

UNIVERSITETI I EVROPËS JUGLINDORE
ЈУГОИСТОЧЕН ЕВРОПСКИ УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ
SOUTH EAST EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY

SEEU REVIEW

Volume Three • Number Two • Two Thousand Seven

The publication of this review has been supported by funds from the Ministry of Education and Science in the Republic of Macedonia.

This is a South East European University (SEEU) publication. The views expressed in this review are that of the author(s). SEEU does not bear any responsibility of the content of the articles or views expressed in this edition. Copyright © 2007 South East European University. All rights reserved. Unauthorized reproduction of the contents is not permitted.

South East European University / Ilindenska nn/ Tetovo, 1200/ Republic of Macedonia
Tel: + 389 44 356 000/ Fax: + 389 44 356 001/ E-mail: review@seeu.edu.mk / Web: www.seeu.edu.mk

Editor in Chief
Dennis Farrington

Editor
Diturije Ismaili

Editorial Board
Diturije Ismaili, Murtezan Ismaili, Dennis Wesner, Megan Thompson, Selvie Shaqiri

Design and Production

SEEU Review
Volume 3. Number 2
ISSN- 1409-7001
Registered in the National University Library, Skopje
Printed in Publishing and Printing House **ArbëriaDesign** - Tetovo

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.

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

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

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

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

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

Contents

<i>Foreword</i>	5 Dennis J. Farrington
Research	
Resolving Deep Disagreement: A Case in Point	7 Vesel Memedi
L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies: A Pilot Study at South East European University	19 Brikena Xhaferi
An Empirical Study of Consumer Perceptions Toward Apparel Brand Names in Macedonia	33 Marc Martin
Position Papers	
Europeanization in Higher Education	51 Zlat R. Milovanović
Financing Barriers for SME Development; the Eastern European Case	65 Ariana Cepani Jorida Tabaku
Higher Education in a Global Market: the Attractiveness of Private Providers in the Republic of Macedonia	79 Dennis J Farrington
Implementing Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign Language	97 Elena Spirovska
Getting it Done: A Brief Overview of Critical Junctures in the Study of How Policy Translates into Practice	107 Philip Murphy
ANGEL and the Instructional Support Centre Mentor Emini	117 Emilija Zlatkovska
Scientific Reports	
Matter and Consciousness in Quantum Physics, Artificial Intelligence and Philosophy - An Ontology	129 Biljana Percinkova

Re-extraction of Fe, CU and Ni
from Organic Phase into Aqueous Phase

143
Fatmir Faiku
Mandushe Berisha
Murtezan Ismaili

Presentation

Development Directions of Albanian Science

149
Alajdin Abazi

Hyrje • Преговор • Foreword

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

On behalf of the editorial team, I would like to thank Dennis Wesner, a US Peace Corps volunteer at SEEU during 2006-7 who helped to establish the templates, place a call for and review articles submitted and Dr Marc Martin, a visiting academic from the USAID HELP project who over the same period helped to devise and introduce criteria for acceptance and standards for the production of articles. We are grateful to both of them and to other colleagues who have commented on the style and content of these Reviews.

The call for the next issue of the Review will be published later in the year, with a target date of March/April 2008 for the fifth issue.



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

Në emër të ekipit redaktues, do të kisha dashur të falënderoj Dennis Wesner-in, vullnetar në UEJL nga Peace Corps-at e SHBA-ve gjatë vitit 2006-2007, i cili na ndihmoi në krijimin e shablloneve, ftesën për artikujt dhe shqyrtimin e tyre dhe Dr Marc Martin-in, akademik vizitues i projektit USAID HELP, i cili gjatë periudhës së njëjtë ndihmoi për të zhvilluar dhe prezantuar kriteret e pranimin dhe standardet e krijimit të artikujve. Ne, ju falënderohemi të dyve, por edhe

kolegëve të tjerë për komentet lidhur me stilin dhe përmbajtjen e këtyre numrave të revistës.

Thirrja për numrin e ardhshëm do të publikohet më vonë, brenda vitit, me datë të paraparë për mars/prill 2008, për numrin e pestë me radhë.



Добредојдовте во четвртиот број на Прегледот на УЈИЕ. Овој број на прегледот содржи повеќе прилози од самиот УЈИЕ, како и од колеги кои работат во регионот, при што поголемиот дел од статиите се поврзани со тековните развојни случувања на УЈИЕ или во Република Македонија. Се обидовме да вклучиме што е можно повеќе статии од постари докажани истражувачи, како и помлади автори кои опишуваат дел од интересната активност на стратегиите за предавање и учење на УЈИЕ.

Во име на уредничкиот тим, би сакал да му се заблагодарам на Денис Веснер, волонтер на американските Пис Корпс (U.S. Peace Corps) во периодот од 2006- 07 кој помогна при креирањето на шаблоните, повикот за и прегледот на предадените статии, како и на Д-р Марк Мартин, визитинг академик од проектот ХЕЛП (HELP) на УСАИД (USAID) кој во текот на истиот период помогна при создавањето и воведувањето на критериуми за прифаќање и стандарди за создавањето на статиите. Ние сме им благодарни и на двајцата, како и на други колеги кои дадоа коментари за стилот и содржината на тие прегледи.

Повикот за следниот број на Прегледот ќе се објави подоцна во годината, со целен датум во март/април 2008 за петтиот број.

Denis Farrington

Kryeredaktor • Главен Уредник • Editor in Chief

Pro-ректор për hulumtime • Проректор за истражување • Pro Rector for Research

Resolving Deep Disagreement: A Case in Point

Vesel Memedi PhD

Communication Sciences and Technologies
South East European University

Abstract

The shocking statement made by Robert Fogelin over 20 years ago when he claimed that discourses that are in deep disagreement cannot be resolved rationally, is still causing many problems to argumentation theorists. In this paper, however, I argue that discourses that are in deep disagreement, at least some of them, can be rationally resolved by introducing the concept of “third party” to those particular discourses.

Abstrakt

Para 20 viteve, Robert Fogelin paraqiti një pohim shokues se diskurset që janë në mosmarrëveshje të thellë nuk mund të zgjidhen në mënyrë racionale. Ky pohim, ende u shkakton shumë probleme teoricienëve argumentues. Mirëpo, në këtë punim unë argumentoj se diskurset që janë në mosmarrëveshje të thella, së paku disa prej tyre, mund të zgjidhen në mënyrë racionale përmes konceptit të “palës së tretë.”

Апстракт

Пред 20 години Роберт Фогелин презентираше една шокантна изјава дека дискурсите што се во длабоко несогласување не можаат да бидат решени на рационален начин. Ова изјава се уште предизвикува огромни проблеми за теоретичарите по аргументација. Но, во ова статија ќе се трудам да докажам дека дискурсите што се во длабоко несогласување, некои од нив, можаат да бидат решени на рационален начин преку концептот на „третата страна.,,

Introduction

It is fair to say that generally speaking discourse is directed at mutual understanding. Human beings have a capacity to come to a shared understanding and agreement. If nothing more, at least they accept the real issues that divide them from the other interlocutor. But if we presuppose this rich background of agreement, how does disagreement even arise? According to Fogelin (1985), one obvious answer is that people involved in an argumentative exchange often have an interest in the way the argument is resolved. It is in their interest in resolving the argument in their own favour. Moreover, observes Fogelin, arguing, like other human activities, is subject to abuse. Human beings seem to be gifted with innate capacities for messing things up. In short, intentionally or unintentionally, disagreement is present in our every day discussions despite the fact that engaging in an argumentative exchange presupposes a background of shared commitments.

Sometimes, however, we have to deal with some discourses that show not only a “disagreement” in its simplest form, but discourses that are characterized as “deep disagreement” (Fogelin, 1985). In conflict situations, for example, things that would normally be taken for granted can suddenly become controversial. There are, for example, cases where parties to a conflict continue challenging each other’s positions regardless of the arguments presented by each other. There are many more conflicts concerning issues like positive discrimination, abortion, capital punishment, Schiavo’s case, and others that prevent the discussion from developing any further because each party claims to have strong arguments for the position that they hold and are not prepared to make any kind of concession to the other party. All these examples illustrate the fact that certain discussions get stuck from developing any further because there is no agreement on how certain facts can be tested between the parties. Such kinds of discussions are characterized as being in “deep disagreement.”

The role of “deep disagreement” in argumentative discourse

According to Fogelin (1985), an argumentative exchange is reasonable (he calls it “normal”) when it takes place within a context of broadly shared beliefs and preferences. There must exist joint procedures for resolving disagreements. Fogelin raises the question of what happens to arguments when the context is neither “normal” nor nearly normal. According to Fogelin, an argumentative exchange is normal “when it takes place within a context of broadly shared beliefs and preferences...there must exist shared procedures for resolving

disagreements” (Fogelin, 1985: 6). If the argumentative exchange does not fulfil this condition of “broadly shared beliefs and preferences,” asserts Fogelin, the argument becomes impossible. According to Fogelin, everything becomes pointless because argumentative exchange appeals to something that does not exist: no shared background beliefs or preferences. Fogelin refers to this situation as one of “deep disagreement.”

Although it is not completely clear what Fogelin meant by “deep disagreement,” he did state clearly what is not included in this notion. Fogelin accepts that a disagreement can be intense without being deep, and it can be unresolvable without being deep (1985:8). Therefore, “parties may be unbiased, free of prejudice, consistent, coherent, precise, and rigorous, yet still disagree with each other” (1995: 8). Deep disagreements, argues Fogelin, keep on appearing even when normal criticisms have been answered. They are resistant to appeals to facts. According to Fogelin, we get a deep disagreement when the argument is generated by a clash of framework propositions (1995:8). They are disagreements about fundamental principles. In short, deep disagreements are ones in which the “disputing parties lack a ‘normal’ background context of shared standards and beliefs, and are instead confronted with a collision of competing sets of belief, incapable of being disentangled through rational argumentation” (Adams, 2005: 66). They are disagreements in which none of the opposing parties is able to advance reasons as part of an argument that would make their opponent to accept their position.

According to Fogelin (1985), “deep disagreement” is not always a case of misunderstanding. Deep disagreement is often a case of understanding too well the gap that separates you from others. But disagreement can be more or less rational depending on the reasons one has. Rational disagreement requires that you understand the claim that you are rejecting, and this calls for putting yourself in the shoes of other people. If participants are unwilling to make a sincere effort to assess their motives the discursive process will go nowhere.

Let me turn now to the main reason behind this paper. If “deep disagreements” can arise, what rational procedures can be used for their resolution? The same question was posed by Fogelin over 20 years ago and he made some radical and shocking claims when he stated that there is nothing that we can do to resolve such disagreements. There is no way out of adjudicating a clash of this kind, maintained Fogelin, because the argument cannot play any role in resolving the disagreement because there is no shared background of beliefs and preferences. According to Fogelin, we can insist that not every deep disagreement is deep, that even with deep disagreements, people can argue well or badly. In the end, however, we should tell the truth: there are disagreements,

sometimes on important issues, which by their nature, are not subject to rational resolution (Fogelin, 1985: 11).

The same thing is maintained by Van Eemeren, Grootendorst, Jackson, and Jacobs (1993), who claim that such types of disagreements pose an empirical challenge to their position because participants have simply not entered into discussion with a resolution-minded attitude (1993: 171). The existence of deep disagreements, claim Van Eemeren, et al., sets a limit in principle on the problem solving validity of any procedural conception of argumentative reality (1993:171). According to these authors, the participants who are involved in such disagreements come to the discussion with interests they treat as privileged and as beyond debate. In such types of disagreements, both parties claim that the other is not an appropriate interlocutor. The misengagement is so great that each side sees it as evidence that the other side fails to meet basic requirements of rationality (Van Eemeren, et al., 1993:171-2). Where differences are so immense that parties cannot even engage in procedures to negotiate procedures, argumentation cannot really get started (1993:172).

This pessimistic thesis about resolving disagreements, advanced especially by Fogelin (1985), has been rejected on many occasions by various scholars (Lugg, 1992; Feldman, 2005; Frieman, 2005; and Adams, 2005). Feldman, for instance, argued that disagreements can be rational, even if the parties to the disagreement are not rational and would not resolve their disagreement by following the methods of rational argumentation (2005:14). Feldman continues disagreeing with Fogelin by saying that just because two individuals have psychological make-ups that prevent their disagreement from being resolved, it does not follow that no rational resolution of their disagreement is available (2005:15). According to Feldman, disagreements can be resolved in three ways: both parties that are at disagreement can end up believing P, both can end up believing P, or both can end up suspending judgment on the topic (2005:16-17).

Other scholars argue against Fogelin's position by criticizing the notion of deep disagreement in the first place because as Adams (2005) claims, Fogelin does not specify *a priori* conditions that make a disagreement deep. According to Adams, a deep disagreement can only be settled by exhausting the possible resources of normal discourse, and not shifting to "persuasion" as was maintained by Fogelin (1985:11). Andrew Lugg (1992) criticized Fogelin's position too, by concentrating on the two examples mentioned by Fogelin in explaining the notion of deep disagreement. For Lugg, it would be insane to say that debate on "abortion" and "positive discrimination" is of such a deep disagreement, as stated by Fogelin, because in those cases we have some fascinating arguments and a "normal" argumentative exchange from both sides of the divide, although the debate on these two issues still continues.

The intention of this paper, however, is not to comment on these criticisms towards Fogelin's position. They are mentioned here just to illustrate that there are some scholars who disagree with Fogelin's position that there is no rational resolution to discourses that are engaged in deep disagreement. In this paper, however, it is advanced another solution to such types of disagreement by introducing the notion of "third party."

The role of "standoff of force five" in argumentative discourse

Before presenting a new rational resolution to such discourses that are stuck in a "deep disagreement" it would be interesting to introduce another interesting work related to such types of discourses, but this time with a completely different name. This is the work of John Woods (1992) that was presented under the name of "standoff of force five." Disagreements, claims Woods (1992), sometimes generate mounting layers of intractability and so come within reach of a limit at which they go into a dialectical "black hole", at which point conditions for further negotiation lapse (1992:4). According to Woods, situations like this may paralyse public discourse. This paralysis arises from argumentational setbacks that Woods calls "standoff of force five."

According to Woods, standoffs of force five are closed-minded disagreements. Closed-minded disagreements are those disagreements the protagonists of which do not acknowledge that the opposite opinions are "real possibilities." Force-fivers, states Woods, "require one to batten down the hatches and to head inland" (Woods, 1992:8). A force fiver, claims Woods, could be described as one who resists resolution of a conflict by way of the general will even assuming that there is such a thing (1992:18). Woods mentions the case of "separatism in Quebec" as a case where the country was caught in a "standoff of force five" which was such that it could have left the country poised for civil war. On one side, claims Woods, we had people who wanted to separate from Canada, and on the other side we had some other people who wanted to remain inside Canada. Woods, also, mentions the case of abortion debate in Canada as an example of such intractable disagreement like standoff of force-five.

Disagreements of this type, claims Woods, are "close-minded, noisy and abusive," (1992:18) and often they involve issues of public policy which neither party is willing to surrender to any resolution mechanism which might give what each party respectively would regard as an unacceptable result. In short, claims Woods, such types of disagreements are the ones where "a protagonist is unwilling to surrender to any mechanism which might decide against him" (Woods, 1992:18). For Woods, these types of disagreement are logically

irresolvable. There is nothing that we can do about such disagreements, argues Woods.

In short, it can be seen that both these two concepts refer to the same thing: i.e., intractable disagreement heading towards a “black hole” where there is no returning back. Both Fogelin and Woods maintained that there is not much that can be done to rationally resolve such types of discourses. It was also shown that many scholars disagreed with such statements by proposing different rational solutions to the very same discourses that were depicted as irresolvable by Fogelin and later by Woods. In this paper, however, it will be proposed a completely new solution to the very same problem by introducing the concept of “third party.”

Resolving deep disagreement through the incorporation of “third party”

The authors mentioned so far suggested clearly that there is no rational resolution to the discourses that are in an intractable disagreement. We saw that both Fogelin (1985) and Woods (1992) argued in favour of this position because discourses of this type defy the very conditions of having a “normal” argumentative discussion (Fogelin, 1985), and that the parties involved in such discourses are unwilling to accept the possibility that the other party might be right (Woods, 1992). The same thing, more or less, was maintained by Van Eemeren, et al. (1993) who claim that such types of disagreement are difficult to handle, if not impossible, because participants have not entered into discussion with a resolution-minded attitude (1993:171).

In order to understand clearly Fogelin’s position, there is a need for concession by agreeing with him, as do many other authors, that discourses of deep disagreement nature do exist, albeit rare. However, just because an audience is not rational, it is not the case that we cannot argue with it. Just because two parties have nothing in common with regard to a certain problem, does not mean that we should ignore that particular discourse just because it is far away from resolving the disagreement at issue. We can still deal with such type of a discourse and pinpoint the defects of that particular discourse. At the same time, we can do yet another thing by going beyond the superficial level of the discourse trying to find the adequate picture of the audience. In the first level it might be true to find the discourse engaged in deep disagreement, but this discourse, in the second level, might not merely be so because it applies to different situations or different audiences (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969:477). If this is the case then, I argue that a discourse that has been identified

as being engaged in deep disagreement, at the first level, can be resolved by introducing the concept of “third party,” at the second level.

Here I just want to clarify that an insufficient picture of the audience, resulting from either lack of knowledge or an unexpected set of circumstances, can have unfortunate results both for the discourse itself and for the analyst as well. Having in mind that it often happens that a public speaker must persuade a composite audience, accepting people differing in character, loyalties, and functions, the analyst might find it hard to identify the “real” audience that the speaker is trying to reach. This in turn might pose problems for the discourse itself because it might find itself being engaged precisely in a deep disagreement. In such a situation, it is necessary to introduce the concept of “third party” as a solution to such types of disagreement. The concept of “third party” is offered only as a solution to my case study. It is unclear whether this would function for other cases of deep disagreement because it is possible that in such cases we have multiple parties. If we do otherwise, not only that the analysts will find themselves disagreeing with each other with regard to deep disagreement, but also they would not do justice to the reconstruction and the analysis of the discourse, and this would immediately pose problems for the evaluation as well.

The point of departure is that it is not very likely that human beings willingly enter into an intractable disagreement. Interlocutors will probably not know in advance that they will be locked into a “deep disagreement” and that they will continue to stick to their position no matter what. I believe that interlocutors often seem to be capable of behaving, more or less, according to the ideal conditions presupposed by the critical discussion model of pragma-dialectical approach. Therefore, the analyst is obliged to look more deeply into discourses that are characterized as being in deep disagreement because of the fact that interlocutors are capable of having a “normal” argumentative exchange. The reason why we are nonetheless faced with such discourses that are engaged in deep disagreement can be answered by the fact that this is happening at the first level of engagement, as mentioned earlier, but this is not so at the second level. In short, I believe that discourses that are in “deep disagreement,” at least some of them, can be treated as discourses that attempt resolution of difference of opinion, if we introduce the concept of “third party.”

In order to demonstrate the role of third party in discourses that are in deep disagreement, I am going to refer briefly to a case study from Macedonia. In 2001 Macedonia faced a conflict that lasted about 7-8 months between Macedonian governmental forces and the Albanian armed groups living in Macedonia. During this period, the media, be that the local or the international one started covering this conflict from the fear that this conflict might have far worse consequences than all other conflicts witnessed throughout the Former

Yugoslavia. Both the Macedonian and the Albanian language media, among all other things, were constantly concentrating on the causes of the conflict between the Macedonian governmental forces and the Albanian armed groups. The most noticeable observation in both sides of the media was the huge gap that existed in both camps with regard to the causes of the conflict. When seen from a birds eye perspective, one might be forgiven for claiming that we are talking of a completely two different conflicts. On one hand, the Macedonian language media was constantly claiming that the conflict was caused by the actions of Albanian people for creating the “Greater Albanian” state. On the other hand, however, the Albanian language media was constantly claiming that the conflict was initiated in order to get “Greater Rights” for the Albanians living in Macedonia. The discourse by Macedonian and Albanian language media displays precisely the kind of incommensurability of viewpoints that has been discussed until now. The columns presented in the newspapers were incapable of generating resolutions of disagreements. The discourse displays a “deep disagreement” of the highest magnitude.

The newspaper columns from both the Macedonian and the Albanian language media generated a deep disagreement of the highest magnitude if taken as a discussion between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media. The discussion can be viewed in this direction due to the fact that the disagreement was between these two sides of the media with regard to what caused the conflict. The Macedonian language media was trying to reach across at the other side by claiming that the conflict started because of the desire for a “Greater Albania.” On the other hand, the Albanian language media was trying to do the same thing by addressing the other side that the conflict started in order to get “Greater Rights.” At this superficial level, there are clear indications that the disagreement is between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media with regard to the causes of the conflict, and that this discussion has generated a deep disagreement of the type that Fogelin was referring to.

However, if we go beyond this superficial level, the analyst can reveal that there is a presence of another audience that plays a crucial role in reconstructing the discussion better between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media. This role is played by the “international community” and by the international community is meant the entire West. When we analyze the discussion at the second level, we can see that both the Macedonian and the Albanian language media were not trying to reach at each other, but at the international community. Both these two sides of the media function as a kind of a bridge in reaching the international community. The reason why these two sides of the media function as a bridge in reaching the international community, and not addressing it directly, is because there was absolutely no disagreement with the international community on the causes of the conflict. Both the Macedonian and the Albanian

language media could not address the international community directly because the international community was not part of the discussion at all. The issue of “Greater Albania” and the issue of “Greater Rights” had nothing to do with the international community. The Macedonian and the Albanian language media were simply attempting to convince the international community that the conflict started because of “Greater Albania” and not because of “Greater Rights,” respectively, and vice versa.

Having done all this, we can see now that the discourse should be reconstructed as such where the international community is incorporated inside the discussion between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media. This reconstruction will produce a kind of a triangle where the international community is on top of the discussion playing a role of a “judge.” This role meant as if the international community or the West are the only party that can judge the reasonableness of the arguments presented by both the Macedonian and the Albanian language media with regard to the issue of “Greater Albania” and “Greater Rights,” respectively. This kind of reconstruction opens the way for defending the claim made earlier with regard to the role of “third party,” i.e. the international community in resolving discourses that are stuck in deep disagreement.

From this superficial analysis, we can see that what was considered as a deep disagreement at the first level, cannot be said the same thing at the second level, when incorporating the “third party” into the same discourse. The deep disagreement that was created in the discussion between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media is non-existent when incorporating the international community or the West into the discourse. At this stage, we can see a “normal” argumentative exchange, to use Fogelin’s concept, between the Macedonian and the Albanian language media in relation to the international community. The reasoning of the Macedonian and the Albanian language media is part of the appeal to the common beliefs, values, and starting points in relation to the international community or the West. Therefore, with the incorporation of “third party” into those discourses that are in deep disagreement, at least some of them, we can have a normal disagreement where parties in a discussion will attempt to resolve it through the use of arguments.

Establishing criteria for recognising “third party”

Until now, it has been discussed the role of “third party” in those discourses that are at deep disagreement. It was mentioned that certain discourses sometimes address other audiences than the one addressed directly. It was mentioned that in those cases in which the antagonist is called upon it becomes necessary to develop as accurate a projection of this antagonist as possible in order that the rhetorical moves employed by the protagonist be as persuasive as possible. It was shown that discourses of which we do not know who the “real” audience is, creates real difficulties for both the protagonist and the analyst. Govier (1999) argues that the problem with such an audience from the perspective of the protagonist is that “one knows so little about it and cannot interact with it at the stage when one needs to do so in order to improve the quality of one’s argument” (1999:195). Therefore, how can one recognize whether the discourse is referring to the Macedonian or Albanian language media respectively, in the case study at hand, or the international community, as mentioned earlier? In short, how can we establish that a certain discourse involves a “third party” or not?

According to Bitzer (1968), there are two conditions or criteria for recognizing who the “real” audience is that the discourse is referring to. The first criterion, according to Bitzer, is that an audience in a discourse is the one that must be “capable of being influenced.” There must be a certain elementary level of regard and openness to the speaker or writer’s arguments. For Bitzer, it does not make any sense to try to persuade an audience if that audience is not capable of being persuaded. It is possible, of course, for the discussants in practice not to think in the same way as does Bitzer. Nevertheless, this idea corresponds to what was stated earlier that it would be naïve to suggest that discussants willingly enter into such discussions of intractable disagreement. At the superficial level, it might look like that discussants continue to attempt to persuade even those that seems cannot be persuaded, but at a more deeper level, discussants seem to address those that can be persuaded. If the audience does not have this condition, argues Bitzer, then it would be fruitless or even impossible to try to influence an audience.

I use this condition by Bitzer, as a first criterion of recognizing the role of “third party” in an argumentative discourse. It simply means that an analyst is supposed to search inside the discourse an audience that can be influenced. This criterion would not allow any discourse of the type of “deep disagreement” where the parties in a discussion stick to their own position regardless of the strengths of the arguments by the other party. In such a situation, no audience is capable of being influenced. Bringing this criterion to the case study at hand, we would say that according to Bitzer, we have to search for an audience that is

capable of being influenced, i.e. the international community, and to ignore the discussion between the Macedonian and Albanian language media because of the fact that both of them stick to their own position without any chance of being influenced by one another.

The second condition, which for the case study at hand is even more important, says that an audience is that group of individuals who have the capacity to act as “mediators of change.” According to Bitzer, an audience is that person or group of people that has the capacity to change things. If an audience does not have that capability to change things in favour of the one or the other side, then there is no need to try to persuade them in the first place. Usually, this type of audience that acts as “mediators of change” is more “powerful” than the one who is directly addressed, or that is physically present during the discussion.

In the case study at hand, this particular audience can be recognized quite easily because of the fact that at the time the international community was the only party capable of playing the role of mediators of change because they were powerful enough to play this role. On the other hand, this criterion implies that it does not make any sense to consider the Macedonian or the Albanian language media as if they attempt to persuade each other because none of them had that capacity to play the role of mediators of change. Inferring from Bitzer’s condition, it would be naïve to imply that the Macedonian language media were attempting to convince the Albanian side because this side did not have that capacity to change things. The same thing might be said about the other side as well.

It would be naïve to state that these two criteria are universal ones in the sense that they can be applied to every kind of discourse. Probably these two criteria should be tested to see whether they have a firm ground, but at this stage it can be said that they are sufficient for helping identifying the role of third party, i.e. international community, in the case study at hand. There is no intention generalizing these two criteria to other types of discourses.

Conclusion

The aim of this modest paper was to shed some light to the already existing debate on the implications of Fogelin’s idea that there is no rational resolution to discourses that are characterized as being in deep disagreement (*The Journal of Informal Logic* has dedicated a special issue to this debate). I tried to summarize most of research done on this topic without any intention to comment on the solutions presented by various scholars to the idea that there is no rational solution to discourses that are stuck in deep disagreement. In this paper, it was

made an attempt to provide another solution by reconstructing the discourse in a more careful way with the introduction of “third party.” By working on a case study, albeit very superficially, we tried to show the role played by the international community in understanding a discourse better, although at the beginning the same discourse was considered part of what Fogelin called “deep disagreement.” Through this reconstruction, the discourse that at first level was treated as “abnormal,” at the second level became “normal” thanks to the role played by the “third party.” At the end, we tried to provide some criteria, not meant to be exclusive at all, in helping to identify the role played by the third party, i.e. the international community.

References

1. Adams, D.M. (2005). “Knowing when Disagreements are Deep.” *Informal Logic*, Vol. 25, No. 1.
2. Bitzer, L. F. (1968). “The Rhetorical Situation.” *Philosophy and Rhetoric* 1.1: 1-14.
3. Feldman, R. (2005). “Deep Disagreement, Rational Resolutions, and Critical Thinking.” *Informal Logic*, Vol. 25, No. 1.
4. Fogelin, R. J. (1985). "The Logic of Deep Disagreements." *Informal Logic* 7: 1-8.
5. Friemann, R. (2005). “Emotional backing and the feeling of deep disagreement.” *Informal Logic*, Vol. 25, No. 1.
6. Govier, T. (1999). *The Philosophy of Argument*. Newport News: Vale Press
7. Lugg, A. (1992). “Reply: Deep Disagreement and Informal Logic: No Cause for Alarm.” *Informal Logic*, 8.1, 47-51.
8. Perelman, C. & Olbrechts-Tyteca, L. (1969). *The new rhetoric: A treatise on argumentation*. (Wilkinson, J. and Weaver, P. Trans.). Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame.
9. Van Eemeren, F.H., Grootendorst, R., Jackson, S. & Jacobs, S. (1993). *Reconstructing Argumentative Discourse*. Tuscaloosa: U of Alabama P.
10. Woods, J. (1992). “Public Policy and Standoffs of Force Five”, in *Logic and Politics of Culture*, edited by Barth, E.M. and Krabbe, E.C.W. Amsterdam: North-Holland, 9-108

L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies: A Pilot Study at South East European University

Brikena Xhaferi, MSc

Assistant, Language Centre, SEEU

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe vocabulary learning strategies that the students of South East European University (SEEU) use to find out the meaning of new English words when they encounter in reading academic texts. Data was collected from five SEEU students studying in different departments. They read three passages with different number of words. After marking down the words never seen before and the words seen but the meaning could not be recalled, the participants stopped and verbalized their thinking processes in the retrospective procedures. The think-aloud processes were analyzed for vocabulary learning processes and strategies, based on only one stage of vocabulary learning: initial handling of an unknown word in English. To overcome the vocabulary difficulty the learners generally have choices like the Monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, online dictionary, guess work, a language teacher and the native speaker. The present study reports the actual strategy use of good readers when they face obstruction in the form of unfamiliar words. The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale was used to measure the gains before and after reading the text. There was not any dramatic difference found between the participants in using the tools for finding out the meaning of the unknown words in English. However, all strategies used by them are described in detail and implications for theory and practice are drawn.

Abstrakt

Qëllimi i këtij studimi është të përshkruajë strategjitë, të cilat studentët e Universitetit të Europës Juglindore (UEJL), i përdorin për mësimin e fjalëve në gjuhën angleze që i hasin gjatë leximit të teksteve akademike. Të dhënat janë mbledhur nga pesë studentë që studiojnë në fakultete të ndryshme. Ata, lexuan tre tekste leximi me një numër të ndryshëm të fjalëve. Pasi i nënvizuan fjalët që nuk i kanë hasur kurrë dhe fjalët që i kanë hasur, por nuk u kujtohej kuptimi, pjesëmarrësit ndaleshin dhe e verbalizonin procesin e të menduarit në procedurë

retrospektive. Proceset e të menduarit të zëshëm për mësimin e fjalëve në gjuhën angleze u analizuan, duke u bazuar vetëm në fazën e parë të hasjes së fjalëve në tekst. Për të tejkaluar këtë vështirësi, studentët kishin zgjidhje të ndryshme, si: fjalori njëgjuhësor, fjalori dygjuhësor, fjalori elektronik, përkthimi në bazë të kontekstit, mësimdhënësi dhe folësit burimor. Studimi në fjalë, jep të dhëna për përdorimin aktual të strategjive nga ana e studentëve të mirë kur ata konfrontohen me problemet, që dalin gjatë përvetësimit të fjalëve të panjohura. Shkalla e njohurive të fjalëve u përdor për të matur përvetësimin e fjalëve para dhe pas leximit të tekstit. Duhet theksuar se nuk u vërejt ndryshim i madh te pjesëmarrësit gjatë përdorimit të mjeteve për ta gjetur domethënien e fjalëve të panjohura në anglisht. Sidoqoftë, të gjitha strategjitë e përdorura nga pjesëmarrësit janë të përshkruara në detaje dhe janë nxjerrë disa ndërlidhje të teorisë dhe praktikës.

Апстракт

Намената на оваа студија беше да се опишат стратегиите за учење зборови кои ги користат студентите од Универзитетот на Југо-источна Европа (УЈИЕ) за откривање на значењето на новите зборови од англискиот јазик при првото среќавање со нив во академските текстови за читање. Податоците беа добиени од пет студенти од УЈИЕ кои студираат во различни групи. Тие прочитаа три дела од текст со различен број на зборови. По забележувањето на зборовите кои претходно не ги сретнале, како и зборовите кои претходно ги сретнале, но за кои не можеле да се сетат на значењето, учесниците запреа и ги вербализираа своите мисловни процеси во ретроспектива. Процесите на гласно размислување беа анализирани во поглед на процесите и стратегиите за учење зборови, врз основа на само една фаза од учењето на зборови: првично справувањесо непознат збор на англиски. Со цел да се надминат тешкотиите со зборовите, студентите вообичаено имаат избор како еднојазичен речник, двојазичен речник, онлајн речник, предвидување, предавачот по англиски и родениот говорител. Оваа студија ја опишува самата употреба на стратегијата на добрите читатели кога истите ќе се соочат со пречка во форма на непознати зборови. За да се измерат резултатите пред и после читањето на текстот беше употребена Скалата за познавање на зборови. Не постоеше голема разлика помеѓу учесниците при употребата на инструменти за откривање на значењето на непознатите зборови од англиски. Сепак, сите стратегии кои студентите ги користат се детално опишани и направени се заклучоци поврзани со теоријата и праксата.

Introduction

English language teaching and learning is a very important part of the teaching process at the South East European University (SEEU), especially in the Language Centre (LC). LC offers language courses to all students enrolled at the University. The syllabi are skill-based and vocabulary learning is a central part of it. Often, in Macedonia English language teachers and other foreign language teachers focus their instruction on teaching grammar (dictation, translation and reading) whereas vocabulary and communication competences were less stressed. Therefore, the present study aims to draw some conclusions on students' use of vocabulary learning strategies.

Previously, in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) the researchers focused their studies on how the learners acquire grammar (syntax, morphology and phonology) but not much on how the learners acquire vocabulary regardless that the lexis is a central part of any language. A scant attention was paid to lexis until the last 2 decades when pioneers from Nottingham, Swansea, Amsterdam and Haifa started to set out research programmes in the field of vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary acquisition is an area where no research was done with these students and the results drawn from this research will serve students to improve strategies in learning new English words and become more successful learners.

The following pilot study is designed to explore and describe the strategies and processes employed by university level students who study at SEEU and the study questions are:

- What strategies do learners at SEEU use in attempting to understand unknown words they encounter while reading?
- Do the unknown words become more familiar if they are encountered several times?
- What is the main resource that the students use at the initial stage of learning unknown words?

