega ("to arrive"). Keyword: leg. Mediating sentence: The payaso 'arrives' at the circus

on one 'leg'. 3) Spanish pequeno ("small"). Keyword: pecan. Mediating sentence: "The 'small' payaso ate a bag of 'pequeno' nuts".

However, this strategy would not be appropriate with beginning levels of students because their vocabulary is very limited and the keyword would be very difficult to find. Further, this method works better with concrete words than with abstract ones.

> One should try to find a keyword with a concrete meaning; that is, the keyword should refer to objects in the real world that one can see (or feel or hear). …abstract words are associated with the verbal system only and concrete words are associated with verbal and visual concepts (Hulstijn 1997: 213).

Coady (1993) describes the survey of almost 50 studies by Pressley, Levin, and Delaney in 1982 who concluded that the key word technique definitively helps the learning of foreign vocabulary and is superior to other techniques such as rote repetition, placing vocabulary in a meaningful sentence, and using pictures or synonyms.

To conclude, the trained learners will probably use the keyword mnemonic selectively, especially if they have to deal with specific difficult words that cannot be remembered easily.

Guessing from the Context

Most vocabulary learning occurs when it is incidental via the strategy of guessing from the context. Successful guessing occurs when the learner knows a large portion of the words in the text but if the vocabulary knowledge is limited it will affect the acquisition negatively. Nation and Liu (1985 cited in Nation 2001:233) emphasize that it is likely that least 95% of the running words need to be already familiar to the learners for this to happen. Furthermore, Nation (2001) states that there are some conditions that are needed for this kind of learning. First, it is important to work out and to remember the meaning of a word in the text, second, to increase learning even in a small knowledge of a word and third, to see if the conditions and context are typical for normal reading.

ESL learners focus on meaning rather than language or vocabulary development as they read in the second language (Haynes 1993:48).

However, Fraser (1999, cited in Nation, 2001:239) found that more vocabulary is retained from inferring from context when the inferring was followed by consulting dictionary and he argues that "dictionary use makes an important contribution to vocabulary growth." Many studies have shown that the students should be encouraged to infer meaning of an unknown word from the text independently and without consulting the monolingual or bilingual dictionary because it increases their guessing ability.

The main cause of the poor guessing is the word form to be guessed. Bensoussan and Laufer (1984, cited in Nation 2001:246) point out that "second language learners produced many responses based on known words that had some formal resemblance to the unknown word." This can be particularly difficult if the learner is trying to guess some technical terms which have a different meaning from that of general English words. In Nation (2001) there are a few suggestions for English teachers to help the students improve learning from the context.

1. to help them find and choose reading an listening material of appropriate difficulty;

2. to encourage them to read a lot and help them gain a lot of comprehensible spoken input;

3. to improve their reading skills so that they read fluently and with good comprehension;

4. to provide training in guessing from the context .

Unless, the learners possess the above mentioned skills, the vocabulary acquisition process will not be successful.

Dictionary Usage

Dictionary usage is a strategy that is commonly used by ESL/EFL learners to find out the word meaning, the spelling, the usage, the pronunciation and to understand explanations. The bilingual or monolingual dictionaries are used by teachers, especially non-native speakers of English. It is widely known that English has a lot of idioms, synonyms, collocations, antonyms and verbal phrases and therefore the dictionaries are very rich resources in many learning/teaching situations.

Additionally, the Webster's New English Dictionary and Thesaurus, for example, is a valuable reference tool that contains 40 000 clear and accurate definitions, a Thesaurus of over 100 000 synonyms arranged in alphabetic order for easy reference, with totally 1008 pages.

There is also Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary which is widely used by EFL learners. Information in the dictionary is given in entries arranged in alphabetical order of headwords. It contains the pronunciation for every word given with the American pronunciation where it is different. Synonyms, antonyms and idioms are provided for the users who want to enrich their vocabulary in English.

Then, the New Oxford Picture Dictionary supports visualization/imaginary strategies because it contains full-color pages and illustrations and vocabulary words with a clear, easy-to-follow pronunciation guide. Scholfield (1997) presents some facts on the research conducted by Ahmed (1988) surveying the learners of English in their dictionary use. The results showed that the dictionary use is a positive feature in learning new vocabulary at different levels. All of the learners were using the bilingual dictionaries.