Literature Review

According to Coady and Huckin (1997:5) “vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Nevertheless, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition throughout its varying stages and up to the present day”. If

we look carefully at the different teaching methods starting from the Grammar Translation Method up to the latest one, Natural Approach, vocabulary learning is the area least emphasized in the language teaching.

Learning L2 vocabulary is a complex process which involves not only an understanding of how a word looks on the page but also how it is spelled and how it sounds, both when listened to and spoken, plus a whole list of other features such as grammatical status, appropriate register, what the word collocates with, how frequently the word is use and what it means. (Ryan, 1997:181)

Vocabulary in reading texts is a real obstruction for foreign language learners attempting to understand the text. To overcome this difficulty, the learners chose their preferred ways to understand the meaning of these words. The most used strategies to infer the word meaning from the text at the initial handling of an unknown word in English for university level students seemed to be: monolingual, bilingual and online-dictionary, guess work, a teacher and a native speaker.

Fraser (1999) suggests that the lexical processing strategies used by L2 learners (Francophone university students) are: inferencing, consulting dictionary and skipping the unknown words. In her study she found that the most preferred strategy was inferencing, followed by consulting a dictionary and then ignoring the words as the least. It was also observed that the study participants made use of context to guess the meaning of the words initially, and then either consulted the dictionary for the synonym or definition of the word or simply skipped them.

Stoller and Grabe (1993) suggest that vocabulary knowledge can be acquired gradually and incrementally in a myriad of contexts through repeated exposure and this may lead to incidental learning of some lexical items. However, little is understood regarding how the incidental learning occurs, particularly with respect to the cognitive and metacognitive processes learners engage in when encountering unfamiliar words while reading and how differences in these processes affect vocabulary learning. The underlying assumption has been that incidental vocabulary learning primarily occurs through the process of inferring word meaning (Fraser 1999:226).

Schmitt (2000:133) warns that “when considering which vocabulary learning strategies to recommend to our students, we need to consider the overall learning context. The effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used will depend on a number of variables, including the proficiency level, L1 and culture of students, their motivation and purpose for learning the L2, the task and text being used, and the nature of L2 itself”.

This has been proven by many studies that were conducted with different student cultures based on their preferred strategies for learning new English words.

Method

The study took place at SEEU and there were five students involved. The procedure lasted two weeks and I administered it individually. The study participants were 2 students taking ESP CS (English for Specific Purposes at Computer Science Department) and 3 students belonging to levels 2,3 and 4 (Common European Framework, B2) general English course. The think-aloud processes, retrospective interviews, were analyzed for vocabulary learning processes and strategies, based on only one stage of vocabulary learning: initial handling of an unknown word in English. This method was selected to find the actual use of strategies and the cognitive processes that the participants use to discover the meaning of the unknown words encountered in reading academic texts.

Table 1: The background of the pilot study participants

	Level of English Course	Gender	Age	Major	#of years studying English
Participant 1	Two	Female	21	Teacher Training	7 years
Participant 2	ESP 4	Male	23	Computer Sciences	15 years
Participant 3	ESP 1	Female	22	Computer Science	10 years
Participant 4	Four	Male	19	Public Administration	9 years
Participant 5	Three	Female	20	Law	11 years

Participants

All five participants had the same educational background and had grown up in relatively wealthy environments. Their ages were from 19-23; they were studying in different Departments at SEEU. Prior to the study, I was told that they had never taken any strategy training sessions and were not aware of the vocabulary learning strategies they use in learning new words. The study participants were

surprised at the existence of so many vocabulary learning strategies. Before the individual sessions were organized, they all claimed that they use bilingual, monolingual or online dictionaries when they encounter an unknown word for the first time. But, they considered that guessing the meaning from the context is a strategy that they would like to develop more. At later stages, they ask the teacher to make sure that they have the correct meaning and continued practising the word by using it in good example sentences. They occasionally refer to a native speaker when one is available.

They were enrolled into different study fields, but General English and English for Specific Purposes are the courses required in the syllabi. They were aware of the importance of English in Macedonia and their future career; therefore they volunteered to participate in the present study and were available at any time. What is more, they were eager to participate in the study and expressed interest in participating in this project because they considered it as very good experience.

Materials

The reading passages were comprised of three articles chosen from the British newspaper *The Guardian* (the weekly edition): the theme was education, specifically the learning of foreign languages in primary and secondary schools in England. Text 1 contained 529 words, Text 2 contained 431 words and Text 3 contained 492 words.

The first action was Reading Only: the learners read the three texts then indicated their knowledge of the words in The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale. The Scale was used to measure the gains in pre and post-administration of the target words and to compare the unknown words before and after few encounters and the use of different sources in one session.

Procedure

The aim of the study was to get some specific information about the vocabulary learning strategies that the students use in attempting to understand the unknown words from the reading text, and what do they do to acquire them. The idea is to find out how do the students deal with unknown words and whether the words become familiar that is, if the score will be increased in the VKS, if the students encounter the same word several times. At the beginning of each interview, they were asked about their preferred source of information on new words.

R=Researcher

P=Participant

Excerpt 1:

- R: What strategy do you use to find out the meaning of the unknown words? Why?
- P1: I use the on-line dictionary because it helps me to remember the word's pronunciation.
- P2: The teacher is the best source even when I am at home I write the word down and ask my teacher about the meaning.
- P3: I use the bilingual dictionary because it helps me to remember the meaning of the unknown word in my native language.
- P4: I use the monolingual dictionary because I learn more definitions.
- P5: I use the on-line dictionary because it is richer and I always carry my laptop with me.

The tools available to the participants to find out the word meaning were: Albanian-English dictionary (1995), Macedonian-English dictionary (2001), Longman dictionary of Contemporary English, Longman Idioms dictionary (1998), Longman Phrasal verbs (2000) and they had access to the on-line dictionary. There was also a work study student, who has lived in the USA for 17 years, available to them as a native speaker and a teacher. The participants had access to different choices and they had to choose their preferred one.

Following the informal interview about the preferred sources of information, every participant was trained in using the think-aloud procedures. Each participant was given a story picture and then they were asked to retell a story. In individual sessions lasting 50-80 minutes the participants described their cognitive processes in retrospective interviews about the ways of how they deal with unknown words in the text. In fact, inferencing is considered as a receptive process and the students use it when they are engaged in the tasks that are being discussed in the class.

During the first reading the participants were asked to read the texts as they would normally read in any reading class and underline the words they have never seen before using red colour. During the second reading the participants

were asked to underline the words they have seen but do not recall the meaning using black colour. This revealed words that the participants were interested in and if the same words were unknown to all participants.

Notes were taken all the time and in order to describe their cognitive processes the participants were prompted with the following questions:

1. Can you guess the meaning of that word from the context?
2. What are you thinking now?
3. I see you are shaking your head, why are you doing that?
4. Are you trying to understand the word's meaning?
5. How are you trying to do that?
6. Tell me, how did you come to the conclusion that ___means___?

After the second reading, the participants were given a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale in order to measure the initial word knowledge in each text. The idea was to see if the score, starting from 1 (I have never seen the word before) or 2 (I don't know what this word means) can increase to 3, 4 or 5 after few encounters of the unknown words and the use of different sources in only one session.

Figure 1: Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Paribakht & Wesche 1996)

VKS	Possible Scores
I. I HAVE NEVER SEEN THE WORD BEFORE	1
II. I DON'T KNOW WHAT THIS WORD MEANS	2
III. I KNOW THIS WORD. IT MEANS _____ (PROVIDE AN ENGLISH SYNONYM)	3
IV. I CAN TRANSLATE THIS WORD INTO MY NATIVE LANGUAGE _____	4
V. I CAN USE THIS WORD IN A GOOD EXAMPLE SENTENCE. WRITE YOUR SENTENCE HERE: _____	5

The participants were asked to verbalize what they were thinking while doing the tasks and were asked to discuss the way they guessed the word meaning from the context. When the participants failed to guess the word meaning, they were asked to use another lexical processing strategy what would they use to remember the word. Inferring the word meaning from the context, consulting the

dictionary (monolingual, bilingual and on-line), asking a teacher and a native speaker for the word meaning were the lexical processing strategies used by the participants.

Throughout the procedure, the researcher followed the participants very carefully trying to capture every movement that was done by the participants. This was administered individually to make the participants to feel more comfortable. The sessions were all individual and lasted for 40-60 minutes in the Language Centre, Resource Room.

Pilot Study Result

The results of the analyses show that all of the above mentioned vocabulary learning strategies were used by the study participants. During every reading they encountered either words they have never seen before or they have seen them but can not recall the meaning. After the identification of the unknown words they consulted a bilingual dictionary, monolingual dictionary, took the surrounding context into account and used contextual cues, used the on-line dictionary, asked a teacher and a native speaker who was available all the time. The characteristics show that every participant approached learning of the words in a unique way either using one strategy for one word or using different ones for the other word. So, none of them demonstrated the same pattern of strategy use. The strategies that the students used to infer the word meaning are presented in Table 2:

Table 2: The frequency of the successful strategy use for inferring the meaning of the unknown word

Vocabulary Learning Strategies used						
Partic ipants	No. of words never seen before & the words whose meaning couldn't been recalled	Monolingual Dictionary	Bilingual Dictionary	On-line Dictio- nary	Guess Work	Native speaker
G.	37 words	9	25	0	3	0
S.	6 words	1	0	2	3	3
V.	33 words	8	15	0	5	5
B.	23 words	10	2	1	8	2

H.	27 words	2	3	12	8	2
	Total no. of words	30	45	14	30	12

Bilingual dictionary

Of five participants, four participants G, V, B and H used a bilingual dictionary (English –Albanian) despite the fact that a monolingual dictionary was available to the students. G. consulted the bilingual dictionary for almost every unknown word because she reported that she feels more confident when she knows the translation in Albanian. She first found the meaning of the word, example the word *overseas* means in Albanian *pertej detit*, then she writes it down in her notebook.

S. did not use the bilingual dictionary at all because, as he reported, it is enough for him to know the definition of the word in English and remember it. Since his vocabulary knowledge is very wide he used contextual clues for every word encountered. V. used the bilingual dictionary for 18 words that she encountered in three reading texts but she also used the other strategy to remember the meaning of the same word. She also used the monolingual dictionary a lot. For 23 unknown words encountered, B. used the bilingual dictionary for two words. Those two words were completely unknown to him. In the end, H. for 23 words she encountered, she used the bilingual dictionary only for three and as reported she rarely uses this kind of dictionary because it is time consuming. The detailed profile of each participant is presented in Table 2 and the bilingual dictionary was used by all participants for 45 words.

As reported by four participants, the main reason for using the bilingual dictionary was the word translation in the native language. It was easier for them to remember the word if they know the equivalent one in the native language. Especially G. translated the phrases and then the whole sentence in the text to remember the word meaning.

After reading the text carefully she stopped and translated the part of the sentence or the whole sentence where the unknown word appears. For instance:

...the leaders (*udhëheqësit*) believe (*mendojnë*) a **lack** of language skills (*e aftësive gjuhësore*) and understanding (*dhe kuptimi*) of the Chinese market (*i tregut kinez*) is holding Britain back (*frenojnë Britaninë*).

She repeated it several times and finally understood that **a lack** means in Albanian *mungesa*.

From the above excerpt taken from the verbal protocol it can be seen that the participant analyzed and translated every phrase into Albanian to come to the word meaning.

Monolingual dictionary

The monolingual dictionary was used by all participants in the study and for B. it was the main strategy employed. Out of ten unknown words encountered in three texts he used the monolingual dictionary for all ten. He reported that the monolingual dictionary helps him to remember the word easily because of the definition in English and the example sentences when the word more frequently appears. However, there was a difficulty noticed because he could not immediately find out the appropriate meaning. For instance: the word *embark* has the following meanings: to get onto a ship, to put something onto a ship, and the third meaning *embark on* means to start to do something new. Obviously, he did not mark the word unknown as the phrasal verb, *embark on* but only *embark*. Then he turned to the online dictionary and checked the meaning in Albanian which was *filloj* and again started reading the whole sentences to make sure that this is the right meaning.

On the other hand, H. reported that she only uses the monolingual dictionary when she studies at home and has more time to deal with unknown words related to her field of study, Law. She felt that the monolingual dictionary is richer with definitions and explanations than the bilingual dictionary. V. used the monolingual dictionary for eight unknown words that she could not find in the bilingual dictionary. For the word *to warn* she found the meaning very easily by translating the sentence into Albanian, and as reported the cue word was *but he wouldn't listen*. S. used the monolingual dictionary for one word only, *interim*. This was the case when he attempted to guess the word meaning but he could not make any intelligent guess, so he consulted the dictionary, looked up *interim* and related it to the text: *interim report*.

On-line dictionary

The on-line dictionary was used for 14 words encountered but was used by three participants only. The two participants who did not use the online dictionary reported that this kind of dictionary can not be accessible in every situation and if they used it more often it meant that they have to read and at the same time

search the Web. Or, it takes longer to download. Nevertheless, the three participants who used it reported that it is very fast and very rich in terms of offering many choices for one word. H. used it the most and she was carrying a laptop with her all the time. During the verbal reports, I noticed that she was typing everything and tried to find out the meaning in the on-line dictionary all the time. She was also focusing on the synonyms and correct word spelling. Then, in another word document she typed the word meaning. For five other unknown words she consulted both dictionaries because she felt that the combination of different strategies enhance lexical comprehension.

Guess work

This strategy was used by all participants and contextual cues were used to get the meaning of the unknown words. For S. this strategy was the most preferred one and he made three intelligent guesses for words: *compulsory*, *quipped* and *hampering*. However, his first guess for *opting* was not correct because he thought that it means *attending* based on the context. Then, he moved to the monolingual dictionary and found out the correct meaning *choosing*. He reported that he makes intelligent guesses by reading a whole sentence few times and then he picked up the cues that might be helpful in figuring out the meaning of the unknown word. For instance:

From 2010, it will be a **compulsory** part of the national curriculum for children from the age of seven to 14 to study a modern foreign language, (the contextual cue was the national curriculum)

For G. guessing was analyzing the parts of the words and she reported that she can make more intelligent guesses if the word is compound or contains affixes. For instance the word *timetable* in the sentence:

...the primary school timetable was made by Lord Dearing today in his final report...

She analyzed time was in Albanian *kohë* and table means *tavolinë* which automatically would mean something like weather table which is incorrect but she decided that this does not make any sense and it must be *orari i mësimi* (translation in Albanian).

B. and H. were also good guessers and they both read the sentences first translated them into Albanian and made intelligent guesses for 16 words.

Native speaker

Four participants out of five asked the native speaker who was available in every session of the interview. G. felt that she should not depend on this resource because she rarely meets them. It was noticeable that the participant asked the native speaker only in cases when they had trouble understanding the explanation of that unknown word or they were interested in word pronunciation. Generally they do not rely much on asking native speakers to find out the meaning of the unknown words.

Conclusion

This study attempted to explore the use of vocabulary learning strategies that the University students use to find out the word meaning when they encounter during reading of any text. Verbal report of every participant expressed the reason why do they choose the tools to infer the word meaning from the context. It has been observed that all participants have their unique way of using word learning strategies and their beliefs that these were the best ways for them to learn. In order to find out what do the students do when they encounter the word for the first time while reading, and the lexical processing strategies they use in trying to inference the meaning of the words in context, I conducted a pilot study. This study would guide me in doing the procedure for the main study with the larger number of participants and it will be expanded in two stages of vocabulary learning: at the initial handling of discovering the words and strategies employed by the learners and the retention strategies the learners used in order to commit the words to their memories.

References

1. Anderson, R. C and Freebody, P. (1981): Vocabulary Knowledge. In J.T Guthrie (Ed), *Comprehension and teaching*, Research Reviews, 77-117.
2. Brown, T. S. & Perry, F. L. (1991). A comparison of three learning strategies for ESL Vocabulary acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 655-670.
3. Coady, J and Huckin, Th. (1997): *Second Language Vocabulary Learning. A rationale for Pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press

4. Doughty, J, Catherine. and Long H. Micheal H. (2005): The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition. Blackwell Publishing
5. Dörnyei, Zoltán and Skehan, Peter 2005: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition. In: The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition .589-590
6. Folse, K.S. (2006): The Effect of Type of Written Exercises on L2 Vocabulary Retention. In: TESOL Quarterly Volume 40, Nr.2, June 2006.
7. Fraser, C. (1999). Lexical processing strategy use and vocabulary learning through reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 225-41.
8. Nation, I.S.P. (2001) *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
9. Oxford, R.L. 1990: *Language Learning Strategies. What every teacher should know*. Boston. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
10. Paribakht, T. S. & Wesche, M. (1999). Reading and incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition: An introspective study of lexical inferencing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 195-224.
11. Ryan, A. (1997): *Learning the orthographical form of L2 vocabulary - a receptive and a productive process*
12. Stoller, F & Grabe, W (1993): *Implications for L2 Vocabulary Acquisition and Instruction from L1 Vocabulary Research*
13. Schmitt, Norbert 2000: *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge Language Education.

An Empirical Study of Consumer Perceptions toward Apparel Brand Names in Macedonia

Marc Martin PhD

Former Pro-Dean, Business Administration Faculty
South East European University
Consultant, Indiana University

Abstract

The consumer, in Macedonia or in other markets, may consider a range of cues in their decision to buy. Because of limited empirical research existing concerning consumers in Macedonia, this study attempts to understand what prompts (i.e., influences) them in their apparel¹ purchasing process. More specifically, this research involves examining the consumer's perception toward apparel brand names related to their purchasing decisions in Macedonia. Using both quantitative and qualitative methods, a team of researchers administer questionnaires via a non-probability convenience sampling technique acquiring 172 respondents representing various age, income, gender, and geographical groups. After determining that 141 questionnaires appeared useable, this empirical investigation reveals some expected and unexpected data about consumers' perceptions of apparel brand names in Macedonia.

Abstrakt

Konsumatori, në Maqedoni, apo në tregjet tjera, mund të shqyrtojë një varg sinjalesh para se të vendosë të blejë. Për shkak të hulumtimeve empirike të kufizuara, që ekzistojnë lidhur me konsumatorët në Maqedoni, ky studim përpiket të kuptojë se çka ndikon në ta në kuptim të procesit të tyre të blerjes. Në mënyrë më specifike, ky hulumtim përfshin ekzaminimin e perceptcionit të konsumatorit drejt emrave të njohur që kanë të bëjnë me vendimet e tyre për blerje këtu në Maqedoni. Duke përdorur edhe metodat sasiore edhe ato cilësore, një grup hulumtuesish i administrojnë pyetësorët drejt një teknike të jopropabilitetit me mostra të interesit me 172 të anketuar, përfaqësues të moshave, të të ardhurave, gjinive dhe grupeve të ndryshme gjeografike. Pasi ishte vendosur se 141 pyetësorët ishin të përdorshëm, nga hetimi empirik u shpalesën

disa të dhëna të pritura, por edhe të papritura për perceptimin e konsumatorëve përkitazi me emrat e njohur të veshjeve në Maqedoni.

Апстракт

Потрошувачот, во Македонија или на другите пазари, може во предвид да земе многу аспекти при донесувањето на решение да купи. Поради постоечкото лимитирано емпириско истражување за потрошувачите во Македонија, оваа студија прави обид да сфати што ги поттикнува (т.е. влијае врз) процесот на купување на облека. Поточно, во ова истражување е вклучено испитувањето на согледувањето на потрошувачот за брендovите на облека кои се поврзани со нивните одлуки за купување во Македонија. Преку користење на квантитативни и квалитативни методи, тим од истражувачи спроведуваат прашалници преку техника на издвојување базирана на неверојатност, за која се потребни 172 испитаници со различна возраст, доход, род и географска група. Откако се утврди дека 141 прашалници се употребливи, ова емпириско истражување откри очекувани и неочекувани податоци за перцепциите на потрошувачите за брендovите на облека во Македонија.

Background

Increasingly, in today's environment organizations have strategically competed more than at a local level but also in a global situation. In turn, Solomon (2007) has strongly argued this makes analyzing and understanding consumer behaviour (e.g., segmentation, attitudes, opinions, and so forth) more challenging because of the diversity of the market (i.e., developed, developing, transitional, regional, and so on). Yet to remain viable, customer-oriented organizations have gathered appropriate and useful consumer behaviour information that can lead to a competitive advantage. On the whole, strategic organizations increasingly have monitored their consumers in order to comprehend and/or determine their needs and desires when they make their decision to buy products or services. However, Solomon (2007) has noted that an assortment of factors, consciously and unconsciously, influences the consumer as they make their purchase decision. Likewise, the research has illustrated a multitude of drivers and attributes that interact while attempting to satisfy the consumer's needs and desires (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal 1991; Forsythe & Kim, 1999). In a broad sense, the literature has defined consumer behaviour as an integrative study of understanding consumer perceptions, demographics, psychology, sociology, extensive market research and so on, in an attempt to determine the how, where, when, what, and why influencing a consumer's purchasing decision (Solomon, 2007).

Meanwhile, recent studies pointed out that brand names give value to specific apparel products when consumers buy (Neaman, 1998). Moreover, in 2002, Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG) reported that gradually more organizations invest into developing and/or sustaining their brand names. They also noted that this occurs because consumers view apparel brand name decision-making, as well as other product and services, as an easy, well tested, and trusted process. In addition, many consumers and organizations have deemed the term label/brand name as interchangeable with brand. As a result, perhaps consumers often have associated quality with brand.

Presently, this study has found that the market in Macedonia has limited research concerning consumer behaviour when they purchase apparel brand names. Incidentally, transitional and developing markets similar to Macedonia typically have had restricted market research information associated with consumer behaviour (Malhotra, 2007). Thus, this investigation has endeavoured to enhance the knowledge regarding the consumer's buying habits in Macedonia, influencing factors, and decision making by expanding a partial market database to provide various stakeholders (e.g., for-profit, government, and other entities) with practical value. Furthermore, this investigation has attempted to assist business people and/or organizations by improving their understanding of consumers' behaviours, needs, wants, and/or desires related to brand products and services purchases as Macedonia proceeds with its transformation to a free market system with the likely outcome of intensified competition. Besides, KPMG (2002) have noted that the range of "branded" and "unbranded" apparel products apparently grow. Equally important, they noted that current trend analysis and market databases assist in shaping an organization's marketing strategy, i.e., the marketing mix of the four P's focused upon a consumer-centric orientation.

More specifically, this study has investigated what drives the consumer apparel purchasing decisions in Macedonia based on four central cues (i.e., ideas and supporting data that bear directly on the quality of the arguments developed into some meaning used by the consumer). In this case, the literature (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Forsythe Kim, Petee, Dozier, & Chapman., 1999; Kim, Forsythe, Gu, & Moon, 2002; Nooh & Powers, 1996) has defined the four cues as (1) quality; (2) label/brand name; (3) country-of-origin; and (4) cost/sale price. This investigation has also examined other cognitive responses (i.e., the thoughts that consumers may develop in response to brand messages) connected to apparel brand name decision-making. Conceivably, the study can ascertain the market in Macedonia about various cognitive responses and will add value for interested parties. In the end, this research has strived to further an understanding of consumer behaviour linked to apparel decision-making in Macedonia.

Marc Martin, PhD

Literature Review

Mentioned above, but discussed here more precisely, Solomon (2007) has explained consumer behaviour as “the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires.” Albeit, Yau (1994) has indicated that the consumer’s needs and wants change with time because of consumption situations, environmental shifts, and other factors. Yau (1994) also stated that consumer preferences seem generally affected by social influences. Similarly, the literature has suggested that consumer needs vary considerably with socio-economic and cultural differences (Kim et al., 2002). However, Howard and Sheth, (1969) have debated that consumer decisions become influenced by a perpetual subsystem involving attention to information with a learning subsystem for processing information. Others have contended, while bombarded with numerous beneficial and non-beneficial messages, the consumer goes through various phases throughout the purchasing decision process. Solomon (2007) has described this consumer decision making process consisting of the following three stages of: (1) Pre-purchase, (2) Purchase, and (3) Post-purchase.

Blumer (1969), Levy (1959), Kim et al., (2002) and Solomon (1986, 2007) have stated that the consumer usually considers apparel purchasing decision as a high-involvement decision making process. Moreover, they have noticed that the customer often buys apparel for its symbolic meanings, together with image reinforcement and/or psychological satisfaction. Similarly, Rundles (2002) has detected that frequently the buyer’s apparel purchasing decision considers the brand’s image, reliability, cache, quality, price, expectation, comfort level, and history. He has also noted that the customer’s apparel decision-making reflects issues of lifestyles, aspirations, fantasies and affiliations related through brand purchases. Yet, as KPMG (2002) reported above, the consumer often wants an easier decision-making process that a brand may allow.

While KPMG (2002) also defined a brand name “to mean a promise to the consumer to deliver a unique product with constant performance and features.” Similarly, Davis (2001) has suggested that organizations have used brands in order to distinguish themselves from their competition and to offer customers product security while they also attempt to increase growth and profitability. Correspondingly, Reichfeld (1996) stated that for an organization that has established a successful brand this often affords them premium pricing, greater bargaining power with channels of distribution, reduced selling costs, and a strong barrier to potential new entries that can lead to enhanced financial situation. Consequently, Solomon (2007) has observed that organizations

continue to invest significant resources while attempting to develop consumer loyalty associated to their brand(s).

On this topic, Forsythe (2001) has defined brand loyalty as “the proportion of times a purchaser chooses the same brand in a specific product category compared to the total number of purchases made in that category under the condition that other brands are equally available at the same time and place.” To paraphrase Oliver (1999), he characterized brand loyalty as a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and other marketing efforts that can potentially cause consumer switching behaviour. Also, Seckler (2002) has written that branding and loyalty appear to have a strong, positive association when linked to the marketing of apparel.

Connected to branding and loyalty, Forsythe and Kim (1999) have claimed that intrinsic and extrinsic cues seem to intersect in the consumer’s product evaluation and decision-making process. Several researchers (Dodds et al., 1991; Forsythe et al., 1999; Forsythe & Kim, 1999; Kim et al., 2002; Nooh & Powers, 1996) have studied consumer perceptions related to apparel brand name purchasing and have identified four basic cues. These sources have classified the four cues as: (1) quality, (2) label/brand name, (3) country-of-origin, and (4) cost/sale price.

For the most part, Forsythe et al., (2001) stated that the quality cue becomes determined by the physical attributes of the apparel product that satisfies a consumer need or desire. Moreover, Forsythe and Kim (1999) have written that for consumer apparel, generally quality has become determined through experiences of fit, refinement, ease of cleaning, and durability. They have also included that affective cues such as style, design, and fashion can frequently function as intangible consumer benefits while still reflecting quality.

Briefly stated, Forsythe et al. (2001) indicated that when purchasing an apparel product for its intangible benefit the consumer considers issues of trust, reinforcement of self-image, consistent performance, and social responsibility (an issue that increasingly applies to developed markets). Evidently, if an organization has considered the above stated cues while improving its apparel product, it might advance and/or reinforce its brand name to provide more leverage against the competition, i.e., the organization can achieve or maintain a competitive advantage. On the other hand, if the consumer perceives the apparel organization’s brand name negatively, Seckler (2002) and Kaiser (1990) indicated that the apparel brand can noticeably experience loss of sales, market share, and other negative outcomes.

Kim et al. (2002) have argued that the label/brand name fulfils certain consumer internal needs (e.g., social image) that become reflected outwardly to society in terms of social approval, affiliation, personal expression, status, and/or prestige. In many analogous studies, researchers (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982, 1985, 1986) have observed that consumers select apparel branded product because it apparently reflects personality, improves self-esteem, and/or enhances feelings of self-assurance.

By the same token, the country-of-origin cue seems to have affected some consumers when they make apparel purchasing decisions. As an example, O’Cass, Lim, and Julian (2000) found two issues influencing the consumer’s apparel evaluation and purchase linked to the country-of-origin cue. First of all reason, Khacaturian and Morganosky’s (1990) research had indicated that the country-of-origin cue can become associated with the consumer’s perceptions of quality. For instance, a consumer perhaps has judged the quality of branded apparel from Italy as superior to that of China. A second motive, suggested by Ahmed and d’Astou’s investigation (1993), entails the consumer’s perception of purchase value when related to the country-of-origin cue.

On the other hand, some sources have contended that the country of origin cue has become less important to the consumer. Simply stated, Chao (1993) with Baker and Michie (1995) observed that in certain situations apparel products become designed in one country and then produced in another. For example, Nike, Polo, and other familiar apparel brands have often outsourced their production process to various developing markets while sustaining high quality control and the consumer knowingly continues to buy. Nevertheless, Nooh and Powers (1996) have noted that even in the same country various consumers possess different perceptions linked to apparel brands and the cue of country-of-origin. Possibly, more knowledgeable consumers hold a view that this particular cue has limited importance while less well-informed buyers have maintained an opposing opinion.

In contrast, O’Cass et al. (2000) revealed that consumers sometimes use two judgment sets when considering the country-of-origin of an apparel product. To begin with, they noted that some consumers view their domestic apparel products as better than foreign manufactured goods. In turn, Ettenson, Gaeth, and Wagner (1988) have shown that the consumer employs additional information from other cues. As globalization has progressed, Hong and Toner (1989) suggested that the significance of the country-of-origin effect on the consumer’s purchasing decision continues to diminish.

Further, Forsythe, Kim, and Petee (2001) found that the rational consumer expects to purchase an apparel product they perceive as providing the greatest value and/or utility. Conversely, cost/sale price became an opportunity cost when

the consumer purchases apparel brand products. Likewise, Forsythe and Kim (2001) noted that occasionally some consumers associate cost/sale price to perceived value in their apparel purchase decision. As an example, if a consumer bought a leather jacket with an established brand name for the price of \$US500. Then later, the same consumer found a similar jacket at \$US250, this consumer might perceive that the lower priced, comparable jacket lacks quality. Incidentally, cost/sale price frequently becomes influenced by market economic conditions, consumer income, and in some cases by the consumer's need for status.

To explore this concept, Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer (1993) developed six dimensions regarding cost/sale price and the consumer's decision making process: (1) Price/Quality schema, whereby the consumer's general belief considers that price levels appear positively related to quality levels; (2) Prestige sensitivity involves the purchaser's favourable perception about the price cue based on the prominence and status that expensive products signal to other people; (3) Price mavens² implies some people desire and maintain a certain reputation among their peers as market experts; (4) Sale proneness means that the consumer has an increased responsiveness to a purchase offer when the price seems presented in a sale form; (5) Value consciousness concerns how a purchaser relates the price paid for a given good/service plus the quality received; akin to this dimension, but slightly different, (6) Price consciousness entails a customer's orientation for the price paid against the quality received. In any event, cost/sale price has continued to serve as an important cue in the consumer's evaluating and purchasing process although this can differ among developed, developing markets, cultures, and sub-cultures (Solomon, 2007).

In other words, Forsythe and Kim (2001) wrote that a brand can incorporate attributes that provide consumer benefits, and an apparel organization ought to consider cultural issues attached to the apparel (e.g., consider women's swimwear in the West compared to some Arabic markets). Also, they stated that different cultural values influence how various consumer groups may perceive apparel product cues in distinctive ways. As a result, Forsythe and Kim (2001) along with Forsythe et al. (1999) have determined that cultural issues also can affect the consumer's apparel purchasing decision.

From the theoretical propositions with empirical evidence discussed above, and specifically considering the basic four cues to purchasing decisions, various sources (e.g., Brannon, Ulrich, Anderson, Presley, Thommesen, & Missam, 2000; Forsythe & Kim, 1999; Forsythe et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2002; Moore & McGowan, 2001; Nooh & Powers, 1996; Solomon & Englis, 2000) have led to the development of the following hypotheses along with other research objectives. Moreover, the subsequent hypotheses and research objectives have

served as the underlying framework for the study's questionnaire. As a result, this investigation has sought to provide basic insights regarding the consumer's decision to buy apparel in Macedonia:

H₁: The consumer in Macedonia purchases apparel products because of the perceived image reflected by the brand name.

H₂: The consumer in Macedonia does not appear rational in his/her apparel brand purchases.

Methodology

The United States, Europe, Asia, and other geographical areas have conducted numerous consumer studies to examine what drives the consumer's purchasing decisions of various products and services, including apparel (Dodds et al., 1991; Forsythe et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2002; Moore & McGowan, 2001). Interestingly, previous studies (Dodds et al., 1991; Forsythe et al., 1999) have claimed that for an organization a brand name alone often seems as a guarantee of apparel success. They also argued that the other consumer cues listed above have less influence. However, they along with additional researchers (Dodds et al., 1991; Forsythe et al., 1999; Forsythe & Kim, 1999; Kim et al., 2002; Nooh & Powers, 1996; Solomon, 2007) have recognized that the study of consumer behaviour exists as very complex. In the case of the market in Macedonia, the literature has strongly suggested that a basic investigation regarding apparel decision-making should include examining the four basic consumer cues of: (1) label/brand name, (2) cost/sale price, (3) country of origin, and (4) quality. After all, limited research has occurred in the literature studying the consumer in Macedonia. As a result, the survey design has endeavoured to evaluate the market perceptions in Macedonia toward apparel brand names and what may appear as the most important cue when they purchase apparel.

The research design has incorporated mostly quantitative features; however it has some qualitative characteristics. Also, it required the gathering of information from both secondary and primary data sources for the construction of the survey and other related research issues. The secondary data consisted of a literature review of previous consumer perception studies taking into account the influence of relevant intrinsic along with extrinsic cues regarding apparel purchasing decisions. In short, this study undertook a descriptive statistical approach using a non-probability convenience sampling technique in the Macedonian cities of Gostivar, Skopje, and Tetovo during autumn 2006. The survey began with a stated purpose and consisted of 24 various closed- and open-ended questions administered to 172 individuals. Pre-testing did occur with various segments,

thus allowing for minor modifications and refinements of the survey before administering the final questionnaire to maximize reliability and validity. However, the study found 31 returned questionnaires as incomplete or unclear regarding participants' responses, so this left 141 respondents to examine. To begin with, the questionnaire consisted of: (1) Basic demographic data; (2) Likert scale rating so that the participant could indicate the degree of importance of the four basic consumer cues regarding: label/brand name, cost/sale price, country of origin, with quality. Moreover, researchers such as Malhotra (2007) have treated responses to a single Likert scale item as ordinal data, because one cannot assume that respondents perceive the difference between adjacent levels as equidistant. Although providing valuable data, researchers basically have viewed rating systems as an evaluation or assessment regarding some quality or characteristic. (3) In turn, the survey listed various dichotomous questions that involved "agree or disagree" response alternatives; (4) Then, other demographic queries followed about the respondent's income whereby they would select from one of several mutually exclusive categories; (5) Next, the respondent encountered rank order questions incorporating an arbitrary but consistent system based upon their perceived importance of the same four basic consumer cues regarding: label/brand name, cost/sale price, country of origin, along with quality into a rank order to ensure that no two items exactly matched. In the literature (Cooper & Shindler, 2003; Malhotra, 2007; Yin, 1989), researchers maintained that using a rank order scaling method allows items to receive distinct ordinal numbers, including items that have compared equally. When assigned for comparison, distinct ordinal numbers can occur randomly or arbitrarily in the case of the four basic consumer cues. Besides, the literature has generally preferred an arbitrary but consistent system when providing reasonably stable results ranked upon a specific attribute or characteristic; and (6) Afterwards, respondents gave answers in their own words via open-ended questions whereby they could express their opinions. Here, this investigation employed a qualitative, content analysis of a syntactical and referential nature allowing for single word responses (Cooper & Shindler, 2003; Yin, 1989) thus allowing for a reliable, comparative breakdown. Accordingly, the questionnaire incorporated commonly understood wording for all age groups and educational background as to limit administrator assistance and/or interpretation of the survey. In adapting the English questionnaire to Albanian and Macedonian (i.e., Macedonia has two official languages) team members checked for accuracy of meaning. The undergraduate market research class (acknowledged later in this paper) functioned as an administrative team during autumn 2006 representing SEEU. In addition, particularly related to the survey development, the undergraduate market research class assisted in translating, personally administering, compiling, and inputting the data. While they also selected the sampling units by using a simplistic observational technique (i.e., intercept interview) in an attempt to gather respondents' surveys representing different income groups, ages, and

gender in Macedonia. Moreover, the team administered the questionnaire on a Saturday during autumn 2006 because of increased traffic at various shopping centres, cafés, and other marketplaces. Using mostly descriptive statistics results, the study tested the hypotheses and other data components.

Data Analysis

Below, the study has concisely reported the more significant data findings. While respondents consisted of different age, income, and gender segments; in terms of age, the younger developing Macedonian consumer of 30-39 reflected similar to what the CIA World Factbook (2007) classified as a median age of 34.4 years when compared to older developed markets. Again, in view of gender, the data mirrored the percentage of males (47.5%) and females (52.5%) as stated in the CIA World Factbook (2007). Of 141 respondents, 73% of the respondents indicated their household monthly income ranged from 13,000 to 19,999 MKD. At that time, the Macedonian denar (MKD) converted to about €US1= 45 MKD, or €1 =61 MKD.

In this situation, the study has offered cautious speculations about the reporting of household monthly income because of two issues. First, Malhotra (2007) have observed that respondents often consider this as a sensitive issue (i.e., social desirability bias) and have misrepresented their income. Moreover, the CIA World Factbook (2007) has indicated that more than 20% of Macedonian GDP does not become registered.

After the three demographic questions of age, gender and income, respondents used a Likert scale to rate basic four consumer cues (quality, cost, label/brand name, and country of origin). The survey asked participants to rate the importance of these four cues on a scale of one representing most important, two signifying average, and three symbolizing least important. Generally, respondents rated the four consumer cues in this order: quality, cost/sale price, label/brand name, and country of origin. However, a complementary question asked respondents to rank these same cues from most important (1) to least important (4) to produce four ranking levels of importance (i.e., categories). Again, the participants ranked quality as most important, yet when compared to the rating question, participants ranked the consumer cues of label/brand name and cost/sale price as almost equal. Again, country-of origin received the lowest ranking by respondents. In any event, participants seemed reasonably consistent as they rated and ranked these four consumer cues. Conceivably, when consumers in Macedonia make their decisions to buy apparel, they emphasize quality, then stress with similar weight label/brand name and cost/sale price, while country-of-origin has limited importance.

Incidentally, respondents provided some contradictory data when answering the various dichotomous inquiries. For example, 82.3% respondents stated that they would buy clothing regardless of a label/brand name. Additionally, 61% of participants considered a modest price more important than a label/brand name. Similarly, but slightly supportive of hypothesis one, 42.6% of respondents indicated that they preferred well-known designer labels rather than take a chance on something new instead. Furthermore, 31.9% of the respondents agreed that they make an apparel purchasing decision because of the image of the label/brand name. Additionally, 32% of respondents stated that label/brand name affects their decision in buying apparel. On the other hand, from content analysis of the open-ended questions, respondents seem to have associated quality together with label/brand name. For instance, the study appears to have revealed that the first two influencing factors in respondent purchasing involve quality (36.8%) and brand name (32.6%). Conceivably, how respondents rated and ranked the above basic four consumer cues along with the dichotomous queries and content analysis inquiries it seems plausible to argue that:

H₁: The consumer in Macedonia purchases apparel products because of the perceived image reflected by the brand name.

In regards to Hypothesis 2, when asked if they compared prices of different apparel before buying, 56 % of respondents said they did compare, and when asked if they acted rationally when buying clothing, 77% stated they did act in a rational manner. However, a separate question inquired if their emotions affected them when purchasing clothing. Here, a conflict emerges, whereby 53% of the respondents indicated that their emotions do affect their purchasing decision.

In regards to product quality, participants said they perceived quality (81.6%) as more important than brand name. Although, later in the content analysis of the open-ended questions, respondents appeared to associate quality and label/brand name together with their decision to buy apparel. Conversely, 55.4% of the respondents agreed that they would purchase an inexpensive, but similar item other than label/brand name when making their decision to buy apparel. This finding appeared to directly support the first hypothesis while indirectly it seemed to substantiate the second hypothesis. At first glance, data provided by respondents has suggested that the consumer in Macedonia appears emotionally oriented when purchasing apparel brands. Nevertheless, the study has recognized that response bias does exist and determining rational/emotional decision-making aspects appears very challenging. Given reasonable psychological bases, the data provided by the study appears to support the following:

H₂: The consumer in Macedonia is not rational in his/her apparel brand purchases.

The questionnaire also asked several open-ended questions to provide greater insight into the Macedonian purchasing habits. For example, respondents indicated that style (43.9%) followed by colour (12.7%) as other decision-making criteria when they purchase clothing. Likewise, consumers in Macedonia possessed considerable brand knowledge and responded reasonably consistently on this issue. Stated simply, consumers in Macedonia appear to possess significant amounts of apparel knowledge and can think about apparel products across a number of dimensions, thus they can make finer distinctions among brands.

Once more from the content analysis, respondents put considerable emphasis upon what influences their purchasing decision (i.e., quality, brand, and style). Conceivably, this data served as a reliable measure of semantic content arguing that respondents perceive quality, brand, and style in a syntactical and referential manner to support hypothesis 1.

In conclusion, though consumers in Macedonia sometimes appear persuaded more by logical arguments, the survey respondents seem influenced more by emotional or symbolic appeals (e.g., quality and label/brand name). As a result, by understanding the consumer in Macedonia, organizations can make a more informed decision as to which strategy to employ.

Most experienced researchers have recognized that studies have their limitations; however, they also have acknowledged that the process involves continuous improvement. In any case, researchers have known that respondents may avoid using extreme response categories (i.e., central tendency bias); agree with statements as presented (i.e., acquiescence bias); or when respondents encounter sensitive issues they will or have misrepresented their responses to items related to income, culture, and so forth (i.e., social desirability bias). Similarly, a common method bias might have occurred whereby two features classified as a "common rater" and "item characteristic" interact. Here, the prior includes the respondent's perceived need to provide the socially desirable answer that can lead to ambiguous and unreliable answers. As a result, this study has suggested that future research use projective techniques so that respondents become more forthcoming with personal data to better examine the consumer's purchasing behaviour.

Conclusions

With increased integration of world markets and the greater interaction among consumer markets, competition among apparel manufacturers has grown more intense. Increasingly, they have competed to capture the consumer's attention,

loyalty, and influence their purchasing decision. Given this study, quality appeared most important to the consumers in Macedonia; yet, it appears that they have also placed emphasis upon label/brand name and cost/sale price in their apparel decision-making. Also, the findings showed some interesting aspects about the Macedonian consumer. For example, participants tended to place value on style and colour in their apparel decision making.

Stated simply, the first hypothesis posited that the consumer in Macedonia purchases apparel products because of the perceived image reflected by the brand name, and the data supported this hypothesis. Given reasonable psychological bases, the data also supported the second hypothesis. In summary, as observed by Solomon (2007), studying and determining consumer behaviour has developed into a complex subject. At one moment, consumers become driven by some cues; given another situation, other cues have affected their decision making. For instance, even with increased integration of world markets and greater interaction among consumer markets, culture has shaped our decision making about products and services.

Acknowledgements

In this consumer investigation, I thank the following SEEU undergraduate Marketing Research students for their support, fruitful discussions, and suggestions that led to many improvements in the study. Moreover, one class served as two teams during the Fall of 2006; assisting in translating the survey, administering it, compiling and inputting data while also selecting the sampling units using an observational techniques to aid in this marketing research report as regard to the consumer perceptions toward their apparel purchasing decisions in Macedonia: Kastriot Arifi, Elmedin Bilali, Agon Ferati, Jetmire Maliki, Mimoza Maliqi, Blerta Mjeku, Erzen Shala, Fellanza Shuku, Doruntine Smolica, Luljeta Sulja, and Jazmin Triana Durango

References

1. Ahmed, S.A. and d'Astou, A. (1993). "Cross-National Evaluation of Made-In Concept using Multiple Cues", *European Journal of Marketing*, 27(7), pp. 39-52.
2. Baker, M.J. and Michie, J. (1995). "Product Country Images: Perceptions of Asian Cars", University of Strathclyde, Department of Marketing, Working Paper Series No. 95/3.

3. Blumer, H. (1969). "Fashion: From Class Differentiation to Collective Selection", *Sociological Quarterly*, Vol. 10, Summer, pp. 275-291.
4. Brannon, E.L., Ulrich, L.J., Anderson, L.J., Presley, A.B., Thommesen, S., and Missam, M. (2000). "Agent-Based Simulation of the Consumer's Apparel Purchase Decision", *National Textile Centre Annual Report*, November, Project # I98-A9/1.
5. Cooper, D. and Schindler, P. (2003). *Business Research Methods*. (8th edition), McGraw-Hill Irwin, Boston, MA, USA
6. Chao, P. (1993). "Partitioning Country of Origin Effects: Consumer Evaluations of a Hybrid Product", *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 24 (2), pp. 291-306.
7. Central Intelligence Agency. *The World Factbook*, Macedonia, Retrieved on May 15, 2007 from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/mk.html>,
8. Davis, S. (2001). "Brand Asset Management", *The 13th International Corporate/Brand Identity Conference*, June 10-12.
9. Dodds, W.B., Monroe, K., and Grewal, D. (1991). "Effects of Price, Brand, and Store Information on Buyers' Product Evaluations", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 28 (3), pp. 307-320.
10. Ettenson, R., Gaeth, G., and Wagner, J. (1988). "Evaluating the Effect of Country-of-Origin and the 'Made in USA' Campaign: A Conjoint Approach", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 64 (1), pp. 85-100.
11. Forsythe, S. (2001). "Building Global Textile and Apparel Brand Image Strategies: a Cross-National Model"; available from <http://www.auburn.edu/~forsysa/NTC/>; Internet; accessed; 4 November 2003.
12. Forsythe, S., Cavender, D., Petee, T., Ulrich, P., Barry, M., Kim, J., Valencia, M., Hergeth, H., and Chapman, L. (1994). "Enhancing Demand Responsive Marketing in the US Apparel Industry: Modelling Consumer Behaviour in Global Markets", *National Textile Centre Annual Report*, September, Project # A92C7.
13. Forsythe, S., Kim, J., Petee, T., Dozier, G., and Chapman, L. (1999). "Building Global Textile and Apparel Brand Image Strategies: a Cross-National Model", *National Textile Centre Annual Report*, November, Project # I98-A06.

14. Forsythe, S. and Kim, J. (1999). "Product Cue Usage in Two Asian Markets: A Cross-Cultural Comparison", *Asian Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol. 16, Issue 2.
15. Forsythe, S., Kim, J., and Petee, T. (2001). "Building Global Textile and Apparel Brand Image Strategies: a Cross-National Model", *National Textile Centre Annual Report*, November, Project # I98-A06.
16. Hong, S.T. and Toner, J.F. (1989). "Are there Gender Differences in the Use of Country-of-Origin in the Evaluation of Products?", *Advances in Consumer Research*, pp. 468-472.
17. Howard, J.A. and Sheth, J.N. (1969). "The Theory of Buyer Behaviour", New York, Wiley.
18. Kaiser, S.B. (1990). "The Social Psychology of Clothing", Macmillan, 2nd ed., New York, NY.
19. Khachaturian, J.L. and Morganosky, M.A. (1990). "Quality Perceptions by Country of Origin", *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 18 (5), pp. 21-30.
20. Kim, J., Forsythe, S., Gu, Q., and Moon, S.J. (2002). "Cross-Cultural Consumer Values, Needs and Purchase Behaviour" *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 19 (6), pp. 481-502.
21. Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG) (2002). "Fashion Branding – The Power of the Brand", Germany, pp. 1-28.
22. Levy, S. (1959). "Symbols for Sale", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 37 (4), pp. 117-124.
23. Lichtenstein, D.R., Ridgway, N.M., and Netemeyer, R.G. (1993). "Price Perceptions and Consumer Shopping Behaviour", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 30, pp. 234-245.
24. Malhotra, N.K. (1988). "Self-Concept and Product Choice: An Integrated Perspective", *Journal of Economical Psychology*, Vol. 9, pp. 1-28.
25. Malhotra, N.K. (2007). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. (5th edition), Prentice Hall, New Jersey, USA.
26. Moore, M. and McGowan, K.M. (2001). "The Polish Consumer's Concept of Price as a Marketplace Cue", *Journal of Textile and Apparel, Technology and Management*, Vol. 2(1), Fall.

27. Neaman, I. (2002). "With Service and Product, do Brand Names Deliver?", *Wearables Business*, 1 February.
28. Nooh, S.M. and Powers, T.L. (1996). "The Impact of Country-of-Origin on Product Choice: A Developing Country Perspective", pp. 18-40.
29. O' Cass, A., Lim, K., and Julian, C. (2000). "Brand Classification: Identifying the Origins of Brands", *ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge*, pp. 871-878.
30. Oliver, R.L. (1999). "Whence Consumer Loyalty?". *Journal of Marketing*, Vol.63, pp. 33-44.
31. Reichfeld, F. (1996). "The Loyalty Effect", Harvard Business School Press.
32. Rundles, J. (2002). "The Power of Brands", *Wearable's Business*, Online exclusive, 17 January.
33. Seckler, V. (2002). "Converting Fashion's Unfaithful", *WWD*, ISSN: 0149-5380, pp. 9-11.
34. Sirgy, J.M. (1982). "Self-Image/Product-Image Congruity and Advertising Strategy", *Developments in Marketing Science*, Vol. 5, ed. Vinay Kothari, Marquette, MI: Academy of Marketing Science, pp. 129-133.
35. Sirgy, J.M. (1985). "Using Self-Congruity and Ideal Congruity to Predict Purchase Motivation", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 139, pp. 195-206.
36. Sirgy, J.M. (1986). "Self-Congruity", New York: Praeger.
37. Solomon, M.R. (1986). "Deep-Seated Materialism: The Case of Levi's 501 Jeans", in Lutz, R. (ed.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 13, Association for Consumer Research, Las Vegas, NV, pp. 619-622.
38. Solomon, M.R. (2007). *Consumer Behaviour*, (7th edition), Prentice Hall, New Jersey, USA.
39. Solomon, M.R. and Englis, B.G. (2000). "Consumer Preferences for Apparel and Textile Products as a Function of Lifestyle Imagery", *National Textile Centre Annual Report*, November, Project # 197-A11.

Marc Martin, PhD

40. Yau, O.H.M. (1994). "Consumer Behaviour in China: Customer Satisfaction and Cultural Values", Routledge, New York, NY.
41. Yin, R. K. (1989). Case Study Research: Design and Methods, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

¹ Editorial note: The word 'apparel' is not in common use in Europe. It means 'clothes' or 'clothing.'

² Editorial note: This unusual word means 'trusted expert in a particular field' from the Hebrew or Yiddish 'understanding.'

Europeanization in Higher Education

Zlat R. Milovanović PhD LLD

Visiting Professor
Faculty of Law
South East European University
and
American College, Skopje

Abstract

The EU process of ‘Europeanization’ is ‘work in progress’ at the EU level and has implications for the Republic of Macedonia in the field of higher education. This article discusses the progress towards a European Higher Education Area and European Research Area and how these are reflected in current and proposed higher education law in the Republic of Macedonia.

Abstrakt

UE procesi i “europianizimit” është “punë në vazhdim e sipër” në nivel të UE-së dhe ka implikime edhe për Republikën e Maqedonisë në fushën e arsimit të lartë. Ky artikull, diskuton përparimin drejt Hapësirës europiane të arsimit të lartë dhe asaj të hulumtimit dhe se si këto reflektohen në ligjin ekzistues dhe atë të propozuar për arsimin e lartë në Maqedoni.

Апстракт

Процесот на ЕУ за ‘европеизација’ е ‘операција во тек’ на ниво на ЕУ и има импликации за Република Македонија во областа на високото образование. Оваа статија расправа за напредокот спрема полето Европското поле на високото образование и Европското истражувачко поле и како тие се изразени во сегашниот и предложениот закон за високо образование на Република Македонија.

Introduction

Europeanization can be defined as a process by which member states of the European Union (EU) retain much of their independence, while evolving from their different

starting points towards uniform policies and structures, using the EU as a tool to help this process get speed. (Warleigh, 2004:124). It is also a process by which EU members learn from each other and coordinate their policies without EU regulation or a transfer of new competences to Brussels. The term “fusion” is also used to indicate the unification of policies without any obligation to do so.

It is also said that the process of Europeanization – as a search for unity of European educational models started much earlier than the EU itself, even in the 19th and the 20th century. After World War II, the tendency in Europe was to get closer to the American, global model, a process that can also be called Americanization and, to a certain degree, globalization. The American model is based on the idea of universal rather than national or local, especially during the period in which European universities are in the process of the search of their national identities through education. The idea of the students’ participation in governance of the universities developed in the mid 20th century, in both European and American models.

When it comes to education in the EU, it is not an area of European competence. Yet it is an area of growing EU interest, at least since the Treaty of Maastricht. The Council of Ministers of Education has come up with many important initiatives, proposed reforms and transformations which have been applied by most states bringing the educational systems closer together.

The Bologna process, without being an EU process, has organized the coordination of a large number of universities and national governments of Europe, creating basically the new standards, policies and strategies of development. After the Magna Charta Universitatum (The Great Charter of the Universities), adopted by the rectors of European universities in Bologna on September 18, 1988, the higher education in Europe was not going to be the same. The EU style Europeanization is simply not possible any more without reference to the Bologna process and its goals.

The object of this article is to look at the EU process of Europeanization, as “work in progress” at the EU level, and at the situation in the Republic of Macedonia in terms of present and future application of that process.

The EU Education Policy

The EU education policy has been relatively less ambitious in this field than in such fields as agriculture, competition or monetary policy, to name just a few. This, however, has been the will of the member states. The Treaty of Rome (Art. 149) limits the EU education policy to:

“a contribution to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between member states and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the member states for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.”

In the 70's, a new “mixed formula” of decision-making within the EU was found, i.e. a resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council. (Walkenhorst, 2005). This formula retains full national sovereignty with very little (if not non-existing) participation of the supranational structure (i.e. the Commission).

This kind of resolution is not obligatory and can be considered to be the so-called “soft law.” If the states decide to apply this kind of law – it is of their free will (unlike the “regulations” that may be called the “hard law” enforceable within the whole EU territory). Starting in the 70's, the “soft-law” includes, inter alia, the “education with European contents” (1978) and the “European dimension in education” (1988). (Council of the European Communities, 1988).

The EU member states, as well as the EU institutions, support the creation of a European Area of Higher Education by 2010 within the Bologna process. Bologna is a result of work of European universities and European governments (outside the EU), not an imposition from above. There is simply no EU model of education while the Bologna process is building one. The EU provides information on educational systems of member states and their compatibility (through the EURYDICE system/EURYBASE, prepared by the Directorate General of Education and Culture). Most EU countries are engaged in a constant reform of their educational systems, making them more compatible with those of other European countries and at the same time, with the American / global system. The approach is to make one's own system more competitive and attractive internationally and making it possible for all European diplomas to be based on equal quality of education – transferable within EU as a whole.

The inability to speak other languages poses a barrier to the free movement of people (McCormick: 143), and even more to study in a foreign country. This

problem has pushed Europeanization in the direction of studying more languages, starting with English (even in primary schools) or French. The EU formula is to recommend the study of one's own + at least two other EU languages by every European citizen! There are higher education programmes in several countries offering academic programmes in a number of world languages. Maintaining and developing linguistic diversity is one of the goals of the EU (in 2007, there is for the first time a European Commissioner for Multilingualism!).

The European dimension consists mainly in teaching about European integration, EU institutions, European law, history, geography, culture, etc. This kind of study within the higher education curricula, helps developing both European consciousness and European citizenship. The exchanges of students, teachers, European seminars, conferences, the work of INGO's, study abroad, are all necessary steps in Europeanization and are to be further developed.

“We recognize that mobility of students and staff among all participating countries remains one of the key objectives of the Bologna process.” (Bergen Conference Communique, 2005:4).

The EU was a full participant of the Bergen Conference, together with 45 European countries. The EU contribution in the field of mobility is remarkable. The ERASMUS programme is one of the best examples in this field, started 20 years ago (in 1987), making a great contribution to the mobility of students and teachers within the EU. Today, the ERASMUS programme is a part of the EU Lifelong Learning Programme (2007 – 13). About 1.4 million students and teachers from 31 countries have participated so far, and some 2199 institutions of higher learning. According to the EU Commission, in the year 2004 / 5, some 150,000 students took part. The main countries receiving European students and teachers were Spain (25511), France (20529) and Germany (17273) while most students and teachers came from the same Member States: Germany (22427), France (21561) and Spain (20819). During this same period, Slovenia received 378 students / sent 742 abroad; Bulgaria 179/779; Turkey 299 / 1142, etc.

There are also programmes called LEONARDO (for high school students), TEMPUS (for university teachers and researchers) and others. The only objections some countries have towards this programmes is that they are run directly by EU in Brussels – not by Member States.

In terms of governance, we should look into the work of the Glasgow meeting of the European University Association (EUA, 2005) in preparation for the Bergen meeting. The EUA emphasized the importance of university governance and of its adjustment to today's realities. Among the conclusions:

- a) More autonomy, less regulation: Universities should have more choices to make on their own;
- b) University governments should be more proactive and more accountable: Their strategic plans should be better defined and clearer;
- c) Universities will have to be governed within the right level of decentralization, close to a federal model;
- d) Fewer university bodies are to run their institutions (the number of those bodies to be reduced), leaders should have power to make real decisions, each level of government to report to a higher one (vertical level), each level to consult other actors (at a horizontal level);
- e) Academic staff with good managerial skills to be made leaders; leaders to be able to consult experts before making decisions.

Those and similar requirements are related to the creation and development of the knowledge- based societies, a process in which universities are in the lead, which means that the universities should dispose of increased resources and adequate funding. (Weber, EUA 2005).

The main assumption here is that universities are to remain pluralistic / democratic institutions i.e. not under the political umbrella of any single political party or ideological movement. Those requirements are central to the American policies in this area, although some major universities have moved in the direction of introducing the corporate style management instead of or in addition to the collegial-academic decision-making. Some of the ideas expressed by Weber do correspond to the American model too.

The London Communiqué of the Bologna Process Ministerial Conference, 2007 states that Europe has made a significant step in the realization of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) since two years ago. “Building on our rich and diverse European cultural heritage, we are developing an EHEA based on institutional autonomy, academic freedom, equal opportunities and democratic principles that will facilitate mobility, increase employability and strengthen European attractiveness and competitiveness.” (London Communiqué, 1.3).

The Ministers reaffirmed their commitment to increasing compatibility and comparability. Over the next two years, the priorities within the “Action Lines” were also agreed upon. Those priorities are: A completed three cycle degree system, quality assurance and recognition (i.e. mutual recognition) of degrees and study periods.

The focus will be on:

- a) mobility of staff, students and graduates, including measures relating to immigration, recognition, financial incentives and pension arrangements;
- b) social dimension, i.e. accelerating social cohesion, reducing inequalities in education, raising the level of knowledge, skills and competencies in society;
- c) data collection (Eurostat and Eurostudent);
- d) increased employability at the end of each cycle of studies;
- e) information on the EHEA in a global context and improvement of mutual recognition of degrees between EHEA and the rest of the world.

Each of the 46 governments (including Montenegro as of the London Ministerial Conference), will report in 2009, in Leuven / Louvain-la-Neuve on the measures taken in each one of those focus areas.

In 2000, the EU decided to create a European Research Area by 2010. In the words of Janez Potocnik, the EU Commissioner in charge of Research and Development (R & D), in addition to the four basic freedoms within the EU there should also be a fifth one. The new freedom can be defined as “free circulation of knowledge” in addition to the free flow of persons, goods, services and capital. In tomorrow’s knowledge based society, the knowledge gained in one EU country should be shared by all EU countries in order to maintain European competitiveness. New technologies, innovations and inventions are all a part of that process. Researchers should be able to work in any EU country, individually or in cooperation with other researchers.

The goal of the EU is for each member state to invest 3% of its national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) into research by the year 2010, as compared to the figure of about 1.8% today! There are some exceptions, such as Finland with 3.6% at this point. As a comparison, the current US figure is 2.66%, the Japanese one 3.18%. By pooling the national resources together, the EU could become a world leader in research and development. There are already many joint programmes of research (such as TEMPUS, COST, COPERNICUS), although insufficient according to a recent EU Commission report (May 2007).

The EU recently launched the European Research Council, the first pan-European funding entity for the most advanced researcher-driven work. The 7th research Framework Programme (7FP) is directing more than €54 bn into

funding a common research programme (from 2007 to 2013). This comes in addition to the member-states' R & D funding. The FP activities advance scientific discovery and knowledge and ultimately boost economic growth while also underpinning the EU policy in many areas (EU focus, 2007). Another programme, Competitiveness and Innovation Framework Programme (CIP) has linked the EU research activity with business.

Most European research, however, still remains national. Most research is conducted at a university or an industrial level. Although this situation is not likely to change rapidly, some university teachers have been trying to restore a balance between teaching and research at universities. According to those teachers, undergraduate teaching and learning should be valued as much if not more than the cutting-edge research. Excellence in the transmission of knowledge will ultimately produce more able researchers of the future, and more of them. Theda Skocpol, Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Arts and Sciences is one of the leaders of this movement in the United States.

The nationally based approach to research, as well as to teaching, should be giving way to a truly universal character of science (and universities themselves). In the US, there are already universities with up to 50% foreign students, which remains a challenge for Europe. The doors of European universities should certainly open-up for students, teachers and researchers from European and other countries. More foreign students also means more foreign researchers, more ideas and more success.

There are several US-EU agreements in the area of research (EU focus, 2007: 4-5), such as the Science and Technology Cooperation Agreement (of 1998, renewed in 2004), the Nuclear Energy Agreement (1996), the Task Force on Biotechnology Research (1990). There is also the EU-US Education Agreement (renewed in 2006), which provides for mutual exchanges such as within the ATLANTIS programme (joint and dual degree programmes in teaching, study and research), the Schuman-Fulbright Fellowship (for professionals, academics, policy-makers), the Marie Curie Fellowship (for researchers). There is also the ERA-link (for European researchers working abroad) and the ERASMUS MUNDUS (launched in 2004 for graduate students from non-EU countries studying in the EU).

Finally a few words about the European Court of Justice (ECJ) rulings, some of which interpreted the existing European law applicable in education. Based on Art. 6 of the Rome Treaty (on non-discrimination) and Art. 48 (freedom of movement), the ECJ came up with rules directly applicable to education. In the Kraus decision (*Kraus v. Land Baden Wurtemberg*, 1993), the ECJ ruled that a citizen of an EU nation having a university degree from another EU nation, should have his degree fully recognized by his own nation following an

administrative check, without payment for that service of an “excessive administrative fee.” In the *Casagrande* case (*Casagrande v. Landeshauptstadt Munchen*, 1974), the ECJ accepted the principle of non-discrimination in education for EU citizens in any member state. In the *Blaizot* case (*Blaizot et al. v. University of Liege et al.*, 1986), the ECJ confirmed the right to equal access to university education for all EU citizens, without payment of registration fees or any additional fees imposed on foreigners. These rulings will provide a gate to a wider opening of national systems of the future EU members towards the EU and the fellow European citizens.

The Republic of Macedonia and Europeanization

Macedonia is one of those European countries which have been participants in the Europeanization process for a long time. Macedonia today is in the process of change, following both the European and the global trends. The Law on Higher Education of July 25, 2000, which is about to be amended in 2007, represents a good basis for further Europeanization, although some additional provisions may be necessary in view of the near future. The Macedonian law has already accepted the new two cycle degree system

(4 + 3 years) – or a three cycle degree system (3 + 2 + 3) with the possibility of intermediate qualifications; the European credit transfer system; the quality assurance; the recognition of degrees and study periods (now proposed in a more flexible form). As in the case of other countries, not enough is being done on strengthening research and innovation, the importance of research and research training, the synergy between the future European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the European Research Area (ERA).

There are aspects of Europeanization not really taken into consideration. One such example is the “European dimension of education” or the “European content in higher education curricula.” Some EU members have included those goals in their laws on higher education, trying to encourage European studies in general. In Macedonia, this will be needed, sooner or later. The European studies here should include the regional studies as well (the Balkan area, Eastern Europe). In terms of Europeanization, Western Europe should also include the study of the new regions into their European studies.

Europeanization is also a process of exchange, of search for common traditions, of building a sense of a larger community (and its identity). The universities have an enormous role to play in this respect, their teachers to train the teachers of secondary and primary schools.

The increase in the study of foreign languages in Macedonia, as well as in other countries, is a necessary condition for the future opening to Europe and to the world.

Right now, there are 3-4 private universities where teaching is conducted in English.

English is also taught in primary and secondary schools. This is a great contribution to Europeanization and should be recognized as such. There is also a need for a second world language, most likely French as a language of instruction in a francophone country. Those who will be working in NATO, will need English and French, those in EU, English, French and German. At the same time, the knowledge of most other European languages will be an asset, including Russian, Spanish, Italian, Turkish, Arabic. The languages of this region will all be needed, for business, political, cultural and other contacts and exchanges. Learning foreign languages always helps learning one's own language, i.e. Macedonian, Albanian and other nationalities' languages in the Republic.

Obviously, national language(s) still have priority in every nation.

University exchanges, mobility of students, teachers, researchers, administrators should be encouraged and supported by the Government and EU institutions. The programmes like ERASMUS are in the interest of individual students and of Macedonia as well! The bilateral exchanges with the US and other countries need to be further developed (for instance the Fulbright programme, the Ron Brown programme and so many other programmes). More Macedonian students should study abroad and more foreign students should study in Macedonia. More teachers too! Foreign teachers should be welcome to compete freely for positions at Macedonian universities – and Macedonian teachers should go to more foreign universities to teach or conduct research. These exchanges should be open equally to state and private universities; private universities should be able to represent Macedonia abroad, within the Bologna process and elsewhere.

At some point, Macedonia had a significant number of foreign students, mainly from the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Macedonia should re-establish contacts with those areas of the world, despite the fact its main interest has now switched to EU and Europe. Macedonia is Europe but it could easily become one of the bridges between the EHEA and non-EHEA parts of the world.

Research and development in Macedonia needs also to be given a more important place than in the past, both within the national framework and through international cooperation. According to the Statistical Yearbook of the Republic

of Macedonia for 2006, the number of researchers in the country is diminishing (See pp. 204-220). In 2005, there were 2642 researchers v. 3275 in 1998. During the same period, the number of academic staff went from 2654 to 2826. The level of research funding was 0.24% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2004. According to our estimate, it was even lower in 2005. The amount of research funding was 0.43% in 1998 and 0.44% in 2000. (Minceva-Sukarova 2007:207-214.) It is obvious that the trend should be in the opposite direction, i.e. in increasing the research funding.

According to the Statistical Year Book, tThe number of research projects concluded in Macedonia in 2005 was 255, while 318 projects were continuing. Of the 255, there were:

- 84 in basic (fundamental research);
- 137 in applied research;
- 34 in experimental development;
- 85 in the business sector;
- 70 in the Ministry of Education;
- 5 in the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water;
- 42 in other Ministries;
- 53 others

A number of projects were directed by the Macedonian Academy of Science and Art (MANU).

We mentioned some rulings of the European Court of Justice (ECJ). They are not the law for Macedonia yet but should be considered as such. Macedonia will have to be ready to apply them fully and that can be done sooner rather than later. One of the first steps was the Sobranie vote on the Changes and Additions to the Law on Higher Education (April 6, 2007) which simplified the recognition of foreign degrees for Macedonian and foreign citizens. This should be without payment or with a minimum payment, although the Law itself does not cover that aspect. The EU law does.

The social dimension of the Bologna process is a constituent part of the EHEA (the Bergen Declaration, p.4; the London Communiqué, Paragraph. 2.18). The quality higher education should be equally accessible to all, independently of their social condition. On the other hand, the Social Charter of Maastricht (included in the Maastricht Treaty), is the “*acquis communautaire*.” At the time when even the state universities are introducing payment of tuition for some students (not all of them), there is less attention to the provisions of the Social Charter which protects not only the students but the teachers, researchers and administrators too. The standard of living of all university actors will ultimately

have to be raised to the levels closer to those of the EU. And all those actors will have to have more say in university decisions.