Nist and Olejnik (1995 cited in Nation 2001:52) examined the procedure of meeting a word in context and then looking up its meaning in the dictionary. Four different kinds of tests were used to measure the learning of each word and they found out that there was no interaction between the meeting in context and the looking up of the word and that the quality of the dictionary determined the quality of learning.

> Non-native speakers of the target language may use dictionaries to verify their knowledge for a class and when composing exercises. In the classroom dictionaries can have an impact on learners a) by choosing the works to make available or to recommend to students to buy and b) by teaching students when and how to use such works effectively as an adjunct to language use and learning. (Scholfield 1997:299)

Nowadays in countries with developed technology and CALL environment, the learners are given a chance to use E-dictionaries. This can be a very useful tool especially when writing, reading and checking students' assignments.

Laufer and Hill (2000 cited in Nation 2001: 251) suggest that having the words high-lighted in their computerized text probably increased the dictionary look-up and therefore learning. On the other hand, Gu (2003: 36) warns that "By the same token, the online logs we obtain about learners' dictionary behaviors might not contain exactly the same behaviors the same learners would demonstrate when they use paper dictionaries. Clearly we need to see more work along this exciting line of research before we can arrive at any comfortable conclusions about online dictionaries and glosses".

Laufer (2006: 30) declares that "research has found that the most effective dictionaries for comprehension and the use of new words are bilingual dictionaries". However, (Hartmann, 1991, cited in Gu, 2003) points out that "until recently, the default stance taken by most experts and teachers is that a monolingual, rather than a bilingual dictionary should be encouraged."

The two types of dictionaries fulfill different functions and certainly the beginner students need the initial training in dictionary use.

Translation

This is an analyzing (cognitive) strategy that helps the learners to use their native language as the basis for understanding the target language. Even though it is considered an old technique of the Grammar Translation Method, the importance should not be neglected especially in the early stages of SLA. Oxford (1999) emphasizes that this strategy should be used with care; a word-for-word translation can sometimes produce the wrong interpretations of the target language material.

> Clearly, the more aware learners are of the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and the target language, the earlier they will find it to adopt effective learning and productive strategies (Swan, 1997: 178).

Larsen-Freeman, (2000: 17) stresses out the positive side of using translations and suggests that "here are certain techniques with this method such as: translating of the literary passages where the students have to translate the texts written in the target language into the native language and vice versa. The teachers believe that in this way they will give learners access to English Literature which helps develop their minds "'Mentally' through …translating skills necessary to use in their performance".

In conclusion, translation is a valuable strategy that EFL learners use especially when the word has been encountered and the students ask for an L1 translation so they could link it with the unknown L2 word.

Associating/Elaborating

This strategy helps the learners to associate new language information with already known concepts. Nation (2001: 104) points out that "to a large degree the associations of a word are a result of the various meaning systems that the word fits into. These include synonyms, antonyms, family members of the same general headword, words in a part-whole relationship, and superordinate and subordinate words". The coordination using some type of sound (cucumber-other kinds of vegetables garlic, onion, or carrot), synonyms (dominant-commanding) or antonyms (majority-minority).

Furthermore, Oxford (1999:6) gives some examples of this strategy; Mike wants to remember the name of Solange, the University librarian, who has just been introduced in

French. He associates the name Solange with something else about her by saying "*So long,* library, I'm leaving !" or "Solange's face is so long." Second, Corazon, a learner of English, hears the word *billboard.* She associates it with a previously learned word, board, used for displaying; therefore she understands and remembers *billboard* more effectively. Many examples of related words are presented with semantic maps and they help arranging concepts and relationship on paper by color, by size, by smell, by function etc.

Grouping

This strategy helps learners to remember words they organized themselves and classified into meaningful groups. The words of one group are usually recalled together. Schmitt (1997:213) suggests that "the words can be grouped spatially on a page in some sort of a pattern". The learner can group the suffixes in one column, on the other one prefixes, on the other one adjectives, etc.

Asking Questions

This social strategy involves asking someone for clarification or verification of an item. The learners ask the teacher to explain a word or give a definition and also may ask help from a native speaker about a complex word. Here is also included asking for correction in communication or in writing (Oxford, 1999).

Conclusion

This article reviews the most recent literature on vocabulary acquisition, language learning strategies and their classification, and especially the focus are the vocabulary strategies used by EFL/ESL learners. The word is described as a very complicated item which involves knowledge of form, knowledge of meaning and knowledge of use.