Which brings us to the university governance and its structure which may be over-regulated. The Europeanization trends call for less regulation and more flexibility in higher education. There are bureaucratic structures within universities and outside too. There is a need to strengthen the autonomy of European universities, and too much regulation and control from above. The Macedonian law has a good record and good provisions on autonomy. At the same time, there are some old and new agencies which may infringe on that autonomy with their rights and jurisdiction. This aspect is to be carefully weighed.

For instance, the creation of a Board of Accreditation is a positive development. There is also an Agency for Evaluation of Qualifications and a Registration Commission. There is also an increased role of the Ministry of Education and its Education Inspectorate. There is also the right of the Board of Accreditation to revoke accreditations of universities “not fulfilling the necessary conditions.” (Art 57 of the proposed amended text of the Law on Higher Education; the overall amending process). This kind of provision is not a positive development, as it gives too much power to an independent body over the autonomous university boards and their rights. The existence of an agency for evaluation of qualifications, complicates the task at hand, which should be simplified. In other words, some of the new provisions could make the system more complex and not consistent with the provisions on autonomy, a part of the same bill. The role of the Interuniversity conference has been enhanced, representation of all universities as well. The faculties (the schools) may also be represented at the inter-university level.

The assets of a private university belong to its founder (Art.91 of the proposed text of changes). The universities should be the owners of their assets.

There are many issues, some of which will certainly be debated in the Sobranie before the proposed text is approved. An important criterion here is to look at the provisions of this new law from the point of view of europeanization.

There is a need for a long term and a short term strategy of the universities and of the Government in the field of education. Some of the questions raised above can be solved by the universities themselves or by the universities together with the Government. Tomorrow, a Macedonian Minister of Education will be a member of the Council of Ministers of Education of the EU, which means that Macedonia should have a developed policy on education not only for this country but for the European Union as well. Which implies on Europeanization and

globalization too. Bologna and beyond! On the funding of increasing needs in order to get better returns.

Conclusion

Johan Olsen, a well known expert on education, asked the following question: “Is Europeanization a disappointing a term as it is fashionable? Should it be abandoned or is it useful for understanding European transformations?” (Olsen,

It is our assessment that the concept of Europeanization is rather useful despite being occasionally vague. In fact, its vagueness contributes to flexibility which the EU member-states want to maintain, while trying to achieve common goals through co-

Ordination, a process free from regulation and supranational decision-making. The freedom, autonomy and diversity of European higher education have helped the development of one of the most successful and the best performing systems of higher education worldwide. In only three years, if everything is on track, there will be a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) as well as a European Research Area (ERA).

The process of Europeanization will necessarily continue.

Acknowledgments

The author would like to thank Academician Alajdin Abazi, Rector of SEEU, Dr. Marjan Bojadziev, Rector of ACS, Dr. Gjorgi Martinovski, Rector of the Saints Cyril and Methodius University (UKIM) and Emil Gjorgov, Academic Director of ACS for their suggestions and many common discussions of the issues dealt with in this article.

References

1. Bologna Process: (all accessed 18 September 2007 from <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/londonbologna>
 - (i) Berlin Communiqué (2005): The European Higher Education Area, Achieving the Goals.
 - (ii) European University Association (2005): Strong Universities for a Strong Europe
 - (iii) London Communiqué (2007): Towards the European Higher Education Area: Responding to Challenges in a Globalised World
2. Council of the European Communities (1988): European Educational Policy Statements
3. EU Commission Delegation to the US (2007): EU Focus; EU Research and Innovation, Washington DC
4. Minceva-Sukorova, B. (2006) *Science Policy and HR Development in South Eastern Europe in the Context of European Integration* Vienna: Federal Ministry for Education, Science and Culture
5. McCormick, J. (1999) *Understanding the EU: A Concise Introduction* Basingstoke: MacMillan.
6. Olson, J. (2002) 'The Many Faces of Europeanization', *Journal of Common Market Studies* 40(5), 921-52.
7. Walkenhorst, H. (2005) 'Europeanization of the German Education System', *German Politics* 14(4), 470-486.
8. Warleigh, A. (2004) *European Union – The Basics*. London:Routledge



Financing Barriers for SME Development; the Eastern European Case

Ariana Cepani PhD

Jorida Tabaku MA

Department of Management
University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Recently, two of the main problems for the agencies that operate in Eastern Europe (EE) is which small businesses should be helped and how should financing be divided among these businesses? The aims of this paper are to identify market failures in regard to SME financing and to propose fund allocation criteria that will correct them. The first section provides some theoretical background on the definition of SMEs and their impact on economic activity. The second section deals with financial obstacles to growth and issues related to SMEs' use of internal versus external sources of funding. The final section provides suggestions on criteria to be used in allocating funds to SMEs. Conclusions are made throughout and at the end of the report.

Abstrakt

Kohëve të fundit, dy janë problemet kryesore për agjencitë që operojnë në Europën Juglindore, edhe atë cilat biznese të vogla duhet të ndihmohen dhe si duhet të ndahen mjetet për financimin e këtyre bizneseve? Qëllimet e këtij punimi janë të identifikohen dështimet e tregut në raport me financimin e ndërmarrjeve të vogla dhe të mesme dhe të propozohen kritere për ndarjen e fondeve për t'i përmirësuar ato gabime. Pjesa e parë jep një prapavijë teorike të definimit të ndërmarrjeve të vogla dhe të mesme dhe ndikimit të tyre në aktivitetet ekonomike. Pjesa e dytë, merret me pengesat financiare të zhvillimit (rritjes) dhe me çështjet që kanë të bëjnë me përdorimin e ndërmarrjeve të vogla dhe të mesme për financimin nëpërmjet burimeve të brendshme përkundrejt atyre të jashtmeve. Pjesa e fundit ofron sugjerime mbi kriteret që duhen shfrytëzuar për ndarjen e fondeve për ndërmarrjet e vogla dhe të mesme. Përfundimet jepen përgjatë tërë raportit por edhe në fund.

Апстракт

Два понови главни проблеми за агенциите кои работаат во Југоисточна Европа (ЈЕ), се однесуваат на тоа кои мали бизниси би требало да бидат помогнати и како би требало да се подели финансирањето помеѓу тие бизниси. Цели на овој труд се да се идентификуваат неуспесите на пазарот во поглед на финансирањето на СМЕ (SME), и да се предложат критериуми за распределување на средствата кои ќе допринесат за совладување на тие неуспеси. Во првиот дел е изнесена теорија за дефиницијата на СМЕ и нивното влијание врз економската активност. Вториот дел содржи финансиски пречки за развој и прашања поврзани со искористувањето на внатрешни и надворешни извори на финансирање од страна на СМЕ. Последниот дел нуди предлози за критериумите кои би требало да се користат при распределувањето на средствата на СМЕ. Заклучоците се во целиот, како и на крајот од извештајот.

Small firms and economic activity - definitions

Storey (1994) argued that there is no uniformly acceptable definition of small firms due to a variety of factors, including: industry and sector influence on size; yardstick used; and subjective and conflicting statistical data on small and new firms. The Bolton Committee (1971) tried to correlate the economic and statistical features and linked those with the industry factor while regarding small firms as: having a relatively small share of market; managed by owners or part-owners in a personalised way; independent.

Wynarczyk et al. (1993) tried to identify characteristics of small firms, other than size, arguing that small and large firms are as fundamentally different from each other as a caterpillar is from a butterfly (Storey, 1994). The authors noted that small firms are risky because they: are price-takers; have a limited customer base; may have owners with diverse objectives.

The European Commission (2003) used a combination of employment and financial data to create a more sophisticated and objective approach to smallness, where small firms have: less than 250 employees; less than 50 million Euros of turnover; and not more than 25% owned by another enterprise or other enterprises linked to one another.

Even though there have been some controversial definitions there is a wide-accepted view that “I can’t define it, but I know it when I see it” (Acs & Audretsch, 1992).

The role of small firms in economic activity

There has been a paradigm shift in the importance of small businesses to economic activity (Kirchhoff, 1994). The large business was promoted as source of employment and economies of scale. In the 1980s, attention shifted to small firms and entrepreneurship. Amongst the contributions of small firms that authors mention are:

- *Important role in innovation.* Entrepreneurship plays an important role in innovation where key contribution is “newness” (Carree & Thurik, 2003). But innovation depends on industry; more specifically, in capital intensive industries large firms are more innovative, conversely small firms are more innovative in less capital-intensive industries (Acs & Audretsch, 1987). This is supported by the fact that small firms produce more innovations per dollar of research and development expenditure than do larger firms (Chakrabarti, cited by Kirchhoff, 1994).
- *Small firms serve as agents of change in a market economy.* Small firms generate turbulence, providing mechanisms for regeneration (Acs, 1992) and in the long run entry-exit turnover makes a significant contribution (Caves, cited by Carree & Thurik, 2003). Kirchhoff (1994) argued that all new firm formations in US are essentially small firm formations. This implies that most of new economic activity is generated by small firms. By having such a high rate of entry and exit, small firms generate change, increase the number of players in market economy, create an additional dimension of competition and hence stimulate economic growth and development.
- *They promote international competition through newly created niches.* It has been extensively argued that small firms are flexible, adapt very quickly to market trends and are able to exploit new product-class niches (Acs & Audretsch, 1991). This serves as a basis for international competition by motivating small firms to export and to exploit market opportunities in international markets.
- *They are considered as job generators.* In a decade 81.5% of net new jobs were created by small firms, and typically in one year these firms comprised 35-37% of total employment (Birch, cited by Kirchhoff, 1994). The dynamic process of new firm formation and growth creates new owners and jobs, thereby creating and distributing wealth. Small firms create more new employment during recessions and less during expansion stages (Kirchhoff, 1994). Kirchhoff (1994) believes that the increased job creation during recessions is related to the push or

necessity factors for opening a small business, since recessions result in layoffs of skilled workers, some of which may decide to open their own business, and it is very important from a policy point of view.

- *Finally, small business generates economic growth.* Porter (1990, cited by Carree & Thurik, 2003), argues that “entrepreneurship is at the heart of the national advantage”. Additionally, industries with few large and medium-sized firms perform better in terms of output growth (Carree & Thurik, 1998). As Johansson (2004) argued, new and small firms on average are more competitive than large ones and grow faster, because they are flexible, innovative and less risk-averse.

Empirical results from Brouwer, E., Kleinknecht, A. & Reijnen, J. O. N. (1993) suggested that implications of small firms to the economy cannot be conceptualised separately, because those implications are interrelated. Innovation amongst small firms has multiplier effects, increasing aggregate demand, and creating new job opportunities. Sales will grow rapidly and there will be multiplier effects on income and investments in new technology and processes that may also outstrip capacity effect. All this cycle initiated by small firms will result in economic growth and development. (Brouwer, E., Kleinknecht, A. & Reijnen, J. O. N., 1993)

“Entry appears to be relatively easy, but survival is not” (Audretsch, 1995). This implies that even though the impact of small businesses to economic growth can be large, a considerable number of them still find it difficult to survive and grow. The next section provides some insights to understanding the financial obstacles of small business survival and growth.

Financing problems in Eastern Europe

The 1980s marked the beginning of interest in SMEs’ economic importance and impact. Even though direction was the same, time and extent importance and impact of SME’s was anything but identical across countries (Carree & Thurik, 2003). Differences across countries are related to history (such as different regulations, financial markets, laws, etc.) and have led to variations in the structure of economic activity (Acs & Audretsch, 1992). Acs & Audretsch (1992) that role of small businesses is very small in Eastern Europe (EE) compared to Western Europe (WE). However, a shift in the perception of SMEs’ importance has occurred in EE, and this is related to changes in regimes of these countries (Table 1) (OECD, 2003). Nevertheless, high unemployment and varying economic growth are still evident throughout the region (see Table 2). Taking

into account the increased importance of SMEs in EE and the authors' research interest, analysis is focused in EE region.

Table 1: Economic role of small businesses in EE over years.

	20 02	20 01	200 0	20 02	20 00	20 01	200 0	20 01	2000
	AL	Bi H	BG	HR	MK	MD	RO	SC G	EU- plus
Number of SMEs	56, 23 7	30, 00 0	224 ,21 1	63, 13 5	32, 75 9	22, 13 8	306 ,07 3	70, 94 0	20,41 5,000
SMEs per 1,000 inhabitants	18. 2	7.9	28. 7	14. 3	16. 4	5.2	10. 3	8.5	52.8
Share of SMEs in total number of enterprises, of which:	99. 5	99. 3	99. 7	99. 3	99	90	99. 7	98. 4	99.8
Share of micro-enterprises in total number of Enterprises	95. 8	84. 8	92. 3	85. 5	90. 7	72. 2	92. 3	n/a	93.1
Share of small enterprises in total number of Enterprises	2.7	11. 2	5.7	11. 3	5.9	17. 8	5.7	99. 4	5.9

Source: OECD (2003)

TABLE 2: Macroeconomic Indicators, CEE region, 2003

	Albania	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Bulgaria	Croatia	Czech Republic	Hungary	Macedonia	Poland	Romania	Serbia & Montenegro	Slovak Republic	Slovenia
Real GDP Growth (2004)	5.9	5.2	5.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	2.3	5.3	8.3	7.2	5.5	4.4
Inflation (2004)	2.9	0.8	6.1	2.1	2.8	6.8	-0.3	3.5	11.9	9.5	7.5	3.6
Unemployment (2003)	15.8	40.0	14.3	19.5	9.9	5.9	36.7	20.0	7.2	34.5	15.2	11.2

Is funding an obstacle to growth?

It is argued that small firms' access to external finance is difficult because they are *de novo*. They have no credit history, track record, or collateral and during periods of tight credit control, SMEs are often denied loans in favour of better quality borrowers (Bratkowski, A., Grosfeld, I. & Rostowski, J., 1999)).

The lack of finance is an obstacle to business and economic growth, and in EE it is among the most important obstacles (Brunetti, A., Kisunko, G., & Weber, B., 1997). However, that this can also be attributed to both the underdevelopment of the banking sector and unfair competition given that in most EE countries second-tier banks have been privatised only the last years. Being state-owned has conditioned banks' commercial behaviour, and sometimes it has led to corrupt practices.

However, even in cases of developed banking systems, interest rates charged on SMEs are higher than for their larger counterparts (Pissarides, 1998). This is related to higher risks of investing in SMEs. Only those SMEs successful in identifying a high return market niche can afford to pay these high rates. The rest of SMEs rely on reinvested profits, reorientation of their products or markets, or they fail. (Pissarides, 1998).

About 78% of SMEs in Romania considered lack of capital as very constraining, and the percentage was even higher for slow growing firms and those in the smaller size categories (Brown, D., Earle, S.J., & Lup, D. (2004).

While half of Russian and Bulgarian firms consider “financing problems that hinder production” and “level of interest rates” as important funding constraints to increasing local sales and exports (Pissarides, F., Singer, M., & Svejnar, J. (2003).

External versus internal financing

In 1911, Schumpeter emphasised the influence of a country’s financial sector development on the level and rate of its per capita income growth, emphasising that financial sector services are an essential catalyst of economic growth (Rajan & Zingales, 1998). Firms and industries that are more dependent on external financing grow faster, and this is particularly true for small and *de novo* firms (Rajan & Zingales, 1998).

The main reason for using internal funds is related to asymmetric information between lenders and borrowers, and there is strong evidence that this is particularly true for smaller enterprises (Lopez-Garcia & Aybar-Arias, 2000). In the case of SMEs, lenders do not know the real value of proposed investment projects (*adverse selection*) and cannot be sure how the required funds will be used (*moral hazard*). Lopez-Garcia and Aybar-Arias (2000) suggest that this is mainly caused by the poor quality of financial information produced by smaller enterprises, while the authors suggest that is also related to lack of trained and specialised staff to deal with SMEs’ risk assessment. Banks find it difficult to overcome this problem because it is not economical to devote resources for relatively small amounts of finance. Johnson, S., McMillan, J., & Woodruff, C. (1999) believe that such asymmetric information issues are much more acute in transition countries than in developed economies, because investment projects are riskier and uncertainties greater

An additional approach is the *pecking order theory* (POT). According to Myers (1984), small firms’ owners operate without targeting an optimal structure, and show a clear preference for those financing forms that minimise intrusion into business (Lopez-Garcia & Aybar-Arias, 2000). SMEs do not consider credit as a normal financing source; they relate it to “debt” and use it only in extreme cases. This attitude in EE can be attributed to the communist system’s philosophy of relying on “internal resources”. Furthermore, most SMEs in EE are family businesses, minimizing incentives to bring in new shareholders (Kihlgren, 2002).

In EE, demand and supply of credit do not match to reach equilibrium; hence a market failure occurs (Pissarides, 1998). Reduced access to external finance is limiting SMEs’ growth in EE, and the market is “failing” because financially

constrained firms cannot finance growth, though they may be equally profitable as financially non-constrained firms (Becchetti & Trovato, 2002). Even though international institutions are striving to correct this market failure, if their attempts are not accompanied by public funds, it is likely the situation will continue to be the same. This suggests that being small is not always beautiful, and that firm size really does matter in finance (Scholtens, 1999).

Distribution of funds

Much of public policy depends on specific objectives, and according to the macroeconomic situation of EE, objectives are: decrease unemployment; enhance economic growth; and focus on priority sectors.

Based on these objectives, the authors believe that the any government or not for profit agency should focus on policies specifically directed to small firms. Only by focusing on firms that are expected to directly influence meeting objectives, such agencies can achieve greater results.

For policy to be effective, the first step is evaluating the net effect. The authors suggest government and not for profit agencies to distribute funds to better achieve targets, but there are also some negative effects, or costs, such as:

- *cost of implementing policy*; including selection, appraisal and monitoring costs;
- *side effects*; the agency should consider that by financing specific SMEs, other enterprises will fail because of increased competition; others will be forced to cut down their staff, hence slow their growth;
- *costs specifically related to policy implementation*; since the business is located in a region with high unemployment and slow economic growth this will have negative effects on the business, but positive effects for the region.

The cost-benefit analysis is a very good evaluation tool, but it is missing a very important element: What will happen if the policy is not implemented? What would be the effect on unemployment, economic growth or innovation? This factor makes an important distinction, because it makes possible the evaluation of par effects. It is believed that entrepreneurship can decrease unemployment and enhance economic growth but this is a two side effect. Empirical results show that economic growth and high unemployment can

stimulate entrepreneurship (Audretsch et al., 2002). Is economic growth and reduced unemployment a result of a policy stimulating creation of new and small firms; or is it the overall situation and high economic growth that served as a promoter for entrepreneurship? For this reason it is very important to evaluate the number of new small businesses that will be initiated if the policy will not be implemented.

Considering the aforementioned general criteria, the authors will now analyse the proposed specific criteria.

The first is business identification. The authors would like to note some important questions, which Kirchoff (1995) defined as vital from a policy point of view. Should policies focus on barber shops or corner drug stores? Putting it another way, which small firms contribute most to economy, and how can policy promote their activity in order to enhance long-term economic vitality?

The authors believe that policy should be “picking winners” (Tucker & Lean, 2003). This means that the agency should distribute funds to start-ups and existing high performers. But what makes a small business successful? There are several criteria amongst which the most important are:

- *SMEs should have a business-plan* (this is a prerequisite); high performers are those that have looked into the future. This means that businesses that have evaluated their decisions’ impact into the future are strategic and have a long-term view, making them more sustainable in the long run.
- The authors argue that policy should focus on *financing the fast-growing small enterprises*, which have the potential to grow to medium-sized businesses. These enterprises should reflect a real impact on the market by fulfilling emerging needs. If SMEs can be innovative and find products or services that are not already offered, they can improve the economic conditions of the community and region.
- *Promote intra-regional investment*; the authors believe that eligible SMEs should be ones that promote intra-regional investments. These enterprises will facilitate transfer of knowledge and know-how in the region as a whole and will have faster growth. High performing enterprises are those that exploit market opportunities not only in local markets, but also take risk to enter new market niches, increasing opportunities for export growth. This innovation and knowledge transfer can offer new job opportunities and benefits

not only in the area where SME is located but in the region as a whole.

- *Sustainability of results and magnitude of intended effects*; Existing small businesses that have sustainable results and do not show variation in profitability and productivity are believed to be high performers. The agency should focus on this group for two reasons: funding will be used wisely and will create a sustainable business in the long run; and, firm will not likely have negative effects on employment.

There are also industry and related issues. The authors do not aim to focus or suggest specific industries, but they suggest two issues to bear in mind:

- *Priority sectors*. Each country has some priority sectors that are considered as underdeveloped and should be the focus of these countries' development. Agency should distribute funds to SMEs operating in these sectors or industries because: (i) these sectors are at the first stages of development and have great growth potentials. If funds are distributed to mature industries, growth is slow and competition is already established; (ii) these sectors are supposed to be the centre of economy and government policy stimulates innovation and R&D which as aforementioned will result in greater impact for the whole region; and (iii) this favours also new-start ups which cannot enter in established industries because of high barriers.
- *Viable markets*. It is very important that receipts should be innovative and introduce new concepts and ideas to the region. However, what is most important, SMEs should be able to supply commercial products. It is well known that SMEs are not able to commercialise their innovations, for this reason the authors believe that only SMEs that have feasible proposals and are able to commercialise their products should be eligible for funding.

The characteristics of owners are also relevant. The authors believe that funds should be distributed to businesses that are worth investing in; businesses that will really make a change. Much of an SME's success depends on the owner/founder. Criteria to be considered are:

- *Reason for opening a business*; there might be several reasons for opening a business. However, real entrepreneurs are the ones that

make changes in the market, are innovative and risk-takers, and are influenced by pull and not push factors (unemployment). If the agency decides to distribute funds to owners deciding to open a business because they see a market niche or opportunity or because they want to succeed, then SMEs have higher growth rates (Reid & Smith, 2000).

- *Main goal*; authors believe that high performers are the one that have strategic and long term goals. If the main goal of the business is growth and long-term profit rather than survival, then it would be wise to distribute funds to businesses that have the former. Empirical research suggests that SMEs having these goals are high performers and have larger impact on free performance indicators (employment growth, profitability and productivity) (Reid & Smith, 2000).
- *Appropriately experienced management and organisation*; It is widely accepted that SME managers do not always have the necessary experience. However, in order to grow and succeed, it is necessary to have at least the minimal organisation and experience. Because funding is limited and benefits should be incurred in the medium-term, it is advised to select start-ups and existing businesses that are organised and led by an experienced owner/manager
- *Other characteristics*; faith in business and innovativeness are factors that influence performance. All these factors are believed to be interrelated and positive for success.

Conclusion

Finally, the authors believe that one important criterion to be used should be fostering the so called entrepreneurial economy (Audretsch & Thurik, 2001). This means that a very important growth factor in the entrepreneurial economy is knowledge. Some economies are stronger than others, and these are the ones that invest in education and training (Sloman & Sutcliffe, 2001). For this reason, the agency should distribute funds to companies that promote knowledge, increase skills and human capital of workers, and facilitate the mobility of workers and their ability to start new firms. The innovative firms should be awarded, but if innovation is not shared and new methods are not promoted then benefits are isolated. The authors believe that these criteria have a very solid base, since as aforementioned, innovations and R&D serve as a multiplier in the economy.

Bibliography

1. Acs, Z. & Audretsch, D., eds. (2003), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research. An Interdisciplinary Survey and Introduction*, Kluwer: Dordrecht.
2. Acs, Z. J. (1993). *Small business economics: a global perspective*. *Challenge*, November-December 1992, 38-44.
3. Acs, Z.J. & Audretsch, D.B. (1987). Innovation, market structure and firm size. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, LXIX, 567-574.
4. Acs, Z.J. & Audretsch, D.B. (1988) Innovation in large and small firms: an empirical analysis. *American Economic Review* 78, 678-90.
5. Acs, Z.J. & Audretsch, D.B. (1991). *Innovation and Small Firms*. MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass
6. Akerlof, G. A. (1979). The market for “lemons”: quality, uncertainty and the market mechanism”, *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 84(3), 488-500.
7. Audretsch, D. B. (1994). *Innovation and Industry Evolution*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
8. Audretsch, D. B. (1995). Innovation, growth and survival. *International Journal of Industrial Organization*, 13, 441-457.
9. Audretsch, D. B. & Thurik, A. R. (2001). What’s new about the New Economy: sources of growth in the managed and entrepreneurial economies”, *Industrial and Corporate change*, 10(1).
10. Barkham, R., Gudgin, G., Hart, M., & Hanvey, E. (1996). *The determinants of Small firm growth: An inter-regional study in the United Kingdom 1986-90*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers Ltd.
11. Becchetti, L. & Trovato, G. (2002). The determinants of growth for small and medium sized firms: the role of the availability of external finance”, *Small Business Economics*, 19, 291-306.

12. Bratkowski, A., Grosfeld, I. & Rostowski, J. (1999). Investment and finance in de novo private firms: empirical results from the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland”, *Economics of Transition*, 8(1), 101-116.
13. Brouwer, E., Kleinknecht, A. & Reijnen, J. O. N. (1993). Employment growth and innovation at the firms level: An empirical study. *Journal of Evolutionary Economics*, 3, 153-159.
14. Brown, D., Earle, S.J., & Lup, D. (2004). What makes small firms grow? Finance, human capital, technical assistance, and the business environment in Romania. William Davidson Institute Working Paper, No 702.
15. Brunetti, A., Kisunko, G., & Weber, B., (1997). Institutional obstacles to doing business. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, No 759.
16. Caree, M. A. & Thurik, A. R. (1998). Small firms and economic growth in Europe. *AEJ*, 26(2), 137-146.
17. European Commission (2003). Enterprise and industry – SME definition. Retrieved on 9 December 2004 from:

http://europa.eu.int/comm/enterprise/enterprise_policy/sme_definition/index_en.htm.
18. Fazzari S. M. & Athey, M. J. (1987). Asymmetric information, financing constraints and investment. *The review of Economics and Statistics*, 481-487.
19. Feakins, M. (2004), Commercial bank lending to SMEs in Poland. *Small Business Economics*, Volume 23, 51-70.
20. Jenkins, H. (2000). Commercial bank behaviour in micro and small enterprise finance. Development Discussion Paper, No. 741, Harvard Institute for International Development, Harvard.
21. Johansson, D. (2004). Is small beautiful? The case of the Swedish IT industry. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 16, 271-287.
22. Johnson, S., McMillan, J., & Woodruff, C. (1999). Property rights, finance and entrepreneurship. EBRD Working Paper, No 43.

23. Kihlgren, A. (2002). Small business in Russia: a case study of St. Petersburg. William Davidson Institute Working Paper, No. 439, January 2002.
24. Lopez-Garcia, J. & Aybar-Arias, C. (2000). An empirical approach to the financial behaviour of small and medium sized companies. *Small Business Economics*, 14, 55-63.
25. Myers, S. C. (1984). The capital structure puzzle. *Journal of Finance*, 34(3), 575-592.
26. OECD-EBRD. (2003). South East Europe Region Enterprise Policy Performance, A regional Assessment, OECD, Paris.
27. Pissarides, F. (1998). Is Lack of Funds the Main Obstacle to Growth. EBRD, Paris.
28. Pissarides, F. (2001). Financial structures to promote private sector development in South-eastern Europe. EBRD Working Paper, No 64.
29. Pissarides, F., Singer, M., & Svejnar, J. (2003). Objectives and constraints of entrepreneurs: evidence from small and medium sized enterprises in Russia and Bulgaria. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 31(3), 503-531.
30. Rajan, R.G. & Zingales, L. (1998). Financial dependence and growth. *American Economic Review*, 88(3), 559-586.
31. Scholtens, B. (1999). Analytical issues in external financing alternatives for SBEs. *Small Business Economics*, 12, 137-148.
32. Schumpeter, J. A. (1911). A theory of economic development. MA Harvard University Press, Cambridge.
33. Sloman, J. & Sutcliffe, M. (2001) *Economics for Business*, Financial Times/ Prentice Hall: London.
34. Storey, D. J. (1994), *Understanding the Small Business Sector*. International Thomson Business Press, London.
35. Tucker, J. & Lean, J. (2003). Small firm finance and public policy. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 10(1), 50-61.

Higher education in a global market: the attractiveness of private providers in the Republic of Macedonia

Dennis J Farrington LL.M PhD

Pro-Rector for Research
South East European University

Abstract

Over the past few years there has been a major growth in foreign providers setting up for-profit offshore programmes and even campuses. Coupled with this has been a growth in private provision linked to foreign (often US) institutions. Some commentators claim that for-profit provision in a free, or unregulated market, is a response to demand for students dissatisfied with public providers and acts as a catalyst for constructive change, adding to the general acceptance of the notion of a global 'free market' in higher education. There are very few studies of overseas provision which can test these claims since most countries regulate such provision to varying degrees either in their general higher education law or in a specific law. The Republic of Macedonia (RM) presents an interesting example of a state which asserts in its general higher education law, as part of a government responsibility to protect its citizens from exploitation, a fairly strong control through licensing and accreditation procedures, yet has in effect opened a relatively free market for private providers. This position paper examines the RM situation in outline and suggests how we might assess whether the impact of private providers has forced or assisted constructive change in a traditionally-oriented public sector.

Abstrakt

Viteve të fundit ka pasur një rritje të furnizuesve të huaj për programe dhe kampuse fitimprurëse jashtë shtetit të tyre amë. Paralelisht me këtë, ka pasur edhe rritje në furnizimet private të lidhura me institucionet e huaja (më shpesh me ato të SHBA-ve). Disa komentues thonë që furnizimi fitimprurës në një treg të lirë ose të parregulluar, është përgjigje ndaj kërkesës së studentëve të pakënaqur nga furnizuesit publikë dhe vepron si mekanizëm për ndryshime konstruktive, duke iu shtuar pranimit të përgjithshëm të nocionit të "tregut të lirë" global në arsimin e lartë. Ka shumë pak studime të bëra për furnizimet

tejedetase, të cilat mund t'i testojnë këto deklarata, meqë shumica e shteteve i rregullojnë këto provizione në shkallë të ndryshme, me ligjin e përgjithshëm të arsimit të lartë, ose me një ligj të posaçëm. Republika e Maqedonisë është një shembull interesant i një shteti, që vendos një kontroll të fortë nëpërmjet ligjit të përgjithshëm të arsimit të lartë, si pjesë e përgjegjësisë së Qeverisë për t'i mbrojtur qytetarët e saj nga eksploatimi, nëpërmjet procedurave të licencimit dhe akreditimit, që megjithatë ka hapur treg relativisht të lirë për furnizuesit privatë. Ky punim, analizon situatën e RM-së në vija kryesore dhe jep sugjerimet për atë se si ne mundemi të vlerësojmë nëse ndikimi i furnizuesve privatë ka detyruar, ose ka asistuar ndryshimet konstruktive në sektorin publik tradicionalisht të orientuar.

Апстракт

Во текот на последните неколку години постои голем пораст на странските провајдери кои основаат профитни странски програми, па дури и универзитети. Истото е пропатено со порастот на приватните услуги поврзани со странски (најчесто американски) институции. Некои лица тврдат дека остварувањето профит во еден слободен нерегулиран пазар е одговор на потребата да се одговори на незадоволството на студентите со провајдерите на државни услуги и служи како катализатор за конструктивна промена, што се совпаѓа со општото прифаќање на идејата за 'слободен пазар' во високото образование. Постојат мал број на студии за странски услуги кои може да ги тестираат овие тврдења бидејќи повеќето држави ги регулираат таквите услуги до различен степен со општиот закон за високо образование или со посебен закон. Република Македонија (РМ) е интересен пример на држава која се афирмира во општиот закон за високо образование, како дел од владината одговорност да ги заштити своите граѓани од експлоатација, што е прилично јака контрола преку постапките за лицензирање и акредитација, што всушност го отвори релативно слободниот пазар за приватните провајдери. Овој труд ја испитува состојбата на РМ во кратки црти и предлага како би можеле да утврдиме дали влијанието на приватните провајдери ја присили или потпомогна конструктивната промена во традиционално ориентираниот државен сектор.

Introduction

Globalisation of higher education attracts much academic discussion. The dynamics of competition in higher education are complex, with national and global competition being distinct, but feeding into each other (Marginson, 2006).

One aspect of globalisation originating in the US, UK and other major exporters of the 'trade' in higher education has been the opening of off-shore campuses in less developed or developing countries (Van Damme, 2001) and the related phenomenon of validation or franchising, leading to efforts by the UK Quality Assurance Agency to monitor such collaborative provision and in particular 'serial arrangements' which sometimes cause problems. All, or almost all, such collaboration is with the private sector, which is more or less regulated by national law. The Republic of Macedonia (hereafter RM) is classified as a 'lower middle income' country (World Bank, 2006) and commits a relatively low proportion of its budget to publicly-funded higher education. The quality of higher education in the publicly-funded universities is anecdotally –as there is no operative national quality assurance system - classified as low by comparison with most other European states and the US, both in the sense of reaching minimum acceptable standards (as in the 'quality car' analogy – from hand-crafted parts, leather upholstery, hardwood dash, fast, to cheapness provided they meet customer expectations - (Redding, 2005)) and in the sense of building on those standards to enhance prospects of employability. According to papers submitted to the Bologna Process Ministerial Conference in London, May 2007 (Business Europe, 2007):

The evolution towards process-oriented and interdisciplinary work organization increasingly requires employees to be adaptable, to develop problem solving skills and to work in teams. Graduates' employability thus has to become a key mission for universities and other higher education institutions. This has to be reflected to a greater extent in the design of study courses and become a main criterion of quality for future degrees.

One consequence of the stress on employability is that prospective students and those families which can afford it in RM and which believe the anecdotal evidence may look to alternative provision of higher education, leading to diplomas and degrees which may, and hopefully will, look more attractive to national and international employers than those awarded by the state universities. Education, particularly higher education, has been seen for more than 25 years as a major determinant of an individual's position in the 'labour queue' and in his/her earning potential (Rumberger, 1981; Brown, 2006) and employers rely increasingly on certificates and diplomas to certify competence (Noah & Eckstein, 2001). Arguably therefore, an institution which offers 'European' or 'American' style education with associated connotations of quality and value as a 'positional good' (Hirsch, 1976), is almost certain to attract students.

As has been pointed out in a critical analysis of British higher education provision in Israel (Lieven & Martin, 2006), it is sometimes argued that private providers:

widen opportunities in response to unmet demand; stimulate healthy competition and innovation; and, in comparison with national providers, have “a greater incentive to provide education of high quality. If they do not, their students will walk out” (Alderman, 2002). These developments, and the claims made on their behalf, are occurring in an environment which has been almost wholly dominated by national systems of HE (Scott, 1998; Van Damme, 2001).

Recent thinking revises earlier distinctions based on legal ownership and challenges the notion that the ‘public good’ can be defined on a national basis. It focuses on the social character of the ‘goods’ whether public or private. It argues that higher education in one nation has the potential to create positive and negative externalities in another; and all higher education systems and institutions can benefit from collective systems e.g. that facilitate cross-border recognition and mobility (Marginson, 2007). It is also argued that:

Perhaps an important step would be for leaders and managers to recognise that the public vs. private distinction, so powerful in some parts of the Commonwealth, is no longer serviceable, and that recognition of private HEIs, as cut from the same cloth-or from cloth of an increasingly similar pattern-is both fair and advisable. They are of course, competitors, but seldom for research funding and never for direct state subsidies, and if they compete for the same student ‘market’, it is, almost everywhere, a growing one, and likely to increase. But the strongest reason for leaders in state universities to take an interest in the welfare of their smaller, independent brethren is that they stand to gain as much from understanding the innovations and successful survival techniques adopted in those institutions as the latter do from being fully accepted and integrated into the larger university community. Exploratory benchmarking between public and private universities, both nationally and internationally, will be an instructive and sensible endeavour (Drew, 2005).

Some research findings

The questions raised about ‘quality’ in relation to new forms of higher education are complex (Middlehurst, 2001). Until the research undertaken in Israel, there was been little opportunity to test claims that globalisation would enhance quality and widen access to HE, in a ‘free market’ (Van der Wende & Westerheijden, 2001). The conclusion of that study was that markets in HE will tend to operate for profit not quality, and that the proponents of private provision argue from ‘misconceived assumptions about the consumer and “ideal markets”’ (Lieven & Martin, 2006). A study of the impact of private providers in Slovakia (Collinge, 2004) considered the arguments used in support of private-sector educational establishments in post-Communist Europe and compared them with the observations and experiences of an academic librarian working in the field. It addressed the issues of quality and standards, which are far from evident. Private higher education institutions, particularly new ones such as those in RM, need to establish their legitimacy or ‘right to exist’. Certainly, private higher education has its supporters:

The argument is that while [the private institutions’] quality is currently varied, they are structurally much better suited to serve the post-communist world than are the rigid, cash-strapped public universities. However, they must first overcome certain challenges, such as a lack of prestige, that arise from their very identity as private-sector institutions (Galbraith, 2003).

Studies suggest that there is no generic framework for establishing legitimacy and it is country-specific (Giesecke, 2006) and that there is some impact on the conceptualisation and mechanisms of quality assurance due to the opening of branch campuses in transition countries (Hendel & Lewis, 2005). The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) (Middlehurst, 2001) identify this category as part of Type 3 in their typology for which quality assurance issues are:

Legal frameworks and liabilities, including commitments to students
Financial arrangements
Quality criteria and monitoring arrangements
Responsibilities of each party (for programme maintenance, quality control and assurance)
Management of collaborative activity (may require ‘meta-level’ structure)

Validating/licensing agent and authority
Awarding authority
National/international accrediting agencies
Issues of consumer protection, access and equal opportunity
Privacy and security arrangements

A conference organised by UNESCO's European Centre for Higher Education concluded among other things that private higher education institutions which can contribute to the broader 'public good' should be encouraged and should develop a culture of internal quality coupled with various mechanisms of internal and external evaluation (UNESCO CEPES, 2005). Accreditation procedures should permit and even encourage multiple definitions of quality based on diverse indicators with a strong emphasis on learning outcomes. Surveys or tracking systems following the success of graduates in the employment market would help to identify relative strengths and weaknesses in institutions and in courses. Here again we see a connection to 'positional value' represented through better job prospects being secured through quality higher education.

In Brazil, the World Bank has promoted dramatic growth in private higher education on the basis of the private providers' ability to ensure a rapid increase in enrolment, to improve quality through competition between institutions and to bring benefits for society at little public cost. However research shows that

the charging of fees means that the majority of Brazilians do not have access, and that inequalities are reproduced due to the relation between course costs and the value of the final diploma. Equitable access is, therefore, far from being achieved and is unlikely even with an increase in student loans and government subsidies. The contribution of private universities to the long-term development of society is seen to be limited, due to lack of investment in research and academic staff (McCowan, 2004).

In Pakistan, the situation was fairly typical of a developing country (Coffman, 1997):

Pakistanis perceive American university studies as superior to all others, and thus as something to be sought in America if they can afford it, or purchased locally if not. With the growing disaffection with the public system, the upper classes able to afford the \$500 to \$3,000 annual tuition are flocking to the local American alternatives. In the last five years, a hodgepodge of private

institutions has arisen that bill themselves as full-fledged, accredited, branch American universities, or as affiliated with American universities and awarding degrees from their American affiliate. The majority of these claims are fraudulent, underlining their "foreign-trained" faculty as a guarantee of quality.

Pakistanis are ill-equipped to evaluate such claims and generally assume that American universities are worthy of their trust. The "American" degree they receive is assumed to guarantee international recognition and access to higher-level studies anywhere in the world. Some local institutions are working in conjunction with accredited American universities that have opted to sell their names and their degrees for fairly lucrative returns. Other institutions are simply groups of investors who have obtained business licenses in Utah, Iowa, Hawaii, etc., under the name of "University of . . .," and who then open up their schools in Pakistan as "off-shore" operations. Still others are merely bogus schools in rented facilities that claim affiliation with nonexistent, but American-sounding, universities. Faced with court challenges as to the legality of their operations, some have simply informed the court that as "American" universities, they are not obliged to abide with Pakistani regulations.

Returning to Europe, it is noted in relation to the formation of the American University in Kosovo (AUK) which announced initial tuition fees of about €5000, claiming that the public University of Prishtina was too unresponsive to student and job needs:

Many small countries in Europe are part of the worldwide tendency for public monopolies to yield to dual sectors. Often, the private institutions are pointedly oriented to US forms more than the traditional forms still dominant in the national public sector. The new university in Kosovo follows the precedent of institutions in other countries (e.g., Bulgaria) that boast 'American' in their name. The business, economics, and practicality focus is common, whether it is combined with a second-option appeal for those who cannot gain admission to still exclusive public universities or whether it is combined with a private choice based on a view that the public university is outmoded, particularly for the new economy. An ethnic thrust is also a feature that can contrast with the inclusive national stance of the public university (Levy, 2004).

Although based on data from 2000, experience in Hungary suggests that the increase in private higher education and increased tuition fees have not been

accompanied by lower quality, as measured by labour market success indicators with the help of multivariate estimation techniques.

The results suggest that education at cost-priced, state-funded places and private higher-education institutions provides essentially the same level of knowledge or produces the same educational quality as measured by wages. No negative effect has been detected as for the labour-market status of ex-students. Students graduating from cost-priced places and private institutions experience the same unemployment probability, whereas the overall employment probability of students graduated from cost-priced places is higher than that of persons studied at state-funded ones. One can conclude that although the opportunity of establishing more and more cost-priced places might have been advantageous for higher-education institutions so as to increase their revenues, they have shown some self-restraint in this respect, and there is no sign that the increase in cost-priced places has led to lower-quality workers (Galasi & Varga, 2003).

The status of higher education in RM

Since the enactment of the Law on Higher Education 2000 (Official Gazette of RM 64/2000) the market for higher education has been liberalised so that alongside the two (now three) state universities (Skopje, Bitola and Tetovo, soon to be joined by a fourth state university in Štip,) there are several purely private initiatives (New York University Skopje, American University College Skopje, FON, European University, New Balkan University, and possibly others by the time this article appears). Some of these are in effect foreign providers establishing local campuses; others are local initiatives. There is also one *sui generis* private-public university, South East European University at Tetovo, financed initially by the EU, US and OSCE Member States to provide a politically-acceptable solution in 2000/2001 to the problem of access of Albanian-speaking students to accredited higher education. The requirement that publicly-funded higher education must be delivered only in Macedonian (or in some circumstances in foreign 'world' languages) was subsequently removed by the Law Amending the Law on Higher Education 2003 (Government of the Republic of Macedonia, 2003) which allowed teaching in the Albanian language in a state university, so allowing the formation in 2004 of the State University of Tetovo (Government of the Republic of Macedonia, 2004), based on, but separate from, the ten-year old Tetovo University 'citizens' initiative' and described by one commentator (Xu, 2004) as:

an extreme case of where the law is more a response to private higher education reality than an initiator of it. Tetovo also represents a sharp case of where private higher education serves particular ethnic interests. Eastern and Central Europe, but also other regions as well, are witnessing an increase in institutions that serve minorities that may be or feel less comfortable in mainstream public (or private) universities. Promoters herald freedom and choice while detractors worry about divisiveness.

Further changes to the Law on Higher Education are anticipated in 2007, possibly with an emphasis on funding of all accredited institutions in the public interest but at time of writing the draft Law is in a considerable state of flux.

The current system of accreditation in RM is ex-ante and is rigid by European standards. It requires submission of all programmes of study from both public and private institutions to a Licensing and Accreditation Board which may take several months to reach a decision. While there is provision in the Law on Higher Education for assessment and evaluation of institutions, in practice this is inoperative. At least, however, it ensures that programmes are given some degree of respectability, as the application must be accompanied not only by details of the proposed curriculum but also the names and qualifications of the academic staff who will teach it. Beyond that, there is no attempt to assess the quality of output. Only the two state universities of Skopje (UKIM) and Bitola (UKOB) and SEEU have been subject voluntarily to the institutional quality assurance programme of the European Universities Association (EUA) which was generally supportive of the quality assurance arrangements made by SEEU but not so supportive of those made by UKIM and UKOB principally because the latter two are not integrated but a loose collection of Faculties with considerable autonomy. The remaining institutions have not been subject to this or to any comparable form of evaluation.

Market freedom and the customer in RM

As the British research pointed out, the HE market is large and multiple. It includes students of course, but also staff, grants and scholarships, products, resources, etc (Jongbloed, 2003). In this article we are concerned with the market for students in RM. This market can be classified as ‘regulated’, as opposed to ‘free’ since in the Law on Higher Education the government does impose some restrictions in regard to licensing and accreditation and in common with governments of many states tries to protect citizens and employers of graduates from the global phenomenon known as ‘credential/qualification fraud’ (Brown, 2006). In a wholly ‘free’ market there would be no restrictions, with foreign

providers able to enter freely, set up institutions, provide academic programmes and recruit students. In the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) negotiations, movement towards a truly 'free' market is advocated by, among others, the US and the UK. The US is the largest exporter of education, whereas the UK has been described as the 'most aggressive' lobbyist of the WTO for countries to open up their HE sectors to competition and corporate ownership (Van der Wende & Westerheijden, 2001; Wallach and Woodall, 2003). Although, of course, this is intended to cover legitimate activities only.

There seems little doubt that students are now regarded as customers or consumers of higher education both by market specialists (Redding, 2005), educationalists (Comesky, McCool, Byrnes & Weber, 1992; Schwartzmann, 1995; Tovote, 2001) and by higher education lawyers (Farrington & Palfreyman, 2006; Kaplin & Lee, 2006). The precise legal relationship can of course only be deduced from a study of a specific state's laws and policies. A truly free market requires customer empowerment in the free availability of information on the quality of the service, but Winston (1999) argued that:

People investing in human capital through a purchase of higher education don't know what they're buying – and won't and can't know what they have bought until it is far too late to do anything about it. Education is a typically one-shot investment expenditure, a unique rather than a repetitive purchase, more like buying a cancer cure than groceries.

Further, Redding (2005) asserted that:

Empowering customers implies applying some of the basic tenets of quality management. Academia, as with other sectors, has been wrestling with the concepts of customers and quality. ...There is a semantic difference between 'customer' and 'consumer' the former being associated with one who pays...much of the academic community has focused the debate on the term 'customer.'

Alternatives such as co-producer (Kotze & Plessis, 2003) or 'partial employees' (Hoffman & Kretovics, 2004) may more accurately reflect the complexity of the students' roles in higher education, as opposed to client, consumer or customer but (Redding, 2005):

...the customer, consumer, client or co-producer doesn't particularly care what they are called, as long as someone is addressing them.

As in RM the students pay for non-state-funded higher education, and are unlikely to be too concerned about their precise classification, we treat them as customers of service providers with expectations that they will receive a 'quality' product in return for their (or more likely their parents') investment and will thereby improve their chances of employment and mobility.

The impact of private providers on student customers in RM

The question then is to what extent the emergence of the private providers has made a constructive contribution to higher education in RM, in particular how far they have contributed to increasing quality and thereby to enhanced mobility and employment. It is suggested, on the basis of anecdotal evidence, that students attend these institutions for the same reasons that they do in Kosovo, Brazil or Pakistan as discussed above: they, or more likely their parents, feel disenchanted with an inflexible and non-market oriented public sector, with increasing class sizes adding to difficulty in delivering a quality education leading to employment.

It is generally accepted in RM that the "anomalous" public-private SEEU has made a significant contribution, taking the lead in adapting curricula to the Bologna Process, adopting ECTS in an orderly way, putting in place internal and external elements of quality assurance, consulting and involving students, staff and employers and using interactive teaching methods. But SEEU aims at a particular market: by holding tuition fees at the lowest level consistent with quality education, by making extensive use of scholarship funding to improve access from lower socio-economic groups, and by making a genuine and successful effort at inter-ethnic dialogue, it attracts those who wish to learn in a multi-ethnic environment and makes use of the best-qualified academics, a significant proportion of whom are part-time staff of the state universities in RM, Kosovo-UNMIK and Albania.

SEEU's objectives are to

- (i) pursue excellence in teaching and research;
- (ii) be open to all on the basis of equity and merit regardless of ethnicity;
- (iii) actively seek co-operation with other universities, both in the Republic of Macedonia and in South East Europe as a whole

and has as its main aims:

Dennis J. Farrington

- (i) to contribute to the solution of the problem of Albanian language higher education;
- (ii) to promote inter-ethnic understanding;
- (iii) to ensure a multilingual and multicultural approach to teaching and research; and
- (iv) to develop its teaching programme in a broad international and European perspective.

SEEU has not achieved its success unaided. Like the generality of 'private' providers mentioned above, it has established links, notably through the generosity of USAID with a high quality public provider in the United States, Indiana University – so it has the 'American link' - as well as less well-supported links with European institutions. Its record of graduate success in such a short time is impressive. Among its first graduates, about 60% continued to further study in RM or abroad and about 25% directly to employment. The destination of the remaining 15% is not known, which is broadly the same percentage as in the UK (HESA 2005). There are no comparable statistics published for the state universities in RM.

The SEEU pattern is not directly repeated in the much smaller private providers which have different objectives: although they too make use of well-qualified academic staff mainly from the state universities, they charge higher fees, operate in a mono-lingual (Macedonian, Albanian or English) or in some instances bilingual environment and generally teach courses which have an obvious international appeal, e.g. business and management.

For example, the American College Skopje, the stated goal of which is to prepare students to meet the demands of society and produce future leaders:

is an institution for higher education, that combines the best of the American and European educational experience.offers American efficiency through carefully designed curricula, current professional literature and case studies from distinguished authors, as well as implementation of the "American Way".employs the European model of continuous education with an accelerated Bachelor's degree, as well as expanded studies in the Master's level of education. The programmes for undergraduate and graduate levels are designed to be completed in 3+2 years with the full option of transferring credits from other accredited institutions.provides excellence at affordable tuition and favourable terms of

payment.delivers superior value to its students, no matter what academic level they are enrolled in (American College Skopje, n.d.).

The College thus lays claim in quality assurance terms to ‘the best of the American and European educational experience’ (thus suggesting ‘positional value’), to ‘excellence’ and ‘superior value’ and to prepare ‘future leaders’ while implementing the ‘American Way’ – the meaning of which is not clear to the author but presumably has to do with the recognised excellence of much, although not all, US higher education..

The *European University R. Macedonia* (n.d.) in Skopje states its aim and strategic orientation to be:

above all... discovering new ways of incorporating the society and the individuals into the current flows of social growth, as well as creating permanent and secure communication channels with the most important accomplishments of that growth. The European University, as an integral part of the entire educational system of the Republic of Macedonia, strives to meet European and world standards. The Faculties of the European University contribute to the process of development and energetic promotion of the areas in which they are specialized.

The University claims to pay great attention to recruiting ‘the most eminent professors’ and states that during the period of education, particular attention is paid to the fact that the students should acquire ‘high-quality knowledge’ in their field of studies. It is:

a pioneer in the area of private educational institutions in this country, which reflects a completely new and different approach towards students and towards the acquiring of knowledge, at the same time relying on the renowned tradition of European, American and Macedonian universities (*European University R. Macedonia*, n.d.). and

[it] is continuously creating an atmosphere entirely focused on the student. The approach towards the student is individual, personal; the students work in small groups and have direct contact with their professors. Emphasis is put on the individual growth of each student, at the same time paying attention to teamwork and development of the skills needed for mutual communication (*European University R. Macedonia*, n.d.).

Dennis J. Farrington

The University therefore claims to have a new (and by implication quality) student-oriented approach to higher education using the best professors, again suggesting ‘positional value.’

These two examples (*American College* and *European University*) show how marketing addresses the concerns of student customers about state provision. Both make statements about quality, and elsewhere in their promotional material both promote the idea of small group teaching in contrast to the massification of higher education seen in many Faculties of the state universities. For this, students must expect to pay fees of at least €2000 per year, well above the fees charged for non-state quota places in most Faculties of the state universities although not much higher than the ‘socially-responsive’ fees charged at SEEU. Neither has yet produced significant numbers of graduates so that the effect on the labour market is not known.

Conclusion

Apart from the facts known about SEEU, it is too early to assess whether the private providers in RM have had any significant effect on increasing quality in higher education overall, in terms of the criterion of increased opportunities for employment *per se* or higher level employment. Certainly the expectation would be that if the aims and objectives of the two other universities examined (the *European University* and the *American College*) are realised in practice, the opportunities for their graduates should be enhanced. It is not clear whether SEEU has forced changes in the public providers so that their own offerings are more directed to employability. We may cite two possible factors. First, the simple fact of exposing staff of the state universities working part time at SEEU to the different teaching methods and curricula must, it is argued, have a positive effect on their main teaching functions and on the quality of the programmes. This should also hold true of the private providers which offer opportunities to work with highly motivated students in small groups, probably – and certainly in the *European University* assuming its objectives are met - exposing students to skills training which they would not experience with a mass provider. Second, the competition offered by SEEU to some extent requires the public providers to change their overall institutional behaviour. This must equally apply to the other providers although critical mass may play a part.

Measuring graduate success over the coming years will provide a fertile ground for further analysis leading to the publication of research results in 2009/2010. Certainly it is clear so far that in this field, consumer demand is only partially operating on the basis of quality and that the market-place cannot yet

demonstrate that it assures the quality which is an integral part of 21st century higher education provision.

References

1. American College Skopje, (n.d.) Mission Statement. Retrieved on July 2, 2007 from http://www.acs.edu.mk/misija_en.html.
2. Alderman, G. (2002). Lots to gain from for-profits. *Times Higher Education Supplement*, March 22.
3. Brown, G.M. (2006). Degrees of doubt: legitimate, real and fake qualifications in a global market. *Journal of Higher Education Policy*, 28(1), 71-79.
4. Business Europe. (2007). *Position paper on employability of graduates*. <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/bologna/uploads/documents/BUSEUROPEPositiononEmpofGrads.pdf>
5. Coffman, J. (1997). Private higher education in Pakistan: The need for order. *International Higher Education*, Volume 9 (CIHE, Boston).
6. Collinge, W. (2004). 'Impact of private-sector university growth on the societies of post-Communist Europe: a case study from Slovakia' *Quality Assurance in Education*, 12(4), 188-196.
7. Comesky, R., McCool, S., Byrnes, L. & Weber, R. (1992). *Implementing total quality management in higher education*. Madison WI: Magna Publications.
8. Drew, J. (2005). Private higher education: Threat or a promise. *ACU Bulletin*, 137.
9. European University, R. Macedonia. (n.d.). Retrieved on 2 July 2007 from <http://www.eurm.edu.mk>.
10. Farrington, D.J. & Palfreyman, D. (2006). *The Law of Higher Education* Oxford University Press.
11. Galasi, P. & Varga, J. (2003). Does private and cost-priced higher education produce poor quality? *Society and Economy* 24(3), 333-361.
12. Galbraith, K. (2003). Towards quality private higher education in Central and Eastern Europe. *Higher Education in Europe*, 28(4), 539-558.

13. Giesecke, H. (2006). Legitimacy Seeking among New Private Institutions of Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe, *Higher Education in Europe* 31(1), 11-24.
14. Government of the Republic of Macedonia. (2003). Zakon za izmenuvanje i dopolnuvanje na zakonot za visokoto obrazovanie. Retrieved on 17 July 2007 from: http://www.pravo.org.mk/download/zakoni/sub/visokoto_obrazovanie_ID25072003.pdf.
15. Government of the Republic of Macedonia. (2004). Zakon za osnivanje ha drzaven univerzitet vo tetovo. Retrieved on 17 July 2007 from http://www.pravo.org.mk/download/zakoni/osnivanje%20drzaven%20uниверзitet%20vo%20tetovo_23022004.pdf.
16. Hendel, D. & Lewis, D. (2005). Quality assurance of higher education in transition countries: accreditation, accountability and assessment. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 11(3), 239-258.
17. HESA (Higher Education Statistics Agency). (2005). *First Destination Statistics*. Retrieved on 2 July 2007 from <http://www.hesa.ac.uk>.
18. Hirsch, F. (1976). *Social Limits to Growth*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
19. Hoffman, K.D. & Kretovics, M.A.(2004). Students as partial employees: a metaphor for the student-institution interaction. *Innovative Higher Education* 29(2) 103-120.
20. Jongbloed, B. (2003). Marketisation in higher education Clark's triangle and the essential ingredients of markets. *Higher Education Quarterly* 57(2), 110-122.
21. Kaplin, W. & Lee, B. (2006). *The Law of Higher Education* (4th ed). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
22. Kotze, T. & Plessis, P. (2003). Students as "co-producers" of education: a proposed model of student socialisation and participation at tertiary institutions. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 11, 186-201.
23. Lieven, M. & Martin, G. (2006). Higher education in a global market: The case of British overseas provision in Israel. *Higher Education*, 52(1), 41-68.

24. Levy, D.C. (2004). The American University in Kosovo. Retrieved on 2 July 2007 from <http://www.albany.edu/dept/eaps/prophe/publication/News/SummaryKosovo.html>
25. Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. *Higher Education*, 52(1), 1-39.
26. Marginson, S. (2007). The public/private divide in higher education: a global revision. *Higher Education*, 53(3), 307-333.
27. McCowan, T. (2004). The growth of private higher education in Brazil: implications for equity and quality. *Journal of Education Policy*, 19(4), 453-472.
28. Middlehurst, R. (2001). Quality Assurance: Implications of new forms of higher education. Part I: A typology. *Occasional Paper 3*, Helsinki: ENQA.
29. Noah, H.J. & Eckstein, M.A. (2001). *Fraud and education: the worm in the apple* Lanham MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
30. Redding, P. (2005). The evolving interpretations of customers in higher education: empowering the elusive. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 29(5), 409-417.
31. Rumberger, R.W. (1981). *Overeducation in the US Labor Market*. New York: Praeger.
32. Schwartzmann, R. (1995). Are students customers? The metaphorical mismatch between management and education. *Education*, 116, 215-222.
33. Scott, P. (ed) (1998). *The Globalisation of Higher Education*. Buckingham: OUP and SRHE.
34. Tovote, C. (2001). *Customer or refined student? Reflections on the 'customer' metaphor in the academic environment and the new pedagogical challenge to the library and librarians*. Paper presented at the 67th International Federation of Library Associations General Conference, Boston MA, August 2001.
35. UNESCO-CEPES. (2005). International Conference on private higher education in Europe and quality assurance and accreditation from the perspective of the Bologna Process objectives, Warsaw. Retrieved on 2

- July 2007 from
<http://www.cepes.ro/hed/meetings/private05/conclusions.pdf>
36. Van Damme, D. (2001). Quality issues in the internationalisation of higher education. *Higher Education*, 41(4) 415-441.
 37. Van der Wende, M. & Westerheijden, D. (2001). International aspects of quality assurance with a special focus on European higher education. *Quality in Higher Education*, 7(3), 233-245.
 38. Wallach, L. & Woodall, P. (2003). *Whose Trade Organisation?* New York: New York Press.
 39. Winston, G.C. (1999). Subsidies, hierarchy and peers. The awkward economics of higher education. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 13(1), 13-36.
 40. World Bank (2006). *Country Classification*. Retrieved on 2 July 2007 from <http://www.worldbank.org>.
 41. Xu, Y. (2004). Private University legalised in Macedonia. Retrieved on 2 July 2007 from <http://www.albany.edu/dept/eaps/prophe/publication/News/SummaryMacedonia.html>.

Implementing Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Elena Spirovska MSc

Language Centre
South East European University

Abstract

This paper analyzes the place and role of literature in second language acquisition. In the short historical overview presented in the introduction, different stages of using literature in language classes will be described. This paper focuses on the rationale for using literature in a language classroom. Finally, three different models of using literature in ESL/ EFL classroom will be described, including some suggestions of incorporating literature in a language lesson.

Abstrakt

Ky punim, analizon vendin dhe rolin e letërsisë në të mësuarit e gjuhës së dytë. Në vështrimin e shkurtër historik të dhënë në hyrje, do të përshkruhen faza të ndryshme të shfrytëzimit të letërsisë në të mësuarit e gjuhës. Ky punim përqendrohet në bazat e shfrytëzimit të letërsisë në një orë mësimi të gjuhës. Në fund, do të përshkruhen tre modele të ndryshme të përdorimit të letërsisë në një orë ESL/EFL, përfshirë këtu edhe disa sugjerime për inkorporimin e letërsisë në një ligjëratë për mësimin e gjuhës.

Апстракт

Овој труд го анализира местото и улогата на литературата при стекнувањето на втор странски јазик. Во краткиот историски преглед даден во воведот ќе бидат опишани различни фази од употребата на литература на часовите по јазик. Овој труд се фокусира на оправданоста за користење литература во една јазична училница. На крајот ќе бидат опишани три различни модели за користење литература во јазичната училница, при што се вклучени неколку предлози за вклучување литература на еден јазичен час.

Introduction

The relationship between literature, language learning and teaching has existed since the early years of the previous century. Since then, the issue of implementing literature in language teaching has changed significantly. At the beginning, literature was considered of high prestige in language study. It was treated not only as a model of exemplary use of language, but also as a source of moral values. The main objective of learning a foreign language in those days was to enable the student to read literary texts produced in the target language in order to acquire the foreign culture from the collection of texts canonized by tradition. The methodology was 19th century grammar-translation. It meant that the texts were interpreted and translated, with the use of a dictionary and used for studying grammar and practicing translation.

Of course, this approach could not contribute to the communication skills of the language learners, and it resulted in mechanical forms of language learning. Although the learners were able to quote classic poets or writers like Milton or Shakespeare, they were often unable to use the language in everyday situations. Furthermore, for many non- native speakers of English, literary texts were difficult to access, and the texts which were available often presented no real intellectual challenge to the reader, thus being uninspiring for the learners. As a result of these teaching practices, literature and literary texts were excluded from language learning. Instead of authentic texts, dialogues and short texts were devised to convey the language structures and vocabulary. However, they lacked the literary effect that characterizes an authentic text.

The role and implementation of literature in the language classroom and language learning was questioned further by the ELT approaches during the period 1960-1980, which did not encourage students to develop a feeling for language. Structuralism, emphasizing the importance of accuracy in grammatical form and repetition of a restricted lexis, was also incompatible with the teaching of literature. Literary texts, with their structural complexity and unique use of language, do not contribute a lot to teaching grammar, which is one of the main goals of many teachers of English even today. Widdowson (1982, cited in Spack, 1985) explains why literature was excluded from ESL/EFL curricula which focused on accuracy only: "Literature and poetry in particular, has a way of exploiting resources in a language which have not been codified as correct usage. It is therefore misleading as a model.....it has no place in an approach to teaching that insists on the gradual accumulation of correct linguistic forms."

The communicative approach to language teaching during the 1970s and early 1980s emphasized the study of the language for practical purposes. Accordingly, the study of literature contributes little to help students meet their professional

and occupational goals, since literature has no obvious practical uses; it had no place in the language classroom. The inclusion of literature was “a potentially disruptive influence in the well-ordered world of the carefully controlled language courses.” (Widdowson, 1984, cited in Spack, 1985). Widdowson, who is among the most dedicated supporters to the return of literature in the language classroom, challenges those who banned literature from the EFL curriculum and invented their own brand of fiction to display language use. He argues: “Textbooks are full of fiction. Mr. and Mrs. Brown, son David, daughter Mary pursuing the dreary round of their diurnal life.” (Widdowson, 1982 cited in Spack, 1985).

However, during the 1980s there was a strong revival of interest in literature in language teaching. Linguists and ELT scholars (Widdowson, Brumfit, Long and Carter among others) advocated the advantages of teaching literature in the language classroom. They also emphasized the necessity of re-inventing a different pedagogical approach for non-native speakers of English. The crossing point of literature and language teaching should be the students' response to the text because”...the teaching of literature is an arid business unless there is a response and even negative responses can create an interesting classroom situation.” (Long, 1986, cited in Savvidoy, 2004). This new attitude towards the teaching of literature began to find support in the communicative approach which had once banned literature from EFL / ESL curricula. The communicative approach focuses on the exchange of meaning. From this point of view, the nature of literary texts came to be regarded as a learning area with rich potential, where social patterns of interaction could be experienced in situations in context.

Why use literary texts?

The arguments for the use of literary texts in the language classroom are many. As EFL interests shift from learning how to say into learning how to mean, literature assumed a more prominent place in a second language acquisition context. The reason for this shift is the awareness that language learners do not acquire new words only. By learning a new language they also accept different aspects of a different culture, and instead of only accepting new information passively, they create their own viewpoints and perceptions actively. In such an environment, literature has a place in fostering self-awareness and identity in interaction with a new language and culture. (Carter, 2007). English teachers share the same objective: promoting our students awareness of the structure of the language. Literature is part of language, in more senses than one. Widdowson points out two levels of linguistic knowledge: the level of usage and the level of use. Usage involves knowledge of linguistic rules, whereas use involves knowing how to use these rules in effective communication. A literary text can contribute

to knowledge of both of them. The advantage of using the literature for teaching language use is that literature presents language “embedded within a social context, and thus, there is a basis for determining why a particular form is used” (McKay, 1982).

Literary texts are intellectually stimulating. They allow readers, by relying on language, to imagine and create situations with which they may not be familiar. In building meaning, the reader reconstructs or re-creates what he or she thinks the writer is trying to communicate. Reading provides an interaction between the reader and the text, by decoding the language and the text concepts presented. Since literature increases reading proficiency, it contributes to achieving students’ academic or occupational goals.

Literary texts are not as clear and explicit as textbooks. Warren (1973, cited in McKay, 1982) states that one of the reasons why language learners carry out unnatural conversation stems from the fact that they are always taught to be explicit. Much of natural language is assumed, not being explicitly given. Gajdusek (1998) has pointed out that literary texts try to invite involvement in their worlds through language which is “less explicitly contextualized, more consciously patterned, and less linear” than the language used in texts whose purpose it is to convey information. What she means by “less explicitly contextualized” language use is that non-literary texts rely on devices such as introductions, transitions or explicit clues to meaning. Language learning through literature, therefore, may help the acquisition of particular language skills (e.g. inferring meanings from clues in the text, reading between the lines, understanding figurative and ambiguous language use). According to Gajdusek (1988), the language of literature requires more effort on the part of the recipient (learner) whose task it is to analyze in context the literary texts. Learners, however, may encounter difficulties unless helped by the teacher.

Critics of the use of literature maintain that if literary texts reflect a particular cultural perspective, they may be difficult for ESL students to read. However, literature can promote greater understanding of cultural diversity and therefore tolerance for cultural differences. Marshall (1979), in using literature with ESL students in Puerto Rico, found that literary texts enhanced both her and her students’ respect for the cultural framework in which those literary texts were embedded.

Selecting a text which is appropriate for an EFL learner in the sense of linguistic and conceptual difficulty is crucial. Although the language used for literary purposes and authentic texts is much more exciting and motivating than that used in some reading textbooks, it is difficult to choose texts to be used in a language classroom and the way to use them. These decisions depend on the

objectives and aims of each course, the levels of students' knowledge and the socio-cultural context.

Approaches to teaching literature

Having decided that integrating literature into the EFL syllabus is beneficial to the learners' linguistic development, we need to select an approach which best serves the needs of EFL learners and the syllabus. Carter and Long (1991) describe the rationale for the use of the three main approaches to the teaching of literature: cultural model, language model and the personal growth model.

The *cultural model* highlights the teaching of literature for its value in "the accumulated wisdom, the best that has been thought and felt within a culture." (Carter and Long, 1991). This model focuses on a more traditional approach to teaching literature and it requires a learner to analyze and explore different aspects of a specific text, for instance historical or social aspects. By using such a model to teach literature, learners are encouraged to understand and accept diverse cultural and heritage values different from their own. However, this model is more teacher-centred and it offers little opportunity for language work in ESL classroom.

However, the relationship between a culture and its literature is not always simple and explicit for various reasons. First, how can we define culture in this context? Lazar (1993) argues: "...is our definition to be an anthropological one in which culture is defined loosely as the values, traditions and social practices of a particular group- which are then revealed in the literary text? Or do we define culture as the discernment and knowledge traditionally possessed by the well educated, enlightened and cultivated native speaker, which is passed on 'good literature'? What then is the place of 'popular culture', which may in fact be of greater interest to many of our learners?"(Lazar, 1993)

Few literary works realistically represent the social and historical aspects of a certain period of time. For instance, after reading the works of Jane Austen or Keats's poems, a reader of British early 19th century works would view only a narrow aspect of life at that time. It does not mean that these literary works are worthless; however, they represent only a small proportion of a certain society (for instance, the works of Jane Austen focus only on middle or upper class characters and life). Another problem is how culture can be related to an individual. The language and especially the content of the literary works can be creatively tailored according to the beliefs, views and the personal preferences of the writer.