There are opinions that the vocabulary is enlarged mostly while learners read different texts and unconsciously they learn new words they meet accidentally. However, the best approach in teaching vocabulary should be strategy training and not teaching the words as isolated items.

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Shkolla — fanar që mundi injorancën!

(Fjalimi i Rektorit të UEJL, Akademik Alajdin Abazi me rastin e shënimit të 7 Marsit-Ditës së shkollës shqipe)

Të gjithë popujt i kanë datat e tyre historike që ngërthejnë në vete vlera dhe të arritura. Shqiptarët e kanë një datë, që dallon prej të tjerave, sepse vetëm përmes kësaj date ata manifestojnë integritetin e brendshëm shpirtëtor e civilizues. Data 7 mars 1887, e ngriti lart traditën e popullit tonë, duke çmuar, kështu, rolin e madh të punonjësve të arsimit dhe të edukimit të brezit të ri drejt një zhvillimi të gjithanshëm arsimor dhe kulturor të shoqërisë sonë. Kjo datë, tashmë e regjistruar në kalendarin e ngjarjeve ndër më të rëndësishmet të historisë sonë, është dita e hapjes së shkollës së parë shqipe, që padyshim shënon një fakt historik e kulturor me rëndësi. Duke u krijuar mundësia e shkollimit në gjuhën amëtare, sahqiptarët, që para njëqind e njëzet vitesh, plotësuan kushtin e domosdoshëm për t'i hyrë rrugës së përparimit.

7 Marsi, sintetizon vizionin dhe dinamikën e një zhvillimi emancipues e kulturor. Duke e ngritur arsimin në rangun e prioriteteve kryesore, shqiptarët i qytetëruan pikëpamjet për shoqërinë dhe jetën. Duke qenë pjesë e pandarë e trungut kulturor e psikologjik europian, shqiptarët, bashkë me popujt tjerë përparimtarë të Ballkanit, e kuptuan arsimin si një garë, në të cilën, nuk fiton më i vrazhdi, por më i dijshmi, nuk fiton më i pacivilizuari, por më i kulturuari.

Mbase është me vend thënia se "ai shtet, ose ajo shoqëri që investon për shkollën investon për të ardhmen!" Shkolla ishte dhe mbeti fanari, që e mundi injorancën. Shkolla e sotshme shqipe e ngritur në themellet e së kaluarës, duke përcjellur një përvojë të theksuar në procesin edukativo-mësimor, hulumtues dhe shkencor, ka bërë që sot shumë kuadro të jenë drejtues të suksesshëm në të gjitha fushat e jetës edhe pse duhet pranuar një fakt se arsimi shqip i të gjitha niveleve ende nuk ka hapësira të bollshme dhe bashkëkohore.

Kualifikimi dhe profesionalizmi, janë përparësi e zhvillimeve në shoqëritë e sotshme demokratike, që duhet vlerësuar edhe si detyrë me prioritet, në nxitjen dhe inkurajimin e të gjithë spektrit arsimor. Kjo, para së gjithash, ka të bëjë edhe me rritjen e kërkesave për përsosjen e organizimit të vetë procesit arsimor pa tendenca formalizmi. Ndonëse, kjo periudhë historike, është e dominuar nga një mori faktorësh të rëndësishëm me hapjen dhe zhvillimin e shoqërisë, në suaza të një tranzicioni politik, ekonomik dhe shoqëror, mbetet domosdoshmëri e kohës ecja e sigurt drejt standardeve të reja, si një ndikim në rritje ndaj kërkesave të tregut të lirë dhe ekonomisë globale, zhvillimeve të vrullshme arsimore, shkencore dhe teknologjike. Krijimi i hapësirave të reja metodiko-shkencore, si teknika, ku vërehet një shpejtësi e madhe e përhapjes së tyre, padyshim, na shpie drejt praktikimit të një shkollimi modern.