The most common approach to literature in the EFL classroom is what Carter and Long (1991) describe as the *language-based approach*. Since literature is made from language, if students are exposed systematically to works of literature they will develop their literary competence too. Working with literary texts increases students' vocabulary and understanding and use of linguistic structure. It also enables them to use and understand creative aspects of language; such as comparisons, symbols and metaphors. There is a variety of different language teaching strategies to be used with literary texts for language learning, for instance prediction exercises, matching synonyms jumbled sentences, paraphrasing, summary writing, creative writing and role play. Undoubtedly, there is much to be gained in terms of language development from such an exposure. These exercises are valuable when it comes to introducing literary texts to students, as well as to get them started to think about the essence and the meaning of the text, but there are certain drawbacks as well. There is little engagement of the learner with the text other than for purely linguistic practice. Literature is used in a rather mechanistic way, which often reduces students' response to the overall effect.

The *personal growth model* highlights the need of the students' personal engagement with the reading of literary texts. This model attempts to connect both the cultural model and the language model by focusing on the particular use of language in a text and placing the text in a specific cultural context. EFL students are encouraged to express their personal opinions and, feelings, as well as to relate their own personal and cultural experiences and those expressed and conveyed in the text. This technique is based on the theory of reading (Goodman, 1970, cited in Savvidoy, 2004) which emphasises the interaction which exists between the reader and the text. Another aspect of this model is that it helps learners develop knowledge of ideas and language – content and formal schemata – through different themes and topics. As Cadorath and Harris (1998) point out "text itself has no meaning, it only provides direction for the reader to construct meaning from the reader's own experience". Thus, learning is said to take place when readers are able to interpret text and construct meaning on the basis of their own experience. Furthermore, the model focuses on the pedagogical role of the teacher as an educator and an enabler for the transmission of knowledge encouraging the students to read and appreciate literature thus, contributing to their emotional and psychological growth. The personal growth model emphasizes the necessity and the pedagogical value of developing the students' critical awareness and increases their potential to become critical readers instead of passive accumulators of literary texts.

These three approaches to teaching literature differ in terms of their focus on the text: first, the text is seen as a cultural artefact; second, the text is used as a focus for grammatical and structural analysis; and third, the text is the stimulus

for personal growth activities. What is needed is an approach to teaching literature in the EFL classroom which attempts to integrate these elements in a way that makes literature accessible to learners and beneficial for their linguistic development.

How to use literature in a language classroom

Clearly, the above mentioned models of using literature in a language classroom have positive and negative characteristics. According to the current teaching situations, structure and level of proficiency of the students, the best option would be to integrate different elements of each of three models. By exposure to various literary texts and analyzing the socio-cultural aspects from the culture presented in them, it is possible to raise the students' awareness of multiple aspects, values and characteristics of different cultures. Using language learning strategies from the language model while introducing the text, enables the students to comprehend the text more easily and bridges the gap between understanding the text and achieving linguistic goals. By introducing the elements of the personal growth model, the students relate the text with their own personal experience and values. Interpretation of texts by learners can bring about personal responses from readers by touching on significant and engaging themes. This integrated model of implementing literature in EFL teaching, along with the careful selection of the text, can be adapted for all levels of students. It is difficult to choose literary texts appropriate for EFL classroom; however, certain guidelines can help us in doing so.

1. Literary texts in a foreign language context are a resource for study the target language, literary enrichment as well as personal development.
2. Literary texts should be appropriate to the students' level of proficiency, interests, concerns and age. Only then they can motivate the students in the language classroom and raise students' love of reading for pleasure which goes on beyond the classroom.
3. Literature in the language classroom should be introduced through a learner-centred approach. The teacher is a mediator between the learner and the literary text.
4. The texts can be introduced through various teaching strategies and practices divided into pre-reading, while-reading and after-reading activities. Prediction activities, jigsaw reading and listening, matching beginnings and endings of texts, gap-filling exercises, listening comprehension, discussions and presentations, debates,

creative writing and group projects are some examples.

Conclusion

Including literature in the language classroom aims to develop critical and creative thinking skills, adds to the students' personal growth and their autonomy both as language learners and as individuals, and contributes to their ability to empathize and comprehend other's values and needs. Having this in mind, the lesson plan in the Appendix introduces using unabridged literary texts, three short vignettes from the novel *The House on Mango Street* written by Sandra Cisneros.

Appendix: Lesson Plan

The House on Mango Street

Chapter 40: Linoleum Roses

Level: Intermediate

Introduction and pre-reading activity:

Teacher introduces the topic of marriage and a short classroom discussion on the pros and cons of marriage, eliciting students' ideas. The students are given the text of vignette Linoleum Roses and time to read it is assigned. The students read the text individually.

Post-reading activity

Students are given the following reading comprehension questions and quotes from the vignette, and they are asked to respond to the questions and explain why the quotes stated are important. The students are working in pairs answering the questions and producing the explanation. The teacher can initiate a classroom discussion, or the students can write their responses.

Reading comprehension questions

- 1) Why did Sally say she got married? How old was she when she married?
- 2) Why does Esperanza believe that Sally got married?
- 3) How does her husband treat her?
- 4) How is Sally an example of a "woman waiting by the window?"

Explain the significance of the following quotes.

She says she is in love, but I think she did it to escape.

She sits at home because she is afraid to go outside without his permission.

She likes looking at the walls, at how neatly their corners meet, the linoleum roses on the floor, the ceiling smooth as a wedding cake.

Personal response

Students are asked to write their personal response to the vignette. There are two options they can choose from:

- 1) What do you feel is the best age to get married? Is there a best age? Is there a best reason to get married? What myths do you think exist about marriage and romance?
- 2) Students can be asked to write, as homework, a short vignette on their own, similar, as much as possible, in mood and tone as the previous one. They can present the story from Sally's point of view, describing her situation, her relationship with her parents, the problems she wants to escape from and her reasons for getting married.

References

1. Cadorath, J. & Harris, S. (1998). Unplanned classroom language and teacher training. *ELT Journal*, 52(3).
2. Carter, R & Long, M. (1991). *Teaching literature*. Harlow, Longman
3. Carter, R. (2007). Literature and language teaching 1986-2006: a review. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(1).
4. Gajdusek, L. (1988). Toward wider use of literature in ESL: Why and how. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 22(2), 227-238.
5. Lazar, G. (1993). *Literature and Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
6. Marshall, M. (1979). Love and death in Eden: Teaching English literature to ESL students. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 13(3), 331-339.
7. McKay, S. (1982). Literature in the ESL classroom. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 16(4), 529-536.

Elena Spirovska

8. Savvidoy, C. (2004). An integrated approach to teaching literature in the EFL classroom. *TESL Internet Journal*, 6(3). Retrieved May 12, 2007, from <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Savvidou-Literature.html>
9. Spack, R. (1985). Literature, reading, writing, and ESL: Bridging the gaps. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 19(4), 703-721.

Getting it done: A brief overview of critical junctures in the study of how policy translates into practice

Philip Murphy, MA

Graduate School of Public and International Affairs
University of Pittsburgh

Abstract

The field of public administration deals with what, how, and why those at various levels within government do what they do. This field is comparatively new to universities within the Republic of Macedonia, but it is critical for its ability to fill the gap between informing policy practitioners and evaluating policies (often through economic means), creating policies (or laws), and actually putting those policies into effect. Because public administration is a very deep and complex field, this paper focuses on just one important aspect of public administration, implementation.

This article tracks the progress of policy implementation studies by providing an overview of a few key turning points in our understanding of how policy is implemented in a changing society. Each of the theorists mentioned have made important theoretical contributions to our understanding the fields of public policy and public administration. I will enumerate how those contributions have helped to shape the debate, and where the future of implementation research and understanding appears to be headed, in Macedonia and elsewhere.

Abstrakt

Fusha e administratës publike merret me atë se çka, si dhe pse e bëjnë atë që bëjnë personat në nivele të ndryshme brenda qeverisë. Kjo lëmi është relativisht e re për universitetet në Republikën e Maqedonisë, por është e rëndësishme për mundësinë e plotësimit të zbrazëtirës ndërmjet informimit të profesionistëve të politikave dhe vlerësimit të atyre politikave (shpesh me mjete ekonomike), krijimit të politikave (ose ligjeve), dhe në fakt, realizimi praktik i atyre politikave. Meqë administrata publike është një fushë e thellë dhe komplekse, ky punim fokusohet vetëm në një aspekt të rëndësishëm të administratës publike, atë të implementimit të politikave.

Ky artikull, ndjek përparimin e studimeve mbi implementimin e politikave, duke ofruar një vështrim mbi disa momente kthesë të të kuptuarit për atë se si implementohen politikat në një shoqëri që ndryshon. Secili prej teoricienëve të përmendur ka dhënë kontribut të rëndësishëm teorik që ne të kuptojmë më mirë fushën e politikave dhe administratës publike. Unë, do të tregoj se si ato kontribute kanë ndihmuar për t'i dhënë formë debatit dhe asaj nga është drejtuar hulumtimi mbi implementimin në të ardhmen, në Maqedoni, por edhe gjetiu.

Апстракт

Во областа на јавната администрација се расправа за тоа што, како и зошто различните нивоа на владата го прават тоа што го прават. Оваа област е релативно нова на универзитетите во Република Македонија, но истата е значајна за премостување на јазот помеѓу застапниците на информативната политика и политиките на евалуирање (често преку економски средства), создавањето политики (или закони) и самото спроведување на тие политики. Бидејќи јавната администрација е длабока и комплексна област, овој труд се фокусира на само еден многу важен аспект од јавната администрација, имплементацијата.

Оваа статија ги следи патеките на напредокот на студиите за имплементацијата на политиката преку давање преглед на неколкуте клучни точки за разбирањето на тоа како политиката се имплементира во едно општество во промена. Сите од споменатите теоретичари направиле значаен теоретски придонес за разбирањето на областите на јавната политика и јавната администрација. Ќе биде наброено како тие придонеси помогнале при обликувањето на дебатата и каде е насоката на идните истражувања за имплементацијата и разбирањето, во Македонија и во други места.

Introduction

South East European University (SEEU) is one of a very few pioneer programmes to introduce Macedonian students to the complex and important field of public administration. In the past, Macedonia's institutions of higher education have relied on the fields of law and economics to prepare the country's future public leaders and policy professionals. While law and economics are important tools for those in the public sector, administrators must consider far more than that if they hope to be effective in their positions.

The field of public administration deals with what, how, and why those at various levels within government do what they do. This is, of course, a vast oversimplification of the various processes, viewpoints, elements, and theories that comprise the field today. Because of the relative depth and complexity of the field, no review paper can possibly encompass the enormity of this discipline. With this in mind, it is therefore far wiser to confine this discussion of historical advances in public administration to one of the major subtopics within the field: implementation. Implementation is a critical aspect of administration and policy studies. Succinctly stated, implementation is the study of how policy is put into effect. Whereas early assumptions held that implementation followed naturally and wholly from the point that policy is created, that perspective has changed greatly as the topic has received more direct attention. Researchers have additionally come to see implementation through a variety of different lenses as time has passed and different philosophical paradigms have come into use.

When Lasswell (1971) and his student Brewer (1974) first introduced what we now know as the stages model of the policy process, they created the assumption that implementation was one element of a fairly straightforward, linear process. At the time, however, the few studies that examined the implementation 'process' found it to be far more complex than expected, with policies undergoing a large degree of change as they are put into effect. In a notable example, Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) determined that the difficulties inherent to implementation were not given anywhere near the attention they deserved. Their work chronicled the case of a piece of national legislation being implemented at the local level and how the original integrity of that policy degraded as various interests and conflicts came into play in the process.

Later, researchers began to acknowledge the complexity inherent in the theory and practice of implementation and tried to harness it through identification and linear modelling of the various actors and processes involved. These efforts soon hit a severe stumbling block when new theories obviated the aspects of temporal and structural linearity. After a period of uncertainty, new researchers began to emerge who embraced the idea of complexity as it is manifested in networks, providing new ways of viewing this complex and interesting problem.

In this paper, I will track the progress of policy implementation studies by focusing on a few scholars and scholarly teams who exemplify our evolving notions of how policy is implemented in a changing society. Each of these theorists have made important theoretical contributions to the fields of public policy and public administration. I will enumerate how those contributions have helped to shape the debate, and where the future of implementation research and understanding appears to be headed.

The evolution of the implementation debate

Not long after Brewer published his revisions of Lasswell's stages model of the policy process, Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) published their treatise, *The policy implementation process*. The very name of their article reflects the type of framework in use at the time: the policy *process* framework. Viewing implementation as a distinguishable process formed a comfort zone that allowed new researchers the benefit of a discreet set of events and ideas on which to focus. In public administration studies, the policy sciences were still new and many of the researchers at the time still tended to become overwhelmed by the complexity of policy and implementation and fell back on the "worm's eye view" that Lasswell had hoped to supplant. This view, reflecting a tendency to get lost in the details of a case, was what Lasswell had hoped to combat when he introduced the (linear and discrete) process model.

Like Lasswell, Van Meter and Van Horn also presented a linear model. Theirs was meant to provide a framework for the implementation process, through which that process could be better examined. They were some of the first in this respect, pointing to other "less than adequate" studies that had failed to portray the richness or necessity of the implementation process. They did, however, mitigate the earlier claim made by Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) that there was *no* significant analytical work that dealt with implementation. In doing so, they pointed to contributions originating from organization theory, public policy impact studies, and other studies of intergovernmental relations.

These studies provided the data and context from which Van Meter and Van Horn drew to construct their framework. In their work, they defined implementation as the actions directed toward achieving the objectives of policy decisions. The implementation phase was specifically explained as taking place *only* once legislation had been passed and funds had been committed. They went on to describe the implementation process as involving the variables, "policy standards and goals" and "resources," and their interaction with the four intervening variables "inter-organizational communication and enforcement," "characteristics of implementing agencies," "economic, social, and political conditions," and "the disposition of implementers," before translating into policy performance. This process was intended as a means to demonstrate how policy intentions and resources are affected by the other four variables.

As one of the first attempts to chart the implementation process from the top down, the work of Van Meter and Van Horn was groundbreaking. It helped to usher in a number of attempts to map the interactions and resource struggles embodied in the implementation process. Others either joined them in trying to improve the top-down effort (Sabatier & Mazmanian 1980), addressed further

inconsistencies through a bottom-up effort (Elmore 1979), or attempted to combine the two to form a more comprehensive approach (Sabatier 1986). While it did a lot to help catalyze the field, the Van Meter and Van Horn study and its offspring had a number of deficiencies. For the most part, they were still stuck in the assumption that policies were under the sole purveyance of legislators and the bureaucrats who implemented them. Similarly, they portrayed the implementation process as being primarily linear and need-based. While the complexity of the situation was noted, the prevailing attitude was that it could be enumerated and mapped.

Some of these deficiencies were addressed by yet another major groundbreaking effort to examine implementation. This time, Kingdon used the “garbage can theory” (Cohen et al., 1972) as his framework for understanding some other aspects of implementation. Kingdon’s resulting “multiple streams” (1984) model (thought of by some as the “critical convergence” model) eliminated the linearity and need-based orientation, and vastly increased the number of possible actors taking part by loosening the information and systems network to include actors from outside the official realm. Kingdon’s framework examined policy implementation in a new light, with, among other things, policy entrepreneurs who seek problems to which they can apply their solution (policy). He also presented the idea of policy windows, which are implementation opportunities that are created by the critical convergence of problems at hand, the current political environment, and available solutions (i.e. problem stream, political stream, and proposals stream). The implications of this were that elected officials and bureaucrats were not the only actors who could facilitate an implementation opportunity.

To Kingdon, the actors involved in the system were both “visible” and “hidden.” Public figures such as politicians and members of the media constituted the visible group, who typically manipulate the political stream, while the hidden group was made up of academics, career bureaucrats, congressional staffers, and other specialists. The hidden group also contained the policy entrepreneurs, who sometimes manipulated the proposals stream, if possible, in order to bring about a policy in which they had an interest. For one example of a policy entrepreneur, consider an advocate for public transportation. This advocate will systematically present mass transportation as a solution to a number of problems (i.e. pollution from auto emissions, traffic, poverty, employment, etc.) in order to get legislation passed that will favour the public transportation industry.

Kingdon’s work represented a substantial advancement in the direction of discovering how policies are implemented in a non-static society. His recognition of policy entrepreneurs, with solutions in search of problems to which they can

be applied, demonstrated that implementation can not be limited to one temporal direction. These policies/solutions are often well publicized and openly discussed in advance of the time that they would be needed, or indeed, could be implemented. But this too is a part of the implementation process. Gone is the contention that the “process” begins only after the policy has been legislated and the funds have been made available. What Kingdon’s framework does not specifically address is the possibility of overt manipulation of the system or prediction. He concentrated on how actors could take advantage of the opportunities that present themselves over the course of time in a changing society, rather than exploring how these actors could manipulate their environment to create an opportunity. Though he demonstrated where some of the critical junctures often are, he did not follow up with how the network could be exploited and how the junctures could be created. Kingdon’s model was an interesting and useful improvement over earlier implementation theories. But its greatest value lay in its implications regarding the potential for their expansion. In order to capitalize on this potential, it is a good idea to follow the example of Van Meter and Van Horn, and examine what other investigations have found. One quickly expanding field that can help to fill this gap is network theory.

Just as early shifts in how implementation has been viewed have gone from cases to processes to systems. A more recent shift that appears to be taking place is the shift from systems to networks. More and more researchers have begun exploring the perspective offered by network analysis and are coming up with insights that were not previously apparent. One author who can characterize much of the work that is going on in this field is Watts (1999, 2003). While Watts’ work often does not directly address the topic of implementation, his work, and that of others in his field, has great potential for helping to better understand implementation in complex systems. Watts’ early (1999) work on the “small worlds” phenomenon was mainly concerned with the process of inquiry in his field, but it alluded to many important connections and interconnections that could prove valuable additions to the debate in the implementation field. In particular, he highlighted how networks are interconnected and exist at various levels, including: information networks, communication and power networks, thought patterns, popular culture, etc.

Watts’ more recent (2003) work mentioned specifically that social connectedness and complexity could not be explained fully through any one model. He made it clear that the implications of interconnectedness and complexity are profound when dealing with how decisions are made and how individuals learn and react in complex networks. One of the more important aspects of networks that Watts focuses on is the idea that networks are not necessarily evenly distributed. This is to say that networks often exhibit regions or points of especially dense activity. These “hubs” are critical, since their

influence on the rest of the network can be disproportionately large, especially if a number of them were to coordinate their efforts. It should be kept in mind that networks can take many different forms, and constitute many different phenomena. As such, networks are seldom static, but are constantly subject to change. One of the most critical functions of any network is information distribution. In this way, networks hold the key to the collective conscious and group learning. While there are many other important aspects of network theory that also relate to our topic, this discussion will focus on these aspects for the purpose of clarity.

The above list should suffice, however, for augmenting the preceding models. In reviewing Watts' work, it becomes apparent that neither of the preceding models completely escapes the tendency to view policymakers and other actors in the system as existing in a fairly static hierarchy. The idea of a series of networks under constant change complicates the issue immensely, but also helps to explain why implementation has been such a difficult subject to grasp. This should not be cause for despair over ever being able to manipulate a network in order to implement a policy, however.

Framing implementation as a networking phenomenon provides a better means for understanding and accessing the tools and actors involved. First, the actors involved can be viewed as individuals, groups, or entire networks. Actors can manipulate their environment (the network) in order to facilitate the processes that favour their goals. They do this by identifying and exploiting critical hubs to create influence by facilitating access to important information and other resources. They could even go further and use the hubs as a means to influence critical networks by affecting public opinion, and through that, inter-organizational compliance.

While these particular tools go a long way in explaining policy implementation, as such, they can seldom predict where the shifts in the network will be with much accuracy. The realities of a dynamic and changing society have historically been the downfall of each of the above theories. Since the policy environment (society) is not static, efforts to build a unified model of it will always be transitory at best.

This article has focused on authors who represent one or another turning point in the literature surrounding implementation. Each of the above authors has added to the debate in a critical and important way, but alone, none of them can, or does, claim to resolve the problem of implementation. Each author, Watts included, has relied on the idea that the use of multiple models and methods will be the best approach to examining the processes or networks involved in policy implementation.

Combining past and future in the continuing debate

Van Meter and Van Horn's original model of the implementation process was groundbreaking for its ability to bring together what knowledge was available at the time in a comprehensible format. This was the first in a series of models that have attempted to portray policy implementation as a linear process. While later work expanded on their ideas, many of the original elements of their model are still in use today. One of the more radical changes in the idea of how implementation works came in the form of Kingdon's multiple streams model. This model freed the process from linearity and increased the potential number of actors involved. Kingdon's ideas allowed implementation to be framed as a much more dynamic set of events and actors. Kingdon's ideas therefore provided fresh insight into the forces at work in an implementation that were not apparent through the more static and linear predecessor models.

The truly dynamic aspects, however, have come to the table more recently. Social network analysis vastly expands the view of the potential number of actors and actions taking place in any given transaction. Within this framework, implementation is not only dynamic, but also holistic. The downside of this is that researchers must find a way to consider the enormous amount of complexity that comes into play. Even Kingdon's model was a vast oversimplification when compared with the potential detail and expanse of any of the process networks (i.e. information, communication, financial, etc.) potentially at work in any given attempt at implementation and how they are likely to change through time. On the bright side, in the face of the constant and dynamic change to which most networks are subject, there is some predictability as well. Models like the one Kingdon outlined work because actors often follow predictable patterns. Throughout the last decade, there have been some exciting advancements in methods (Axelrod & Cohen 1999, Carley & Hill 2001) that can help researchers to predict how these patterns will cause individual actors to interact.

While this is not the ideal format for a full discussion of all the new methods and applications, suffice to say that the implications for the future are enormous. The field will continue to grow and evolve more dynamic lenses as we discover more about how groups and organizations learn and process information. But as this happens, it will still be important to remember not to get lost in the details. This is where simpler models like those of Kingdon and Van Meter and Van Horn help to ground the researcher in the critical aspects of the transactions. While exploring the potential offered by social network analysis is critical to understanding implementation and other multi-actor phenomena, especially in this increasingly interconnected age, older models still have an important part to play in these investigations.

Conclusion

It is hoped that students and new researchers entering the field will help to synthesize the state of the art in policy implementation with their own unique perspectives to create a newer and deeper understanding of what is taking place when a policy is changed or 'put into effect.' This will become an increasingly critical consideration as the Republic of Macedonia continues in its progress toward accession into the European Union. The next generation to join Macedonia's public administration will be entering a dynamic and evolving environment, where their knowledge tools could be an important component to understanding the facilitators as well as the impediments to evolving Macedonia's national policies.

Bibliography

1. Axelrod, R. & Cohen M. D. (1999) *Harnessing Complexity: Organizational Implications of a Scientific Frontier*. New York: The Free Press.
2. Brewer, G. D. (1974) "The policy sciences emerge: To nurture and structure a discipline." *Policy Sciences* 5(3), p. 239-244.
3. Carley, K. M. & Hill V. (2001) "Structural change and learning within organizations." *Dynamics of Organizational Societies: Models, Theories and Methods*. (Alessandro Lomi, ed.). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
4. Cohen, M., March J., & Olsen, J., (1972, March) "A Garbage Can Model of Organization Choice," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, p. 1-25.
5. Elmore, R. F. (1979) "Backward mapping: Implementation research and policy decisions" *Political Science Quarterly*, 94(4), p. 601-616.
6. Kingdon, J. (1984) *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co.
7. Lasswell, H. D. (1971) *A Pre-View of the Policy Sciences*. New York: American Elsevier Publishing Company.
8. Pressman, J. L. & Wildavsky A. B. (1973) *Implementation : How Great Expectations in Washington Are Dashed In Oakland: Or, Why it's Amazing that Federal Programs Work At All, This Being a Saga of the Economic Development Administration as Told by Two Sympathetic*

Observers Who Seek to Build Morals on a Foundation of Ruined Hopes.
Berkeley: University of California Press.

9. Sabatier, P. A. & Mazmanian D. (1980) "A multivariate model of public policy-making." *American Journal of Political Science*, 24, p. 439-468.
10. Sabatier, P. A. (1986) "Top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation research: A critical analysis and suggested synthesis." *Journal of Public Policy*, 6(I), p. 21-48.
11. Van Meter, D. S., & Van Horn, C. E. "The policy implementation process: A conceptual framework." *Administration and Society*, 6(4), p. 445-488.
12. Watts, D. J. (2003) *Six Degrees: The Science of a Connected Age*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.
13. Watts, D. J. (1999) *Small Worlds: The Dynamics of Networks between Order and Randomness*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

ANGEL and the Instructional Support Centre

Emilija Zlatkovska MA

Mentor Emini MA

Instructional Support Centre
South East European University

Abstract

The work of the Instructional Support Centre (ISC) is making an increasingly important contribution to modernising teaching and learning methodologies at SEEU. This article describes how the Centre has developed the use of the ANGEL online teaching and learning environment and the results achieved during the period 2005-2007.

Abstrakt

Puna e Qendrës për përkrahje të mësimdhënies (ISC), është duke dhënë një kontribut gjithnjë e në rritje për modernizimin e mësimdhënies dhe metodave të të mësuarit në UEJL. Ky artikull përshkruan se si qendra ka zhvilluar përdorimin e ANGEL ambientit “*online*” për mësimdhënie dhe mësimnxënie dhe rezultatet e arritura gjatë periudhës 2005-2007.

Апстракт

Функционирањето на Центарот за инструкциска поддршка (ЦИП) (ISC) има се поголем придонес во модернизацијата на методологиите на предавање и учење на УЈИЕ. Оваа статија опишува како центарот ја разви употребата на АНГЕЛ (ANGEL)- средина за онлајн предавање и учење, како и резултатите постигнати во текот на периодот од 2005- 2007.

Background Information

The Instructional Support Centre (ISC) was established in March, 2005, under the umbrella of the USAID-financed Higher Education Linkage Project between Indiana University (IU) and South East European University (SEEU). The main

goal for setting up the ISC was to create an opportunity for additional professional development of teachers working at SEEU by providing training sessions in three specific areas: English language, current teaching methodology and incorporation of technology in teaching. IT skills (MS Excel, MS Power Point, MS Access, etc) and the usage of ANGEL software.

The work of the ISC began with intensive presentation and promotion of the Centre and its goals to all Faculties. An application and selection process for participants, based on pre-determined criteria (completed application and 450 and a score of 450 or higher on a mock TOEFL test), followed. Initially, the selection committee chose 35 candidates representing all Faculties (12 from Communication Sciences and Technology, two from Law, one from Teacher Training, five from the Language Centre, three from Public Administration, and 12 from Business Administration). However, the number and the initial members changed over time, resulting in losing some of the initial members and including new members based on the recommendations of the Deans.

Once the selection process was over, the selected members were divided into three groups according to their level of English (remedial, strengthening or advanced) in order to attend English classes of the appropriate level. These classes, designed to help the academic staff achieve a level at which they will be comfortable teaching their courses in English, focused on strengthening the weaknesses determined from the mock TOEFL. The classes were scheduled twice a week and local trainers from the Language Centre taught these classes.

Additionally, ISC participants attended methodology training once a month through videoconferences with Indiana University or onsite presentations by visiting professors from IU. Topics for these workshops included: Critical Reading, Assessing Students' Writing, Creating the Syllabus, Democratic Discussion, Learning Activities, On-line Teaching, Dealing with Students of Mixed Abilities, and Multiethnic Classroom. These methodology workshops aimed to familiarize the SEEU academic staff with the current trends in teaching in order to enable them to adjust their teaching methods and promote a more student-centred classroom.

Finally, the ISC participants also attended IT skills workshops in MS Excel, MS Power Point, MS Access, and other software in order to improve their computer skills and to encourage them to use these programs during their teaching and administrative work. Local IT academic staffs led these workshops. Additionally, as part of the IT training, the ISC participants received instruction in using new software for managing courses online called ANGEL.

Introduction of *ANGEL*, online course management software, at SEEU

To ensure a quality education, while retaining the leading role in the country and the region as a whole, SEEU decided to implement a new pilot project that reflects innovation and progress. SEEU, at the beginning of the Winter Semester 2005, introduced a new online course management software (CMT) called ANGEL through the Instructional Support Centre (ISC).

SEEU is the first institution in Macedonia and the Balkan region that has invested in developing and introducing an online environment for learning and teaching through the application of this kind of software.

In order to learn how to apply this tool, software training for ISC participants took place at SEEU from 19th to 23rd September 2005. This training event was funded by World Learning, the education branch of USAID, and it provided the possibility to have two professors from Indiana University to train academic staffs in using the software. The purpose of this training was to enable the participants to teach their subjects online, first asynchronously (the teacher and the students are not on-line at the same time) and, later, synchronously (the teacher and the students are on-line at the same time) both on and off the SEEU campus through the ANGEL software. The training was divided in two parts:

- a) the methodology of on-line teaching: the way academic staff should organize their courses for an on-line environment in order to encourage learning
- b) the technical aspects of using ANGEL: the functions that ANGEL offers for enhancing a particular course

At the end of the training, the participants were able to adjust the courses that they had taught in the semester prior to the training, and put their syllabi on-line by using the software, create discussion forums and drop boxes (for students to upload their assignments), issue quizzes, surveys, and so forth.

However, during and after the training the trainees experienced many difficulties which did not motivate them to continue using the software. One problem was a lack of bandwidth to support the usage of the software via Internet. For the training, the ANGEL software was installed on a server that did not fulfil the technical requirements. Both academic staff and students could access it only on campus which did not provide complete usage of the advantages the software offered. In addition, the Internet connection was very slow, and it took a very long time for people to open the home page of the software, even on

campus. This resulted in having just 18 of the 36 trained academic staff using the software. Even the staff who used it utilized only a few of the functions that were available, such as uploading the syllabus, files and drop boxes. The feedback gathered from individual interviews with the ISC participants reflected that they did not use the software because of the slow Internet connection and the lack of possibility to use the software from home. They also admitted that this was something completely new to them and that they would prefer to have more training and more support, meaning someone who can provide help in areas in which they did not feel confident.

Therefore, as a follow up to the first training, in the period from 25th September to 6th October, 2006, another ten-day ANGEL training was organized. As before, this training event was sponsored by World Learning and USAID and two experts in online teaching and instructional technology from Indiana University were brought to SEEU. This event was planned to be a ‘training of trainers’ project focused on helping the ISC participants learn how to train their colleagues. This time, 39 participants of the ISC were involved, but the right conditions in terms of equipment and Internet connection were achieved. This second training verified the previously acquired skills of the ISC participants in using the Angel software in teaching and also helped the ISC participants to develop training materials in order to train their colleagues at their respective departments to begin using ANGEL as part of their courses. The approach used was a blended approach to teaching: academic staff to teach in the classroom but to use ANGEL as a supplementary tool to enhance the students’ learning experience.

To avoid the frustration and increase the motivation of the participants, Indiana University invested money in buying more network bandwidth, thus opening the possibility for using the software both on and off campus; i.e., locally and remotely. This provided the opportunity for the software to be used by teachers and students who come from different cities in the country and in the region, in both full time and part-time studies. Additionally, the added bandwidth enabled courses to be offered to local businesses as well as others interested in taking specialized courses at SEEU.

Below you can see a geo map overlay showing the locations from which ANGEL was accessed.



(Image *taken* from Google Analytics)

Once the ISC participants were trained, a timetable for training all academic staff from each Faculty at SEEU was set. The ISC participants who received the training were trainers to their colleagues from their Faculties. For example: the Business Administration (BA) Faculty members received training in using ANGEL from the BA Faculty members who were participants in the ISC and so on.

Since there are academic staff from different ethnic groups working at SEEU, the most dominant being the Albanian and Macedonian ethnic groups, the training events were offered in three languages: Macedonian, Albanian, and English for those who felt that their English language skills were good enough and also for the foreign academic staff. The training events were offered at the same time in different computer labs on campus every day over a two-week period. In addition to this, the main menu of the ANGEL software was translated into both Albanian and Macedonian to ease the training process for the staff who do not understand English.

The Director of the ISC developed PowerPoint presentations to demonstrate the functions that ANGEL offers and to provide future reference for succeeding generations of staff and students. The SEEU trainers, participants of the ISC, covered the technical aspects and functions of the software, and they discussed some methodology aspects related to distance education. The purpose of emphasizing the methodology during these training sessions was for staff to

understand the essential difference between on-site and on-line learning and teaching and to adjust the teaching materials they will use accordingly.

The goal of the training was to provide the knowledge for all SEEU academic staff to be able to: post an online syllabus, create and edit a course calendar, upload files for student use or download student assignments from previously created drop boxes, develop online quizzes and surveys, communicate with students through ANGEL, create lessons by combining lesson elements into a logical order, track student progress, create an on-line grade book, create discussion forums, and set a time limit for assignment submission. The trainers also worked with academic staff to provide training in other areas of specific interest to them.

To assist the academic staff, all courses offered at SEEU were created in ANGEL through automatic upload and appeared under the course list menu.

ANGEL Support Centre: E-Centre

Once the training period for all academic staff ended, an ANGEL support centre was created to meet academic staff needs for continuous support in resolving problems and answering inquiries that might appear while using ANGEL, thus easing the transition to using the software. This, on the other hand, in addition to the financial incentive offered for using the software, increased the interest for utilizing the software by both academic staff and students. Two staffs IT experts, along with a group of work-and-study students were assigned to provide continuous training and assistance to both academic staff and students by presenting the usage of the software from both student and staff perspectives. This support team was available during work hours to help with any problems or questions that staff and students had related to ANGEL. A number of students and staff have asked for help, and based on informal interviews, our understanding is that they are very pleased with the provided service.

Incentive – A way to motivate Academic staff

At the beginning of the winter semester 2006, training sessions were offered in order to implement ANGEL campus-wide. Also, a support team was available at all times to help with any problem or uncertainties. The University was committed to achieving a comprehensive implementation of ANGEL, and so decided, besides instructional support, to offer a financial incentive to motivate academic staff to utilize the software as part of their teaching in a blended approach (both in-class and on-line teaching).