Tashmë, është e nevojshme që të shkohet përtej dhe të mbështetet tranzicioni politik dhe ekonomik, përfshirë përafrimin e legjislacionit me BE-në, para së gjithash, në sferën e arsimit, që të krijojmë një klimë të përshtatshme, me synim anëtarësimin në BE. Bashkimi Evropian dhe SHBA-të do të forcojnë mbështetjen e tyre për vendet e Ballkanit

Perëndimor, prandaj edhe ne, nuk guxojmë ta humbasim këtë hap, në përpjekjet tona për të përmbushur me sukses edhe këto sfida arsimore.Shkollën tonë të sotshme do ta ndihmojë edhe shkëmbimi i përvojave të përparuara dhe gjetja e rrugëve të reja, përmes së cilave do të arrijmë rrezultate bashkëkohore. Shkolla moderne është kusht vendimtar për të bërë hapin drejt së ardhmen. Kjo shkollë i jep mundësi çdo shoqërie që integrimi i saj të jetë më i lehtë. Tani e tutje, duhet të jemi të përgatitur për të zhvilluar një debat konkret në kuadrin e procesit të avansimit të standardeve në arsim, lidhur me kërkesat se si të ecë përpara arsimi përmes projekteve konkrete. Programet dhe projektet e ndryshme hulumtuese duhet të forcohen dhe se për ne, çështja e arsimit duhet të jetë një fushë, që ka përparësi. Pra, arsimi edhe më tutje, duhet të jetë në fokusin tonë të interesimit.

Mbase, na është i njohur fakti se personaliteti njerëzor formohet përmes "edukimit dhe arsimimit në frymën e vëzhgimit të të drejtave dhe lirive themelore të njeriut, dinjitetit dhe tolerancës, si dhe lirisë në shkëmbimin e mendimeve". Duhet nxitur parimet për arsimim demokratik që garanton të drejtën për arsim të diferencuar, bazuar në pluralizmin arsimor, për të mirën e individit dhe shoqërisë. Përpjekjet tona për një arsim më të përparuar duhet arritur përmes oportuniteteve të barazisë, pluralizmit arsimor dhe të mesuarit gjatë gjithë jetës. Kjo, vie në shprehje, para së gjithash, duke u nisur nga parimi se njerëzit kanë të drejtë të studiojnë në gjuhën e tyre amtare në të gjitha format dhe nivelet e arsimit.

7 Marsi është një histori e begatshme e arsimit tonë, mirëpo, sikundër e dimë, historia nuk është garancë gjithmonë, nëse një shoqëri nuk e mbindërton vetëveten me performansa zhvillimore. Ajo që kërkohet nga ne është të harmonizojmë standardet dhe valorizimet e dijes europiane me nevojat dhe kërkesat tona. Një provë e suksesshme e këtij harmonizimi është edhe universiteti ynë, prandaj ajo që quhet obligim madhor për ne, tani për tani, është që të vazhdojmë të jemi lider të vlerave dhe standardeve arsimore e akademike në rajon.

Dhe, krejt në fund. Misioni i 7 Marsit vazhdon të jetë aktual edhe sot. Ne e kuptojmë këtë mision si obligim për t'u dhënë gjeneratave të ardhshme njerëz sa më të kualifikuar me dije dhe kulturë. Këtë mision zatën e ka edhe UEJL, një model ky mjaft i pranueshëm ku bashkëjeton shkëlqyeshëm tendenca europiane për emancipim kulturor e arsimor dhe nevoja imediate e ekonomisë dhe shoqërisë për kuadro të aftë.

The Title and Degree of Doctor of Science
(Honoris Causa) Conferred Upon Dr. Ferid J. Murad

(The following are the prepared remarks delivered by Prof. Murtezan Ismaili at the presentation of the honorary Doctor of Science to Dr. Ferid J. Murad on June 8, 2006.)

The fate and career of a researcher is not easy at all, it often resembles to gold prospectors who had to spend many years prospecting, sometimes tearing a whole mountain down in order to dig out a tiny gold nugget. In the end, not all, but only the courageous, enduring, and resolute ones, managed to accomplish their goal.

Mr. President, dear guests, I believe that you all agree that our honoured guest, Professor Murad, the Nobel Laureate is an individual who possesses all these qualities, and even more.

Our Nobel Laureate was born on September 14, 1936, in Whiting, Indiana, US. Presently, Professor Murad, a world renowned research scientist and a teacher, is affiliated with The Department of Integrative Biology and Pharmacology at the University of Texas Medical School in Houston.

With his scientific ingenuity and talent in the field of medicine, pharmacology, physiology, biology and chemistry, he has contributed immensely to the advancement of scientific critical thinking, practical application of his discoveries, as well as the education of young and promising experts.

For the success he has achieved in many fields, the awards and honours that were bestowed on Professor Murad include many honorary diplomas, prizes and fellowships at a large number of national and international, renowned scientific and professional associations and research institutes. He has also selflessly devoted his time and energy to countless committees and advisory boards locally and internationally. More precisely, Professor Murad is a member of 28 American professional and scientific associations in the field of medicine, pharmacology, biology and chemistry. He owns five important patents in the field of medicine in the state of Ohio, Massachusetts, Virginia, California and Texas. He has been and is a member of 120 national and international scientific and research committees of 67 university and medical centres' committees and a manager or co-manager of a considerable number of research centres.

Given that many presentations have already been written by many top institutions when our candidate was proposed for the most prestigious prize in the world, I believe, it would be unnecessary to add or give a more detailed presentation for a Nobel Laureate.

It goes without saying that these outstanding and precious achievements of our candidate were not done within a day; they are a result of a dedicated hard work since the early age and many sleepless nights spent at numerous laboratories.

The vast scientific work of Professor Murad is considered enormous, even when measured by world standards, whereas for us, it is fascinating. He is the author of a large number of publications (397 by 2005) published in 154 prestigious national and international reviews (59 during past 5 years) as papers, contributions to various books, including

a series of presentations and lectures (384 till the end of 2005), held at 184 national and international conferences (59 during last five years).

If I'm allowed, I'd like to add a small statistical data. Our Nobel Laureate has been cited in 1090 prestigious publications.

Professor Murad, together with Robert F. Furchgott and Luis Ingarro, was a co-recipient of the 1998 Nobel Prize in the field of physiology or medicine, with whom he had carried out research and achieved outstanding theoretical and practical results. His research focuses on the **formation, metabolism, and function of nitric oxide and cyclic GMP as they participate in various cellular signalling processes.**

If we were to cast a glance at his endless list of studies, we will notice that they are focused mainly on issues related to nucleotides, which proves that he is an expert in this field. The fact that these studies deal with the synthesis, properties, activities and their therapeutic effects, it goes without saying that we are dealing with a living encyclopaedia of medicine, physiology, biology, biochemistry and chemistry. Professor Murad's scientific work touches very sensitive segments of mechanisms that deal with very important metabolic processes, including his efforts to discover new and more efficient pathways of controlling them, always emphasising the importance of their therapeutic use.

His studies and research have proven that he is an excellent enzymologist, and an outstanding endocrinologist.

Dear guests, now I'll try to shed some light on the basic theoretical and practical aspects on nitric oxide, a work which made Professor Murad a Nobel Laureate.

The first discovery on the biological effect of nitric acid in the past 22 years has become one of the most rapidly growing areas of investigation in the field of biology with more than 20000 publications (in past few years 4500-5000 in a year). Nitric oxide is a gas and a free radical with an unshared electron capable of binding and regulating an ever-growing list of biological processes. In recent years, a number of laboratories have made significant advances in nitric oxide research areas. Targets of nitric oxide and cyclic GMP are as follows:

- Transcriptional description;
- Overexpression and gene therapy;
- Acylation, phosphorisation, etc.;
- Cells types with NOS isomoforms (synthesis of ON);
- Cyclic GMP mediating effects;
- Selection of specific NOS inhibitors;
- Novel NO donors, and so forth and so on.

It should be pointed out that other interesting areas of active research are being carried out by a large number research centres. In many instances it mediates some of its biological effects, increasing the synthesis of cyclic GMP by soluble guanylyl-cyclase and increasing the synthesis of cyclic GMP from GTP. The list of effects of nitric oxide not dependent to cyclic GMP is increasing due to its ability to influence of transition metals such as iron, thiol groups, other free radicals, oxygen superoxide anions, unsaturated fatty acids, and other molecules. Some of these reactions result in oxidation of nitric oxide, to nitrite and nitrate to terminate its effect, whereas other reactions can lead to altered protein structure, function, and/or catalytic capacity. The above mentioned functions can change

and regulate important physiological and biochemical events in cell functions. Some of the processes that are regulated by nitric oxide and/or cyclic GMP are as follows:

- Intercellular messenger;
- Smooth muscle proliferation;
- Intestinal secretion and transportation of ions;
- Insulin secretion;
- Hormone production and secretion;
- Pathogen citotoxicity;
- Tumour cytotoxicity;
- Calcium transportation and redistribution.