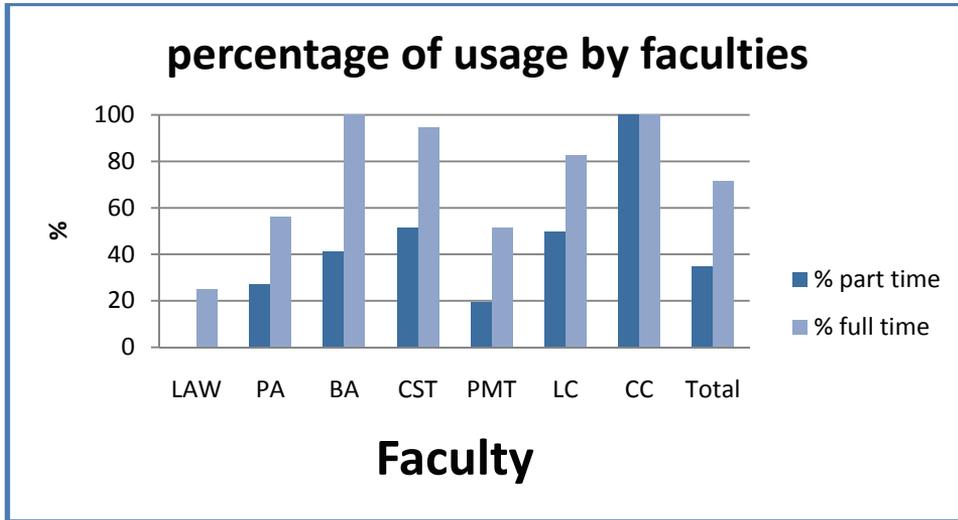
In order to accomplish a thorough implementation of ANGEL, the university decided to award €50 to academic staff who hold a PhD diploma and €30 to academic staff who hold a Masters diploma for each month during the 2006/2007 school year.

Evaluation criteria

At the end of the winter semester, all the academic staff teaching at SEEU were evaluated on the application of ANGEL as part of their teaching. The ISC Director performed the evaluation for using the ANGEL software following pre-set criteria, looking at the quality and degree of usage of the software. The evaluation scale is attached as an appendix. The coefficient of usage was calculated by printing out and publicly presenting the degree of usability of the software by each Faculty member as well as the level of utilization by the students within a particular course. Additionally, the functions that ANGEL offers and how much each academic staff has exploited these functions were also taken into consideration.

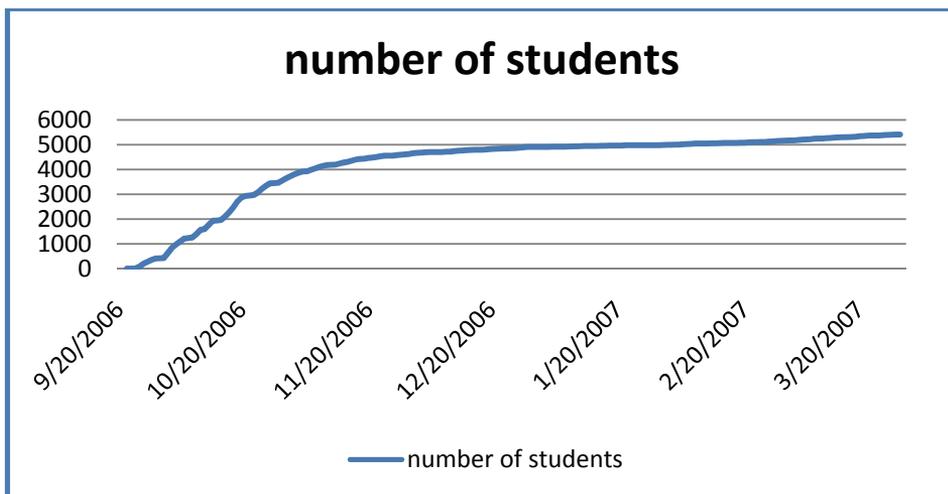
Results

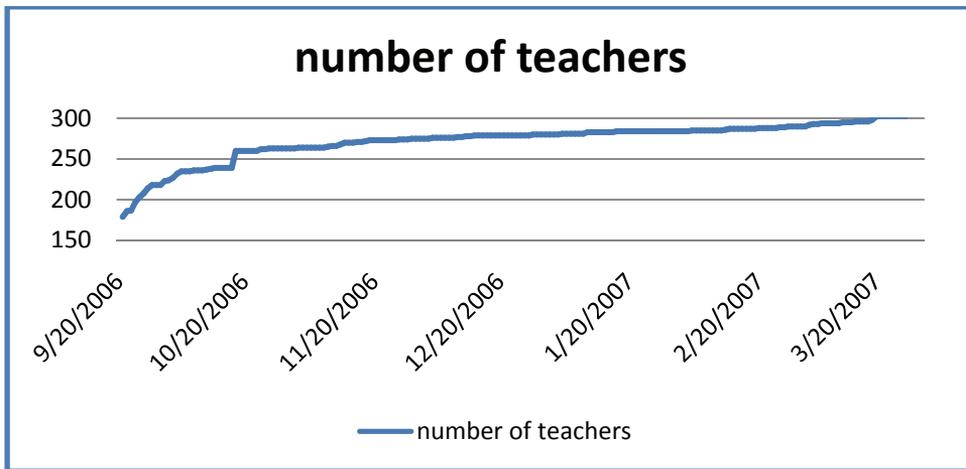
Though ANGEL is still a fairly new tool at SEEU, the statistics indicate great success in terms of number of users over a relatively short period of time. For the winter semester 2006, considering separately the number of academic staff from each Faculty employed at SEEU both on a full-time and part-time basis, the following percentage of users was achieved: the chart below presents the users from Law Faculty, Public Administration Faculty (PA), Business Administration Faculty (BA), Communication Sciences and Technology Faculty (CST), Teacher Training (PMT), the Language Centre (LC) and the Computer Centre (CC) compared to the total number of academic staff employed in each Faculty. Among full-time staff, the smallest take-up has been in Law, followed by PA and PMT. Full take-up has been achieved in BA and CC. Given that part-time staff are normally employees of other universities in the region, it is not surprising that take-up rates are lower, 0% in the case of Law.



Almost 67% percent of the total number of enrolled students (part-time, full-time, undergraduate and post-graduate) used ANGEL during the winter semester 2006/2007 out of 7,210 enrolled students at SEEU. This was a great success compared to the initial 60 students total using ANGEL following the first training during the 2005/2006 academic year.

In the spring semester 2007, the number of students and staff using the software increased compared to the winter semester. Below you can see a chart presenting the growth of number of students using ANGEL from September 2006 until March 2007. Additionally, you can also see a same chart presenting the growth of staff using ANGEL for the same period of time.





Finally, for the winter semester 2006, 1,000 courses were created in ANGEL, whereas 1,300 courses were created for the current spring semester, based upon requests from the academic staff themselves.

The results clearly demonstrate the success of the ANGEL software implementation at South East European University. The right support and the motivation of both students and academic staff were the key conditions for achieving this. SEEU plans to continue this success and encourage both students and academic staff to continue using the software, serving as an example to the other universities in the country and the region.

References

1. ANGEL database taken from the server at South East European University retrieved 25th March 2007 <http://angel.seeu.edu.mk>
2. Google Analytics retrieved 25th March 2007
<https://www.google.com/analytics>
3. Instructional Support Centre retrieved March 30th, 2007 from
4. <http://www.seeu.edu.mk/english/isc/home.html>

Appendix

EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR USING ANGEL

The following functions should be utilized for your course in ANGEL:

I Tier

(you will not be considered for payment unless you have created these basic elements in ANGEL in Tier I)

1. Syllabus set and uploaded
2. Demonstrate knowledge in using ANGEL
3. Enrolment pin set
4. All students listed in the Roster
5. Files uploaded (Word, Excel, Power Point Presentation)

II Tier

1. Calendar and Announcement used
2. Lesson-Folders set and organized by weeks or topics
3. Drop Box (for all assignments/papers)

III Tier (to get any credit for tier three you have to have completed all items in tier two)

4. Mail Correspondence
5. Discussion Forum (2 minimum)
6. Quiz or Survey or Poll

7. (at least 1 during the semester)



Payment division

This is the criteria that will be used for the financial reward allocation to all academic staffs for the course for which they will be using ANGEL:

Example:

10 items = €50/€30

Tier II = €35/€20

Tier I = €20/€10

0 empty course = €0/€0



Matter and Consciousness in Quantum Physics, Artificial Intelligence and Philosophy - An Ontology

Biljana Percinkova PhD

Dean of Faculty of Communication Sciences and Technologies
South East European University

Abstract

There is Absolute. The concept of Truth, cosmic consciousness, direct experience of the Divine and our search for Self is given: the essence of Eternal Being which is God, Love, Truth: our quest to get answers to the eternal questions of the mankind: "Who am I?", "What is God?", "What is life?", "What is another human being?"

In this article a brief survey of the concepts of mind developed by philosophers through millennia is given: (1) Materialism: Mind is a product of the brain, more exactly a by- product of the survival functions the brain performs for the organism. (2) Idealism: Mind is the ultimate reality; matter is but an illusion created by the human mind. (3) Dualism: Mind and matter are both fundamental but entirely different ontological categories; in humans they are associated through the brain. (4) Holism: matter and mind constitute a whole that cannot be taken apart, either in thought or in fact. (5) Matter and mind are both real but they are not fundamental: they evolved together out of a still deeper level of reality.

Then the interpretation difficulties in quantum mechanics are given and quantum epistemological issues presented including consciousness-based interpretations, Einstein-Bohr conflicting ideas, the definition of the collapse of the Schrödinger's wave function etc. The alternatives presented correspond to naive realism (ensemble-interpretation/ many-worlds interpretation), hidden-variable theories (Bohm) and Copenhagen/observer interpretations. A consciousness-based dual-observer theory is offered based on the idea of matter and consciousness as different ontological categories uniting transcendental monism, dualism and materialism by assuming the reality of one universal observer, many individual observers and matter. The problems in artificial intelligence (Gödel's theorem of incompleteness, Turing's test) are treated through the prism of this theory.

Comparisons to Gaudiya Vaishnava Vedanta of Sri Chaitanya and Advaita Philosophy of Shankaracharya have been done.

Abstrakt

Absolutja ekziston. Koncepti i të vërtetës, vetëdijes kozmike, përvojës së drejtpërdrejt të hyjnisë dhe kërkimi ynë për veten është dhënë: Esenca e Qenies së Përjetshme që është Zoti, dashuria, e vërteta: Hulumtimi ynë për të marrë përgjigje për pyetjet e përjetshme mbi njerëzimin: “Kush jam unë?”, “Çka është Zoti?”, “Çka është jeta?”, “Çka është qenia tjetër njerëzore?”

Në këtë artikull, është dhënë një studim i shkurtër i koncepteve të mendjes, i zhvilluar nga filozofët gjatë mileniumeve: (1) Materializmi: Mendja është produkt i trurit, më saktë një nusprodukt i funksioneve të mbijetesës që truri i kryen për organizmin. (2) Idealizmi: Mendja është realiteti i skajshëm; materia s’është gjë tjetër vetëm se iluzion i krijuar nga mendja njerëzore. (3) Dualizmi: Mendja dhe materia janë të dyja fundamentale por kategori krejt të ndryshme ontologjike; te njerëzit ato bashkohen nëpërmjet trurit. (4) Holizmi: materia dhe mendja përbëjnë një tërësi, që nuk mund të ndahet, as me mendje e as me fakte. (5) Materia dhe mendja janë të dyja reale por jo fundamentale: Ato u zhvilluan bashkë nga një nivel i qetë e më i thellë i realitetit.

Më pas, jepen vështirësitë interpretuese në mekanikën kuantike si dhe çështjet epistemologjike të kuantumit, duke përfshirë interpretimet e bazuara në vetëdijen, idetë kundërshtuese ndërmjet Einstein-it dhe Bor-it, definicioni i kolapsit të funksionit të valës së Schrödinger-it, etj. Alternativat e prezantuara korrespondojnë me realizmin naiv (interpretim-ansambël / interpretim i shumë botërave), teoritë e variablave të fshehta (Bohm) dhe interpretimet Kopenhagen/mbikëqyrës. Një teori e mbikëqyrjes së dyfishtë e bazuar mbi vetëdijen ofrohet sipas idesë së materies dhe vetëdijes, si kategori të ndryshme ontologjike që bashkojnë monizmin transcendental, dualizmin dhe materializmin, duke supozuar realitetin e një mbikëqyrësi universal, shumë mbikëqyrësve individual dhe materies. Problemet me inteligjencën artificiale (teorema e Gödel-it për mosplotësinë, testi i Turing-ut), trajtohen në prizmin e kësaj teorie.

Janë bërë krahasime me Gaudiya Vaishnava Vedanta të Sri Chaitanya dhe Advaita Filozofinë e Shankaracharya.

Апстракт

Апсолутната вистина постои. Изложени се концептот на вистината, космичката свест, директното искуство на божественото и потрагата по самите себе: постоењето на вечното суштество, претставено преку Господ, Љубовта, Вистината: потрагата на одговорите на вечните прашања на човештвото како што се: “Кој сум јас?”, “Што е Господ?”, “Што е животото?”, “Што е едно друго човечко суштество?”

Во оваа статија даден е кус преглед на концептите за умот развиени од страна на филозофите во текот на милениумот: (1) Умот е производ на мозокот, поточно спореден производ на функциите за опстанок кои умот мозокот ги извршува за организмот. (2) Идеализам: Умот е крајна реалност; материјата е само илузија створена од човечкиот ум. (3) Дуализам: Умот и материјата се фундаментални но целосно различни онтолошки категории; кај луѓето тие се поврзуваат преку мозокот. (4) Холизам: Материјата и умот прават целина која не може да се раздели, ниту со мисла, ниту со факти. (5) И материјата и умот се реални, но не се фундаментални: и двете се развиле од уште подлабоко ниво на реалност.

Потоа се дадени интерпретативски потешкотии во квантната механика, претставени се и квантни епистемолошки прашања во кои се вклучени интерпретации врз основа на свеста, конфликтните идеи на Ајнштајн- Бор (Einstein- Bohr), дефиниција на колапсот на брановата функција на Шрудингер (Schrodinger) итн. Претставените алтернативи одговараат на наивниот реализам (група- интерпретација/ повеќесветовна интерпретација), теории на скриени варијабилни (Бом) (Bohm) и интерпретациите на Копенхаген/обсервер. Предложена е теорија заснована свест на двоен набљудувач врз основа на идејата за материјата и свеста како различни онтолошки категории кои ги соединуваат трансценденталниот монизам, дуализмот и материјализмот под претпоставката за реалноста на еден универзален набљудувач, многу индивидуални набљудувачи и материјата. Проблемите со вештачката интелигенција (теоријата на Гудел (Godel) за некомплетност, Туринговиот (Туринг) тест) се разгледани низ призмата на оваа теорија.

Направени се споредби со Гадија Ваишнава Веданта (Gaudiya Vaishnava Vedanta) од Шри Чаитанија (Sri Chaitanya) и филозофијата на Адваита (Advaita) од Шанкарачарија (Shankaracharya).

Introduction

There is Absolute. There is Truth, cosmic consciousness, direct experience of the Divine: there is the Eternal Being which is God, Love, Truth. That is our essence and the essence of all that exists; that is the field of pure potentiality of infinite possibilities from which the Existence enfolded, and, finally, we, ourselves. That is the deepest source of the Creation from which everything originated, and which, itself, is without origin. To be able, in one, infinitely precious moment of direct experience to be back to this state of pure potentiality - means to experience directly our true nature which is God, Love, Truth; this means to get direct consciousness as an answer to the eternal questions of the mankind: "Who am I? ", "What is God?", "What is life?", "What is another human being?". The one who is able to come back to this state of pure potentiality, into this field of infinite possibilities - he is now able to create (being the same as the source). He (she) could create his (her) own life, becomes subject who now makes decisions about his (her) own life and destiny instead of being its toy (Berner and Sosna, 2006).

This is a moment of de-identifying of all false identities, of everything with which I have identified myself in order to function (including identities as: I am mother, I am Macedonian, I am my physical body), until I come to that from which I could never de-identify, because finally that is my True nature.

The Hindus call the Absolute - Brahman, and the one who experienced it directly Brahman: the one who has seen Brahman. Brahman is the Rootless Root and the Causeless Cause; it exists from the beginningless beginning to the endless end. Although above all our concepts, ideas and power to express it, nevertheless paradoxically it has three attributes, and these attributes are: sat, chit and ananda, existence, consciousness and love (or bliss); all-existence, all pervading consciousness and Love. Because my innermost nature is at the same time the essence of the another-human being (really, although there are black and white people, men and women, young and old--there have to exist something which makes them all be called with one name: human beings), out of this state of oneness, there emerges tremendous love towards the another. If I am one with the other human being, if in his innermost essence he is the same as me, if, when I talk to him I actually talk to myself - then I could not hate him, but only love him; his true nature is my true nature: love, Truth. Absolute.

Jesus, Buddha and Mohammed were teaching, in the essence, just one: that God is Love.

In "*Ramayana* ", Hanuman, who is head of the army and who is ready every

moment to die for Rama, his God - in one moment addresses Rama with the words:

"Before I realized Thee, O Rama, I was Thy servant; now, after I realized Thee, I am Thee."

These words are the words of Jesus: "Me and my Heavenly Father are one!" or Mohammed's: "I and Allah are one, but yet I am 1, and Allah is Allah."

What is the relationship between the Creator and its creation, between the eternal and the transient, between the manifested and unmanifested? This is probably the key question for every psychonaut into the inner worlds, question central to many of the holy writings. The famous "Book of the Path" or "Book of Tao" ("Tao Te Ching") by Lao Tsu, begins precisely with this; it says:

***The Tao that can be expressed
is not eternal TAO.
The name that can be named
is not the eternal name.
"Non-existence" I call the beginning of Heaven and Earth.
"Existence" I call the mother of individual beings.
Therefore does the direction towards non-existence
lead to the sight of the miraculous essence,
the direction towards existence
to the sight of special limitations.
Both care one in origin
and different only in name.
In its unity it is called the secret.
The secret's still deepest secret
In the gateway through which all miracles emerge.***

This is miraculous way to say that the Unmanifested, eternal (that without name or "non-existence" as called in the Book), and the Manifestation, the created universe, the nature and finally, we ourselves (what can be named, "Existence") are there simultaneously, they are unspeakable and eternally interweaved. *"Both are one in origin, and different only in name"*.

The great Heart Sutra, the one with which the Buddhist begin their zazen (sitting in Emptiness), begins with:

***"Form is Emptiness, Emptiness is Form,
All which is form is emptiness,
And all which is emptiness --- form."***

Again, the Emptiness is Tao, the Eternal Being, that of no name; Form is manifestation, nature, we ourselves. In Zen this is said in many different ways (although Zen does not tolerate words and empty concepts). So, Gassan says: *"Birth is Buddha, and death is, Buddha."* To this, Tozan answers: *"Neither birth is Buddha, nor death is Buddha."*

In Buddhism, Buddha is much more than Sakyamuni Buddha, who lived historically six centuries before Jesus. Buddha in Buddhism is our true nature. So, the above mentioned koans are a way to say that Buddha, our true nature, which is unborn, eternal and undead, appears both into the transient, the manifestation (birth and death) and into the absolute (neither birth nor death). At the same time this shows the way towards the freedom of death. If both birth is Buddha, and death is Buddha (and Buddha is eternal, unborn and undead), then there is no birth and there is no death; if neither birth nor death is Buddha, and Buddha is the only reality - than again death has no reality.

As for the Hinduism, this idea that the divine interweaves the existence, we meet many times in Bhagavat Gita, "The Song of God" (which is part of Mahabharata). Here, Lord Krishna (the divine principle) addresses Aijuna (the waiter) with the words:

"After I embraced all words, all that remain is Me"
And also:
"In all three big words, O You son of Pitha,
There is no job I have not done,
Nor there is a gift I have not received;
Yet I act here."

This is way of self-realization; if self-knowledge is direct awareness that my true nature is God, Love, Truth - at the same time self-realization is manifestation of that true nature, which is divine in its essence. In this way our life gets a goal, and this goal is quest for God, and our life gets meaning, and this meaning is realization of our true nature, which, by its innermost essence is divine. Out of the direct experience that the other human being and me are one, there emerges tremendous love, which we have to manifest in our lives.

SELF-AWARE UNIVERSE;
CONSCIOUSNESS IN SCIENCE

Matter and consciousness as ontological categories in quantum physics, artificial intelligence and philosophic thought

Cogito ergo sum; Quantum epistemological issues

Three hundred years ago René Descartes set the foundations of modern science by excluding "the Mind of God" out of it; today, however the quantum physics is faced to the possibility either to bring it back, or deny the very foundations on which it resides. "I think therefore I exist," means simply "I exist". If I exist, goes further Descartes' argument, there have to be an intelligence that created me - therefore God exists. If God exist, He being a reasonable person would by no means deceive me - therefore objective reality He created REALLY exists. Although, put in this way, it may sound naive, actually this is the way the founder of the modern science set its foundations.

The objective science of Descartes and Newton is, however facing today serious barriers in the form of quantum mechanics, Einstein's relativity, the theory of chaos of Lorenz, Feigenbaum, Crutchfield, Shaw and the others and artificial intelligence with Gödel's theorem of incompleteness. Although Pierre Simon de Laplace, the marquis, in his famous *"Traité de mécanique céleste"* said something like "give me exact and perfect mathematical relation and precise and excellent instruments, and I will predict the behavior of the Universe hundreds years in advance and describe it years in the past" we know today this will not be easy even for a genius he, no doubt, was. Heisenberg's principle of uncertainty shows us that we could have either the position or the velocity of a given subatomic particle correct to a given degree, and measure for this is Planck constant ($\Delta v * \Delta x = h$); we could not have them both no matter how precise and extraordinary our instruments are.

Correct mathematical model is also not enough; the theory of chaos showed us that slight changes in the initial conditions could cause dramatic changes in the dynamics of the nonlinear system and unpredictable, chaotic behavior. To this we could add Gödel's theorem which shows that even logic is not enough - that the moment the formal logical system becomes so sophisticated that in it we could present even statements about itself (system about the system, prove for the prove, mathematics about the mathematics), that moment we come to unresolvable statements. No more determinism means predictability.

The formalism of quantum mechanics which leads to interpretational difficulties can be introduced briefly as follows: the possible results for measuring certain physical magnitudes (called observables) on quantum systems are confined to a set of possible values (real numbers); it is, in general not possible to predict which value will a certain observable obtain on measurement - we have only the probability for any particular value from a set of possible variables [Redhead, 1987]. In the formalism of Born, we have:

$$Prob_{\psi}(a \in \Omega) = p \quad [1]$$

where p is a real between zero and one (including those limits), A is a quantum dynamical variable, Ω is a (Borel) set of real numbers, and ψ is the mathematical representative of a instantaneous quantum state, normally referred to as the wave function of the state vector. We can read the equation as follows: "In quantum state ψ , the probability of finding that the value of A lies in Ω is p ". The task of the interpretation is to identify the physical meaning of these probability statements: Do these specify probabilities that a quantity has a certain value, that a measuring apparatus will or would record a corresponding result if the quantity is measured, or that a quantity will or would acquire a certain value upon measurement. The alternatives would correspond respectively to naive realism (many-worlds interpretation), hidden-variable theories and Copenhagen/observer interpretations [fig. 1]

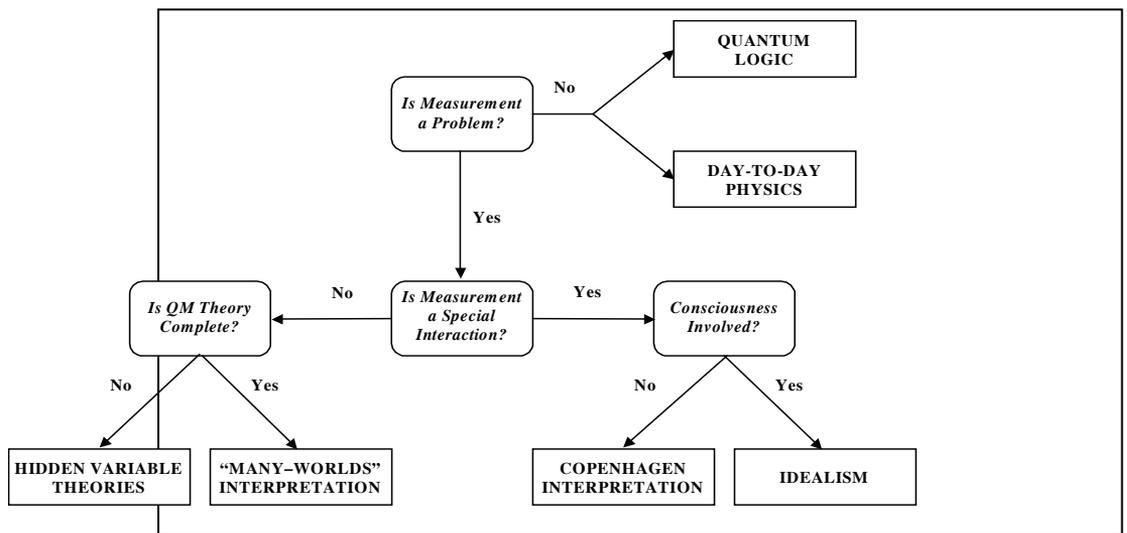


Fig.1: Interpretations in quantum mechanics

It is visible on our chart that if we agree that measurement is not a problem, then one possible interpretation of [1] is the explanation given by the quantum physicists belonging to quantum logic; what they basically say is that actually everything is fine with QM - what is not all right is the fact that we have not developed yet quantum logic. Namely we are supposed to do what Boole - born symbolically in 1815, Waterloo and victory of England - did for computer science: build an appropriate logic. Let us remember on this occasion that Boole

was creating in England in the time when all the main discoveries in the science were on the Continent; isolated, he did something completely original - his logic.

If we accept, however, that measurement IS a problem, than possible question is whether it is an interaction between the observer and the observed. Again, we have two possibilities. If no, there are still chances for quantum mechanics to be complete. No, says Bohm: it is not complete, and what are lacking are hidden variables (Bohm, 1980). It is interesting, that no other then Bohm himself, the heretic in quantum physics, who was communicating with Krishnamurty and developed the theory of the Universe as a giant hologram and holomovement, finally comes with a sound mathematical theory of hidden variables and implicate order behind the visible disorder.

Yes, say Everett and Davis (Davis, 1980, 1983); QM is complete - what is not all right is our interpretation; our interpretation should be: all possible values of Ω do exist, and every one of them creates a separate Universe. But there are, indeed, indications that measurement IS a special interaction and that, perhaps, the consciousness of the observer (who finally created the experiment) is involved; because, really if I throw away a stone and it breaks the window, I would not say that the stone (the instrument) broke the window, but myself. Bohr, however, in his famous Copenhagen interpretation and "no deep reality" statement did not agree. He had argued that physical instruments (silver bromide, Geiger counter) bring a measurement to a close with an "irreversible act of amplification" even without a conscious observer (Bohr, 1958). Bohr was convinced that physics is not even a science about things - it is simply way to look at them. Quantum physics is obviously correct, it produces results, the whole computer technology, the processors and laser technology is based on it - and what happens 'down there' we should not be interested at all. Many criticized Bohr that with this attitude he hold back the development of QM - maybe someone COULD found what happens 'down there' in subatomic world.

Finally, we have the branch of pure consciousness-based interpretation and neo-idealistic view of everything that exist as a consciousness. Here we could, briefly, remember the concepts of mind developed by philosophers through millennia: (1) materialism: Mind is a product of the brain, more exactly a by-product of the survival functions the brain performs for the organism. (2) Idealism: Mind is the ultimate reality; matter is but an illusion created by the human mind. (3) Dualism: Mind and matter - are both fundamental but entirely different ontological categories; in humans they are associated through the brain. (4) Holism: matter and mind constitute a whole that cannot be taken apart, either in thought or in fact. (5) Matter and mind are both real but they are not fundamental: they evolved together out of a still deeper level of reality, called by some contemporary quantum physicists *the zero point fields* (Laszlo, 1996).

Difficulties with Consciousness-Based Interpretations

Physicists have seen several reasons for not introducing conscious observers within the theory. Quantum theory is thought to permit only one observer if the observer collapses the wave function. A version of the argument (Everett, 1957) goes as follows: Consider the case of the observer A, who is performing measurements upon a system S, the totality (A+S) in turn forming the observed-system for another observer B. Let A make an observation on the system S (thus collapsing its wave function) and make a private "permanent" record of it. According to the conscious-observer interpretation, S must evolve according to Schrödinger's wave equation until A makes her/his first measurement, at which point S would undergo a collapse. However, if B does not yet make a measurement on (A+S), then, according to B, the system S [which is part of B's observed system (A+S)] must still be causally evolving according to Schrödinger's wave equations, even though A may be performing measurement on it and hence collapsing its wave function! As a result, we have either to postulate that only one and single observer is possible, or admit the incorrectness of QM. [And what is one and a single observer if not God? The gnostics had long ago defined God as an *observer observing Himself!* So, the QM has come to, a point when it had proved the existence of God scientifically - or should eat itself.]

Proposal

The idea of transcendental monism (single universal observer) has been consistently invoked in dealing with QM problem, since the basis for physics is materialistic monism [the notion that matter is the only reality]. However, considering many individual observers OR a single universal observer are not the only options available. We could consider a third option: many individual localized observers AND a single universal observer. Matter could be seen as the ***content for exchanges between conscious observers.*** [Ravi Goinatam. 1992]. This proposal assumes extra inters when we note that it resonates with the ontological elements of a dualistic Vedanta school known as *Gaudiya Vaishnava Vedanta* called *achintya-bheda-abheda tatwa* (the principle of inconceivable simultaneous oneness and difference); it in modern times most clearly propounded by Sri Caitanya of Bengal, five hundred years ago. Its chief distinguishing element is the conception of universal conscious observer (God), plurality of localized individual conscious observers (*jivas*) and the reality as a dynamic relation between these three ontological categories. Because it integrates the basic concepts of transcendental monism (universal observer), materialism (objective physical reality) and dualism (consciousness is nonphysical and

different from matter), this pluralistic framework has potential to be relevant in a new way to quantum epistemological issues. While monistic Vedanta of Shankaracharya embraces the simple-minded notion that the physical world must be ultimately not real (*maya*), Gaudya Vaishnava Vedanta provides a radically new definition of *maya*, retaining physical reality as objectively existing.

Information Exchange - A Paradigm for Measurement

A simple example: How does this third option explain the measurement problem in quantum physics? Let us use the analogy with a book. The book has *primary properties* (its weight, length and so on, which exist independently from the observer), then *secondary* (its color) or *subjective* (it is my mother's present so it is valuable for me), *contextual* (I could use it as a paper weight, as a door stop or a little chair - I use different contexts for it, which had nothing to do with its real purpose: to convey a meaning) and finally *informational* property and this is the very purpose of its existence: the idea of the author. We have all three ontological properties: matter (the book physically), a set of individual observers (the readers) and one single universal observer (the author). In order to understand the very essence of the book we could perform different scientific experiments: to split it and burn it in order to understand its physical and chemical properties, measure it, analyze it, with Geiger counter or, a spectrometer and so on and so on. Seemingly the observer changes the observed object by the act of observation (and collapses the Schrödinger's wave function); still, its informational (designed) property - what the author (the universal observer) wanted to say - remains fully unchanged!! And this is the explanation.

Why are the results probabilistic and not deterministic? (Let us remind that Einstein never accepted this; he said: "God does not plays dice" and "I am convinced there must a way to see things for what they are, and not only through their probability. Also about Heisenberg's Principle of Uncertainty: "I am sure the mouse could not change the Universe by simply watching it."). Let us use the same analogy, our book: I have a book written in Chinese and not knowing the language I want to determine if it is a drama; I see the paragraphs in it, and I say: "I am 60% sure this book is a drama." But I could not say exactly (deterministically), because I don't speak Chinese (information property).

We propose that wave and particle natures are, similarly, contextual properties which arise because *we* put light to 'uses' which are different from the ones originally intended for it. We perceive 'light' as a 'wave' or a 'particle' in different experimental interactions, but light remains *physically the same*. A unique physical configuration (light and the measuring apparatus) may accompany each contextual property (wave or particle), but *the two are not*

causally connected. A measurement interaction does not physically change the light into a wave or particle. That is a contextual change.

Consciousness as Causal Element of Cognition

We could use the same philosophical view to resolve the dilemmas in artificial intelligence, by conceiving consciousness as a nonmaterial energy form to which the class of operators that effect changes in the states of matter can belong. This view corresponds accurately with the requirements of the issues of cognition (Gomatam, 1995). How can we understand matter and consciousness as two different energies? Energy, by definition, is the "capacity to perform work." Matter is a form of energy, which can not actualize its capacity for work *unless acted upon by an external causation*. When we conceive consciousness as the energy form different from matter [this belonging actually to body-mind distinction as a direct consequence of the understanding, explained above, for the universal observer, set of individual observers and matter as different ontological categories and to the philosophical understanding denoted as (5)], we immediately see what can be the difference between them: since consciousness by nature has to be sentient, as an energy, it will not only have the capacity to perform work but also to *actualize such work on its own*; and naturally, it can also *cause* matter to perform work.