In other words, it is a simple molecule with multiple physiological activities. However, this does not mean that this molecule is immune of pathological effects. The physiological effect of nitric oxide was first observed when organic nitrates and nitro-glycerine were used in the treatment of angina pectoris.

Challenges for scientists of Professor Murad's calibre are endless. In spite of the fact that many years have passed since he has been awarded with a Noble Prize for his contribution to the study on nitric oxide and cyclic GMP, he has never stopped working in this field. As the head of a leading research team, he has redirected some of his research interest with nitric oxide and cyclic GMP in order to maintain his lead in the field and in the meantime address new challenging issues with soluble guanylyl cyclase regulation, and the role of nitric acid and of cyclic GMP in mouse and human embryonic stem cell proliferation and differentiation.

On the basis of the scientific data presented by our distinguished Professor, currently his research activity has been focused on formation, physiological activity, therapeutic function of nitric oxide and cyclic GMP because they represent another important cell signalling system which regulates some processes occurring in cells. Nitric oxide can be obtained from L-arginine, which can be transformed into L-citruline. Nitric oxide is also obtained from a number of prodrugs or nitrovasodilators such as nitroglycerine and nitroprusside. There are few biological processes that are not regulated by nitric oxide. The formation of nitric oxide and/or cyclic GMP by many hormones, toxins, cytokines, growth factors and drugs can explain their mechanism of action. Professor Murad's research team has succeeded in characterising and purifying all of the nitric oxide syntheses. He and his research team have also proven that nitric oxide mediates some of its biological effects by increasing the synthesis of cyclic GMP by soluble guanylyl cyclase. They have discovered that the particulate isoforms of guanylyl cyclase can be activated by some bacterial enterotoxins or atriopeptins. They have also characterised, purified and cloned several of the isoforms guanylyl cyclase. Some of his current research is focused on the formation of peroxynitrate from nitric oxide and the nitration of various cellular proteins. The objective of this research is to prove that nitration of proteins can represent another important signalling system to regulate a number of important biological processes and explain some of numerous effects of nitric oxide. Carrying out this research he has used a nitric oxide/cyclic GMP system to define signalling pathways to identify molecular targets for drug discovery and development for various metabolic disorders.

In these experiments he has also utilised intact cell cultures, tissues and cell-free preparations to characterise, purify and reconstitute these regulatory pathways using pharmacological, biochemical and molecular biological approaches. The results obtained so

far, make us believe that research carried out on the role nitric oxide and cyclic GMP will increase therapeutics which will help to find a better cure for a number of serious diseases.

The expansion of list drugs is proving that scientific community is showing a greater interest on the role of nitric acid. In spite of good results, in his Nobel Prize ceremonial speech in 1998, Professor Murad pointed out that ''to reveal the full potential of nitric oxide there is plenty to be done yet.''

Though there are many research centres in the world that are currently dealing with this issue, Professor Murad is still a leading figure in this field of inquiry due to results he has achieved and awards he has received by many prestigious research centres and institutes of the world. He is a leading figure in this field of inquiry.

I should also point out the difficulties I was faced with, while writing this presentation. Though I tried to make a comprehensive selection from the ocean of his studies, it was rather difficult to leave out anything from this presentation. To be honest, in spite of a very careful selection of the research of this genius, I was unable to make a more concise presentation of his work. Leaving out exceeding statistical data, I was afraid that I might disappoint this congregation.

Yet, there is no doubt in my mind and this congregation that his contribution to science and the ethnic origin of the honoured Professor Murad, not only have touched our emotions, but also makes us proud.

You, as a talented and versatile and outstanding scholar and researcher of American-Albanian origin, and Mother Teresa's humanism and sacrifice have undoubtedly contributed to the affirmation of our nation worldwide, for which we are and will be eternally thankful.

Honourable Professor Murad, your precious work has been acknowledged by the elite of the world's scientific community. Today's event ought to be considered only as a modest respect for your contribution that is now admired and honoured worldwide, and I am sure that it will be admired and honoured by coming generations, as well. Mr. President, now I would ask you to honour this outstanding record of dedication to the field of medicine by conferring the title and degree Doctor of Science, *Honoris Causa,* upon FERID MURAD.