Turing's test explained

If to this we add the understanding of GVV and Eastern philosophy of consciousness as different from matter by the characteristics of *self - consciousness, intentionality and causality*, the Turing's test is no more an open problem. Since the interrogator has only the answers from both, a computer or a human, he by no means could determine where the answer came from. Namely, the computer is an acausal system (belonging to matter, as ontological category and having the 'cause' for its existence in time previous to its own; not having therefore the characteristics mentioned above), and the human is a causal system (*with* the characteristics of self-consciousness, intentionality and causality); if we want to distinguish between them we must have not just the answers, but rather the fact whether these answers are produced by a causal or an acausal system. The test, as it is, *is not capable of providing this key information*. These considerations could help us have deep insights also into the Gödel's theorem of incompleteness (Percinkova, 1994):

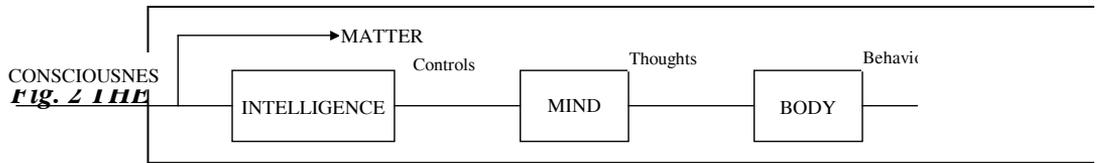
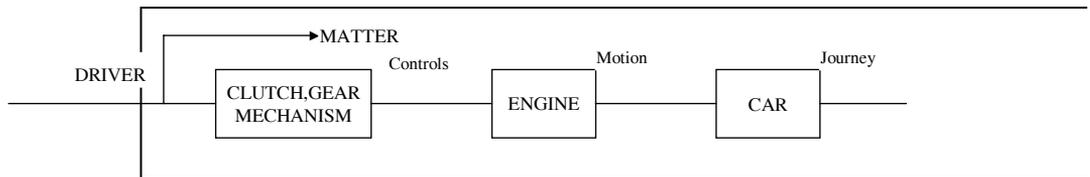
Fig 2 THE HIERACHICAL MODEL

Figure 2 illustrate the basic elements of a hierarchical model proposed here compared with the analogy of an automobile.)



Conclusion

Can machines think? The hierarchical model, which separates consciousness from matter (intelligence, mind and body), suggests that we should rather ask: "Can *we* think through machines?" The "we" of course refers to us as conscious entities. The model holds consciousness as the *only necessary and sufficient condition for causal cognitive functioning*.

The above considerations also help us understand the ancient gnostic search for direct experience of Truth and realization of self as the ultimate goal of perennial philosophy. This justifies the "Who am I" quest as central endeavor of human search for Absolute.

Bibliography and References

1. Armstrong, D.M. (1981) *The Nature of Mind and Other Essays* Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press.
2. Atwater, P.M.H (1996) "*Future Memory: How Those Who See the Future Shed New Light on the Workings of the Human Mind*", Birch Lane Press: New York City.

3. Berner, C. and Sosna, M. (2006) : *Consciousness of Truth; A Manual for the Enlightenment Intensive* National Meditation of Australia Inc, New South Wales.
4. Bohm, D. (1980) *Wholeness and the Implicate Order*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
5. Bohr, N. (1958) *Atomic Physics and Human Knowledge* New York: Wiley.
6. Davis, P. (1980) *Other Worlds*, Reprint 1996 London: Penguin.
7. Davis, P. (1983) *God and the new Physics*, Reprint 1990 London: Penguin.
8. Everett, H. (1957) "'Relative State" formulation of quantum mechanics' *Rev Mod Phys* 29, 454-462.
9. Gomatam, R.V. *Real and Artificial Intelligence: Can Machines Think?* Lecture held at University of Berkley, CA, USA, September 1995.
10. Gribbin, J. (1984) *In Search of Schroedinger's Cat*, London: Bantam Books.
11. Laszlo, E. (1996) 'Subtle Connections: Psi, Grof, Jung and the Quantum Vacuum' *Dynamical Psychology* 1.
12. Minsky, M. (1981) *A Framework for Representing Knowledge*, cited in Hagueland, J. *Mind Design* MIT Press.
13. O'Donnell, S. (1996) *Future Memory & Time: A New Skill of Mind* Wholesaler Unique.
14. Percinkova, B.R. (1994) *Relativity, Chaos, Gödel* Skopje: Sojuz na TIL.
15. Percinkova, B.R. (1999) *Book of Self – Scientific and Philosophic Basis of Consciousness*, Skopje: University "St.Cyril and Metodi" – Makedonski Konaci.
16. Wolinsky, S. (1993) *"Quantum Consciousness"*, Norfolk: Bramble Co.

Re-extraction of Fe, CU and Ni from organic phase into aqueous phase

Fatmir Faiku PhD

Mandushe Berisha PhD

Faculty of Natural Sciences, Department of Chemistry
University of Prishtina

Murtezan Ismaili PhD

Institute for Environment and Health
South East European University

Abstract

Most of the extracted elements with the use of organic solutions for extraction can be returned to their former aqueous phase, thanks to the nature of reagents applied which behave as liquid ion exchange extractants. The solution applied for separation of the elements is NaCl, because ion Na^+ replaces cations from the complex, it then transforms into aqueous phase where its content can be determined with ease. Applying re-extraction of the elements we can re-concentrate any element and bring its content to the level where it can be detected. This method of separation offers many selective possibilities.

Abstrakt

Shumica e elementeve të shpërndara për përdorim me tretësit organikë për ekstraktim mund të kthehen në fazën e tyre të mëhershme ujore, duke i falënderuar natyrës së reagjentëve të përdorur, të cilët sillen si ekstraktues të lëngshëm të këmbimit të joneve. Tretja e përdorur për ndarjen e elementeve është NaCl, sepse joni Na^+ , i zëvendëson kat-jonet e kompleksit, më pas transformohet në fazën ujore me ç'rast përmbajtja e saj lehtë mund të përcaktohet. Duke zbatuar riekstraktimin e elementeve, ne mund të ta ripërqendrojmë secilin element dhe të sjellim përbërjen e tij në nivelin ku ai mund të detektohet. Kjo metodë e ndarjes ofron shumë mundësi selektive.

Апстракт

Поголем дел од пречистените елементи со употреба на органски раствори за пречистување може да се вратат во нивната претходна водеста состојба, благодарение на природата на употребените реагенси кои се однесуваат како течни јонски екстрактанти за промена. Растворот употребен за одделување на елементите е NaCl, затоа што јонот Na⁺ ги заменува катјоните од комплексот, потоа ги трансформира во водеста состојба од каде што лесно може да се определи неговата содржина. Преку повторното пречистување на елементите, може повторно да го згуснеме секој елемент, а неговата содржина да се доведе до ниво на кое може да се детектира. Овој метод на одделување нуди многу селективни можности.

Introduction

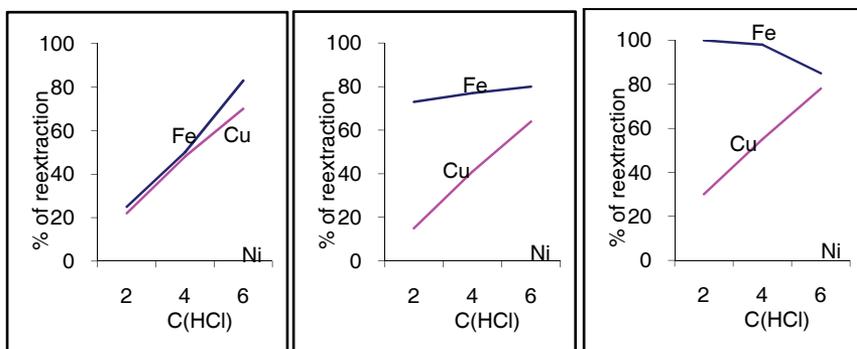
The systems discussed in this article involve extractable species formed by virtue of an interaction between a neutral or anionic metallic species in the aqueous phase and the salt of an organic base or its cation in either the organic or the aqueous phase¹⁻³. Solvent extraction by high molecular weight organic bases has become increasingly popular in recent years in studying metal complexes⁴. Amine type extractants can be stripped by a wide variety of inorganic solutions such as NaCl, Na₂CO₃, and (NH₄)₂SO₄^{5, 6}. The type of stripping agent used depends on the overall recovery process but in general basic stripping agents, which reverse the amine protonation reaction, give the best stripping in the fewest stages.

Experimental

Only chemically pure substances have been used in all solutions. All measurements have been done with atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS). To atomize, the flame of acetylene-air was used. For the most part, elements that have been extracted with the help of these organic solutions for extraction can be returned back to their aqueous phase. After extraction is done with the help of these organic solutions as described above, another 15 cm³ solution of C=0.5 mol dm⁻³ of NaCl is added to the organic solution. Then the separation funnel is shaken for 2x1 minute. Solution is then left to settle for 24 hours (overnight), and then the organic layer (stratum) is separated from the aqueous layer. In the aqueous phase is determined the amount of the elements present with the AAS method. This is how we can determine the percentage of the elements in the aqueous phase in comparison with the initial amount of the elements during the

extraction with the organic solutions. The separation of the elements is done with organic solution resulting from multi element extraction from solutions of HCl with $C=2, 4$ and 6 mol dm^{-3} and in the presence of salts of KCl, KI and CH_3COONa , prepared with the different concentrations.

Re-extraction of Fe, Cu and Ni from organic solution of tri-n-octylamine



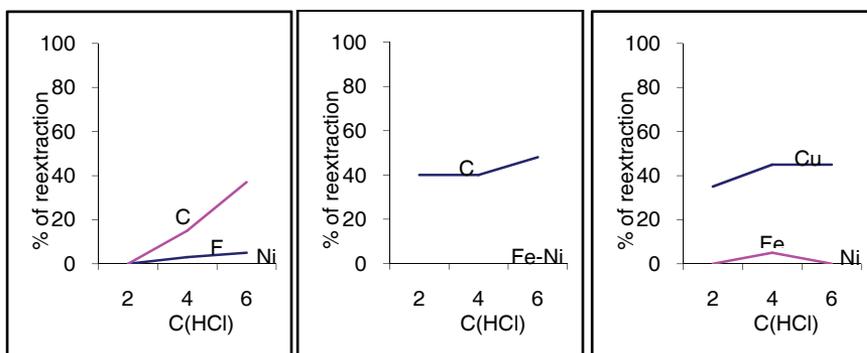
a)

b)

c)

Figure 1. *Distribution of elements after re-extraction with the help of NaCl with $C=0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$:*

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



a)

b)

c)

Figure 2. *Distribution of elements after re-extraction with the help of NaCl with $C=0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$:*

level to which detection is possible. So, while we re-extraction those elements with different solutions for separation will enable us broader possibilities for separations of selected elements.

References

1. Jay, W. H. Applications for ion exchange technology in copper hydrometallurgy, ALTA 2002, Conf. Perth, W. A.
2. Jay, W. H. Alternative treatment methods for copper-containing acid amine drainage, ALTA 2002, Conf. Perth, W. A.
3. Lukey, G. C., van Deventer, J. S. J., Huntington, S. T., Chowdhury, R. L., Shallcross, D.C. Raman study on the speciation of copper cyanide complexes in highly saline solutions, Hydrometallurgy. 1999, 53, 233-244.
4. Thornton, J.D. Ed.; Clarendon Press: Oxford. Cox, M. In Science and Practice of Liquid-Liquid Extraction. 1992, 2, 1-101.
5. Rydberg J, Musikas, C., Choppin, G. R., Delker, M. Principles and Practices of Solvent Extraction. 1992.
6. H. G. Petrov, O. A. Nietzel and J. C. Apidianakis. USAEC Rept., WIN-61. 1969.



Development directions of Albanian Science

Alajdin Abazi, Acad

Rector of the SEE University

(Special accent on development of Albanian science in Macedonia)

Formulation of the title “Development directions of Albanian science” may seem unclear but the message of this assembly is to emphasise development directions of science in Albanian areas (where Albanians live and work and I will express as in the title). Allow me at the beginning to adhere to one widely known classification in the area of science in two main groups:

Natural sciences that study natural phenomenas (including biological life) and

Social sciences and humanities that study humans and society behaviour. These groups are empirical sciences and knowledge is based on observation of phenomenas that can be verified for their validity of work with other researchers working in same conditions.

Mathematics that is classified as third group of science has similarities and differencies with both natural and social sciences (according to Karl Popper, “The Logic of scientific Discovery”). I would like to emphasize the aim of science and profit of the society and individual that will produce useful models of reality through scientific researches. Hypotheses should be created for these aims and they should be substantiated with concrete researches that are base for general theories (Science-Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia).

This that I have mentioned above was with an aim to explain that today we are speaking of science, scientific-research works that have international criteria and standards as a base in the ares where Albanians are living. We are not talking about improvisations which sometimes outshine achievements and values in scientific institutions.

Scientific researches and conquest of the areas that are still not conquered by the human mind are characteristic of the developed countries, especially in the areas of natural sciences. Research centers and laboratories are mainly placed in the scientific and educational centers within frames of the big economic corporations. But in the area of scientific research in some sectors situation is quite different. As a reason of that we can say for certain that in the period of second half of XX century, albanology has its centers in the European metropolis. For the time being albanology is situated in Albanian centers like Tirana and Pristine.

Albanian areas not only that do not take participation in the original scientific achievements in the world, but they are still not in the rank of the countries that keep application rhythm of scientific results with other centers, especially when we talk about natural sciences. This happens not only as a shortage of institutional net in this area but also as a shortage of scientific workers that work in international research centres that will have the possibility to develop concrete relations and information flow for the newest scientific achievements. So, lot of things is expected to be done so as Albanian society could apply and use scientific results in the needed rhythm.

Albanian science apart from organizing of scientific-research duty has a shortage of centers of excellence of certain scientific areas. In Albania this organization is in a way more efficient but also there is a lot to be done. In the area of natural sciences and in social sciences in Albania great numbers of institutions are functioning but they still do not have organic linkage with synergy needs of the society.

In Kosovo organizing of scientific-research duty is not in harmony with time rhythm. There can not be scientific results in natural and social sciences without institutional organization. Although there are a great number of institutes in the area of social sciences, their functioning is on a low level.

We can not consider development of Albanian science in Macedonia as an organized approach that will include concrete scientific institutions.

It is known that Albanians in Macedonia do not have one institution that will deal with social sciences. For Albanian science in these areas we can talk for individual results of certain scientific workers.

In order to speak more about the Albanian science in Macedonia at the beginning we should make analytical review for longer period of time of social – political circumstances, education and position of the Albanians but also circumstances upon which scientific researches were created. As a reason of that I will try to present some aspects in the development of Albanian science in

Macedonia and at the same time I will emphasize non-establishment of Albanian institutions and institutes in Macedonia or slow establishment of these institutions after the independence of the state.

Institutional disorganization or shortage of support of the same by the state was main reason for impossibility for development of Albanian education, science and culture. Nevertheless from the independence of Republic of Macedonia onwards scientific works of the Albanians in Macedonia begin to be institutionalized.

Two universities in Albanian language were accredited (South East European University and State University in Tetovo),

First Albanians were accepted as members of Macedonian Academy of Arts and Sciences.

With democratization process of the Republic of Macedonia, the following associations were established:

- Association of Albanian language and literature teachers;
- League of Albanian writers in Macedonia;
- Association of Albanian pedagogues in Macedonia;
- League of Albanian teachers in Macedonia;
- Association of Albanian historians in Macedonia;
- Association of Mathematicians in Macedonia;
- Association of Albanian physicians and dentists in Macedonia;
- Union of Albanian Intelligence in Macedonia;
- Association of economists in Tetovo (SHET);
- Association of Albanian architects and engineers etc.

During this period it can be noted that there is limited presence of Albanians in the institutions and departments of the “St. Cyril and Methodius” University in Skopje. Presence of Albanians in small numbers in the projects financed by the Ministry of Education and Science and Ministry of Culture of Republic of Macedonia is quite evident now.

It is worth to mention that MAAS, SUT, partially SEEU, “St. Cyril and Methodius” University and its institutes and departments are financed by state budget, or other scientific and cultural projects (two other state universities like the one in Bitola and Shtip and other institutions where Albanians are not

included) are financed by the state budget. The budget line for these purposes is 0.2 percent of the GDP, which is 15-20 times lower compared with the developed countries. Situation is not better in Albania or Kosovo, too.

Albanian associations are not financed by the state budget, with exception of some rare projects financed by state institutions. These institutions founded by different intellectuals' initiatives serve to realize different activities like publishing books and materials, organization of conference and debates where different issues of scientific interest are treated. It is also worth to mention the scientific, historic and cultural reviews like: "Vizione", "Universitas", "Kërkime historike", "SEEU review", "Shëndeti" etc.

When it is about further development directions of Albanian science in Macedonia, it can be said that expectations are real due to a larger engagement of scientific workers, first of all in the centers and institutes in both universities in Tetovo, a larger engagement in the research centers and scientific sessions in MAAS, with active part-taking of Albanians in projects implemented by the Ministry of Education and Science and Ministry of Culture of RM, and larger engagement of Albanians in the institutes and departments of "St. Cyril and Methodius" University in Skopje. It is glad to hear that the major activities of the above mentioned association will result with foundation of the Institute of Albanian cultural heritage in Macedonia "Pjetër Bogdani". This will be the first institution (after institutional support of the education in SUT and partially in SEEU), that will be financed by state budget, which exclusively will do research on:

- Albanian language and literature,
- Albanian history in Macedonia and demographic movements,
- Ethnology,
- History of national arts and architecture,
- Cultural, historic and linguistics relations among Albanians, Macedonians and other nations from the region.

Albanians in the Republic of Macedonia, during this period were engaged in creation of conditions and resources for scientific research (with exception of some engagements and individual results in research fields and centers), in the institutions of higher education in Albanian language or with their larger engagement in the existing research institution in Republic of Macedonia, establishment of new institutions or research centers and preparing human resources that will work in these centers. Scientific work in Republic of Macedonia is very much marginalized and the whole existing potential is not included in this field and especially when it is about Albanians, we should note that there is lack of real organization of research and scientific activities. Relation

between science and institutional support by the state is needed in order scientific opinion to have its deserved place in the society.

Trends and tendencies of Albanian science development are hopeful even though they are at embryonic phase.

Lligjërata e akademik Alajdin Abazi në tubimin e dytë vjetor të alb-shkencës,
Prishtinë, 15 gusht 2007

KAHET E ZHVILLIMIT TË SHKENCËS SHQIPTARE

Alajdin Abazi, Akademik

Rektor i UEJL

(Me një vështrim të veçantë lidhur me gjendjen në Republikën e Maqedonisë)

Edhe pse formulimi i titullit “Kahet e shkencës shqiptare” duket pakëz i paqartë, megjithatë kuptohet se porosia e këtij tubimi është të nxjerrë në pah rrugët e shkencës në hapësirat shqiptare (aty ku punojnë dhe veprojnë shqiptarët, si dhe institucionet, ku marrin pjesë shqiptarët, prandaj do të shprehem si në titullin e ligjëratës). Më lejoni që në fillim t’i përmbahem një klasifikimi të njohur të fushave të shkencës në dy grupe kryesore:

- shkencat natyrore, që studiojnë fenomenet natyrore (duke përfshirë edhe jetën biologjike) dhe, - shkencat shoqërore dhe humane që studiojnë sjelljen e njeriut dhe shoqërinë. Këto grupe janë shkenca empirike, që do të thotë se dituria bazohet në fenomenet e vëzhguara që mund të verifikohen me validitetin e tyre prej hulumtuesve të tjerë, duke punuar në kushte të njëjta.

Matematika, që klasifikohet si grup i tretë i shkencës ka ngjashmëri dhe dallime me shkencat natyrore dhe ato shoqërore (sipas Karl Popper, “The Logic of saentific Discovery”). Pra, të nënvizoj se qëllimi i shkencës, por edhe leverdia e shoqërisë dhe individit është që përmes hulumtimeve shkencore të prodhojë modele të dobishme të realitetit. Për këto qëllime duhet ndërtuar hipoteza të bazuara në vëzhgimet që bëhen dhe që janë bazë për teoritë e përgjithshme (Science-Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia).

Këtë që e thash më lart, e bëra me qëllim, që në fillim të sqarojmë se këtu, sot bëhet fjalë për kahet e punes kerkimore shkencore të kriterëve dhe standardeve ndërkombëtare në hapësirat shqiptare dhe jo për improvizime, të cilat ndonjëherë i zbehin të arriturat dhe vlerat në institucionet shkencore.

Zbulimet shkencore, përgjithësisht, pushtimi i hapësirave të papushtuara nga mendja e njeriut, aktualisht janë karakteristikë, përkatësisht ndodhin në vendet e zhvilluara, sidomos ato të fushave shkencore natyrore, për më shumë, qendrat laboratorike kërkimore, kryesisht zhvendosen në ato akademike arsimore dhe

vendosen në gjirin e korporatave të mëdha ekonomike, industriale, etj. Në fushat e shkencave shoqërore dhe humane, në disa sektorë gjendja ndryshon. Prandaj, tani me siguri mund të thuhet se përgjatë gjysmës së dytë të shekullit njëzet, dija albanologjike, bie fjala, dikur me qendra studimore nëpër metropolet dhe institucionet evropiane, aktualisht ka për qendër kryeqytetet shqiptare Tiranë, Prishtinë.

Hapësira shqiptare jo vetëm që nuk merr pjesë me arritje origjinale shkencore në zhvillimin ndërkombëtar, por ende nuk radhitet në ato hapësira që e ruajnë ritmin në aplikimin e rezultateve shkencore nga qendrat e tjera, veçanërisht kur është fjala për shkencat natyrore. Kjo, edhe për arsye se mungon organizimi i rrjetit institucional në këtë fushë, por edhe pikë së pari për shkak të mungesës së një numri të konsiderueshëm të punëtorëve shkencorë nëpër qendrat e mëdha shkencore ndërkombëtare, që krijojnë mundësi lidhjeje urash dhe informimi për zbulimet më të reja shkencore që mund të aplikohen në vendet e tyre. Pra, mbetet për të dëshiruar që hapësira shqiptare të mund ta arrijë në këtë fazë një ritëm të nevojshëm të aplikimit dhe shfrytëzimit të rezultateve shkencore.

Shkencës shqiptare përveç organizimit të mirëfilltë të veprimtarisë kërkimore-shkencore i mungojnë gjithashtu edhe qendrat e ekselencës për fusha shkencore të caktuara. Në Shqipëri ai organizim deri diku është më efikas, por mbetet edhe shumë për të dëshiruar. Në fushat e shkencave ekzakte, por edhe në ato humane, në Shqipëri vepron një numër i caktuar i instituteve, por që ende nuk janë në lidhshmëri organike me nevojat sinergjike të shoqërisë. Në Kosovë organizimi i veprimtarisë kërkimore-shkencore, gjithashtu nuk është në harmoni me ritmet e kohës. Nuk mund të ketë rezultate shkencore në fusha, qoftë të shkencave natyrore, apo shoqërore, pa organizime institucionale. Edhe pse ekzistojnë një numër qendrash dhe institute të fushave shoqërore dhe humane, funksionimi i tyre është në shkallë të ulët.

Për hapësirën shqiptare në Maqedoni as që mund të bëhet fjalë për ndonjë punë të organizuar dhe institucionale shkencore. Siç dihet në këtë hapësirë nuk ekziston as edhe një institucion shqiptar që do të merrej, të paktën, me fushat e shkencave shoqërore. Mbase, si edhe në hapësirën tjetër shqiptare, mund të flitet për rezultate individuale, që punëtorë të ndryshëm në ndonjë nga fushat shkencore vepron dhe arrin ndonjë rezultat.

Për të thënë diç më shumë rreth shkencës shqiptare në Republikën e Maqedonisë, së pari do të duhej bërë një pasqyrim analitik i kësaj hapësire brenda një periudhe më të gjatë kohore, rrethanat shoqërore-politike, arsimimi dhe pozita e shqiptarëve në përgjithësi, si dhe rrethanat në të cilat u ndërtuan filllet e punës kërkimore shkencore. Prandaj, do të mundohem të paraqes disa aspekte të zhvillimit të shkencës shqiptare në Maqedoni, duke vënë theksin kryesor në mosbërjen e institucioneve dhe instituteve shqiptare në këtë

Republikë, apo për hapat e ecjes së ngadalshme të bërjes së këtyre institucioneve pas mëvetësimit të saj.

Në shiritin e kohës, nuk u arrit të regjistrohet zhvillimi i shkencës shqiptare, në periudhën e caktuar, në kontekst territorial, në Republikën e Maqedonisë. Mungesa e organizimit institucional, ose mungesa e përkrahjes së tyre nga ana e shtetit ishte shkak kryesor i ngecjes së zhvillimit të arsimit, shkencës dhe kulturës shqiptare. Megjithatë, nga mëvetësimi i Maqedonisë e këndeje puna shkencore e shqiptarëve në Maqedoni fillon të institucionalizohet:

U akredituan dy universitete në gjuhën shqipe (Universiteti i Europës Juglindore në Tetovë dhe Universiteti Shtetëror i Tetovës);

U pranuan edhe anëtarët e parë shqiptarë në Akademinë e Shkencave dhe Arteve të Maqedonisë (ASHAM);

Në procesin e demokratizimit të Republikës së Maqedonisë u themeluan edhe shoqatat si:

- Shoqata e arsimtarëve të gjuhës dhe letërsisë shqiptare;
- Lidhja e shkrimtarëve shqiptarë në Maqedoni;
- Shoqata e pedagogëve shqiptarë në Maqedoni;
- Lidhja e arsimtarëve shqiptarë në Maqedoni;
- Shoqata e historianëve shqiptarë në Maqedoni;
- Shoqata e matematikanëve në Maqedoni;
- Shoqata e mjekëve dhe stomatologëve shqiptarë në Maqedoni;
- Unioni i Inteligjencës shqiptare në Maqedoni;
- Shoqata e ekonomiztëve të Tetovës (SHET)
- Shoqata e arkitektëve dhe inxhinierëve shqiptarë etj.

Në këtë periudhë, edhe pse në numër tejet të kufizuar, vërehet edhe prania e shqiptarëve në shumë institute dhe katedra të Universitetit “Shën Qirili dhe Metodi”, në Shkup. Gjithashtu, edhe pse në numër jo të kënaqshëm, është evident edhe inkuadrimi i shqiptarëve në disa projekte që financohen nga Ministria e Arsimit dhe Shkencës dhe ajo e Kulturës e Republikës së Maqedonisë.

Sa për informim, vlen të theksohet se nga buxheti shtetëror financohet ASHAM, USHT, pjesërisht UEJL dhe Universiteti “Shën Qirili dhe Metodi” dhe institutet dhe katedrat e tij, si dhe projektet shkencore dhe kulturore (Gjithashtu, financohen edhe dy universitet tjera, ai i Manastirit dhe Shtipit, por edhe institute të ndryshme, ku nuk janë të përfshirë shqiptarët). Kështu, zëri buxhetor në Maqedoni për këto qëllime arrin në lartësinë 0.2 për qind të GDP-së, që është 15-

20 herë më pak, krahasuar me vendet e zhvilluara. Gjendja nuk është më e mirë as në Shqipëri e Kosovë.

Për sa i përket shoqatave shqiptare, këto nuk financohen nga buxheti, ose shumë pak, me ndonjë projekt të kohëpaskohshëm. Në këto shoqata, që janë themeluar në bazë të iniciativave të grupeve të interesuara të intelektualëve realizohen aktivitete të ndryshme, botime, organizimi i konferencave, tryeza të debateve, ku trajtohen çështje të ndryshme me interes shkencor. Vlen të përmenden edhe revistat shkencore, historike dhe artistike siç janë: “Vizione”, “Universitas”, “Kërkime historike”, Revista shkencore “SEEU revieë”, “Shëndeti” etj.

Kur është fjala për kahet e zhvillimit të mëtutjeshëm të shkencës shqiptare në Maqedoni, atëherë duhet theksuar faktin se pritjet janë reale nga përfshirja e një numri më të madh të punëtorëve shkencorë, së pari në qendrat dhe institutet e themeluara në kuadër të universiteteve në Tetovë, pastaj me një inkuadrim më të madh në qendrat hulumtuese dhe seksionet shkencore të ASHAM-it, me pjesëmarrjen e shqiptarëve në projekte, të cilat realizohen përmes Ministrisë së Arsimit dhe Shkencës dhe asaj të Kulturës, si dhe inkuadrimi më i madh i shqiptarëve në institutet dhe katedrat e Universitetit “Shën Qirili dhe Metodi” në Shkup. Gëzon fakti se aktiviteti i shumicës së shoqatave që u përmendën më lart, deri në fund të këtij viti do të kurorëzohet edhe me themelimin e Institutit të trashëgimisë kulturore të shqiptarëve në Maqedoni “Pjetër Bogdani”. Ky do të jetë institucioni i parë (i cili pas financimit institucional të arsimit të USHT-së dhe pjesërisht UEJL-së), që do të financohet nga buxheti shtetëror, i cili ekskluzivisht do të merret me hulumtimin e:

- Gjuhës dhe letërsisë shqiptare,
- Historisë së shqiptarëve në Maqedoni dhe lëvizjeve demografike,
- etnologjisë,
- Historisë së arteve dhe arkitekturës popullore,
- Lidhjeve kulturore historike dhe gjuhësore ndërmjet shqiptarëve dhe maqedonasve dhe të popujve të tjerë në rajon.

Fundja, shqiptarët në Republikën e Maqedonisë, në këtë periudhë kanë qenë të angazhuar në krijimin e kushteve dhe resurseve për punë kërkimore shkencore (me përjashtim të angazhimeve dhe rezultateve individuale në ndonjërin nga fushat shkencore në qendrat tjera shkencore), qoftë përmes institucioneve të arsimit të lartë në gjuhën shqipe, inkuadrimin më të madh të tyre në institucionet shkencore ekzistuese në Republikën e Maqedonisë, në krijimin e institucioneve

Alajdin Abazi

apo qendrave të reja hulumtuese dhe në përgatitjen e resurseve njerëzore për punë kërkimore shkencore. Puna shkencore në Republikën e Maqedonisë është mjaft e marginalizuar dhe se në këtë fushë nuk janë kyqur të gjitha potencialet ekzistuese, veçanërisht kur është fjala për shqiptarët, duhet thënë se mungon edhe organizimi i mirëfilltë i veprimtarisë kërkimore shkencore. Mbase, është e nevojshme lidhja midis shkencës dhe përkrahjes institucionale nga shteti me qëllim që të menduarit shkencor të ketë peshën e merituar në shoqëri.

Trendet dhe tendencat në zhvillimin e shkencës shqiptare në Republikën e Maqedonisë janë shpresëdhënëse edhe pse ende gjenden në fazën embrionale.

Насоките на развојот на албанската наука

Алајдин Абази, Академик

Ректор на ЈИЕ Универзитет

(Посебен осврт за развојот на албанската наука во Македонија)

Иако формулацијата на насловот, „Насоките на развојот на албанската наука” изгледа малку нејасен, но сепак се подразбира дека пораката на овој собир е да ги истакне насоките на развојот на науката во албанските простори (таму каде што живеат и работат албанците, затоа и ќе се изразувам како во насловот). Ќе ми дозволите на почеток да се придржам на една општо позната класификација во областа на науката на две главни групи:

- природни науки, кои што ги проучуваат природните феномени
- (вклучувајќи го и биолошкиот живот), и
- општествени и хумани науки кои што го проучуваат однесувањето на човекот и на општеството. Овие групи се емпириски науки, што значи дека знаењето се базира врз наблудувањето на феномените кои можат да се верифицираат за нивната валидност со работата на другите истражувачи при тоа работејќи во исти услови.

Математиката, која се класифицира како трета група на науката има сличности и разлики со природните и општествени науки (според Karl Popper, “The Logic of scientific Discovery”). Да потенцирам дека целта на науката, но и добивката на општеството и поединецот кој преку научните истражувања ќе произведе корисни модели на реалноста. За овие цели треба да се изградат хипотези поткрепени со конкретни истражувања што се основа за општите теории (Science-Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia).

Тоа што го наведов горе беше со цел да објаснам дека денес, тука, се зборува за науката, за научно-истражувачка работа која за основа ги има меѓународните критериуми и стандарди во просторите каде што живеат албанците. Тука не се зборува за импровизации, кои понекогаш ги засенуваат достигнувањата и вредностите во научните институции.

Нуачните откритија и освојувањето на просторите кои се уште не се освоени од човековиот ум се карактеристика, односно се случуваат во развиените земји, посебно во областа на природните науки. Истражувачките центри и лабораториите главно се сместуваат во научните и образовните центри во рамки на големите економски корпорации. Но во областа на општествените науки во некои сектори состојбата се разликува. Затоа, со сигурност можеме да кажеме дека за време на втората половина од XX век, албанологијата своите центри ги имаше во европските метрополи. Актуелно албанологијата е сместена во албанските центри како што се Тирана и Приштина.

Албанските простори не само што не учествуваат на оригиналните научни достигнувања во светот, туку се уште не се редат меѓу тие земји што го зачувуваат ритамот на апликација на научните резултати со другите центри, посебно кога се зборува за природните науки. Ова се случува не само заради што недостасува институционалната мрежа од оваа област, туку и заради недостатокот од научни работници кои работат во меѓународните истражувачки центри кои при тоа би изградиле конкретни врски и проток на информации за најновите научни достигнувања. Значи, се очекува уште многу да се направи за да може албанското општество со потребниот ритам да ги аплицира и употреби научните резултати.

На албанската наука, освен организирањето и научно-истражувачката дејност му недостасуваат и центрите на извонредност на одредени научни области.

Во Албанија ваквата организација до некаде е поефикасна, но останува уште да се направи. Во областа на природните науки, но и во општествените во Албанија функционираат голем број на институции, но и тие сеуште немаат органска поврзаност со синергиските потреби на општеството.

Во Косово организирањето на научно-истражувачката дејност исто така не е во хармонија со ритамот на времето. Не може да има научни резултати во природните и општествени науки без институционална организираност. Иако има голем број на институти од областа на општествените науки, сепак нивното функционирање е на ниско ниво.

За развојот на албанската наука во Македонија не може да се зборува за некој организиран пристап кој би вклучил конкретни научни институции.

Веќе е познато дека албанците во Македонија немаат ниту една институција која се занимава со општествените науки. За албанската наука во овие простори може да се зборува за поединечни резултати на одредени научни работници.

Да се зборува повеќе за албанската наука во Македонија во почеток треба да се направи аналитички осврт за подолг временски период на општествено-политички околности, образованието и на позицијата на албанците, како и на околностите врз кои се изградија почетоците на научните истражувања. Затоа, ќе се обидам да претставам некои аспекти на развојот на албанската наука во Македонија, при тоа, нагласувајќи го несоздавањето на албанските институции и институти во Македонија, или спорото создавање на овие институции после нејзината независност.

Институционалната неорганизираност или недостатокот на поддршка на истите од страна на државата беше главната причина за неможноста за развој на албанското образование, наука и култура. Сепак од независноста на Република Македонија и наваму научната работа на албанците во Македонија почна да се институционализира.

- Беа акредитирани два универзитета на албански јазик (Универзитетот на Југоисточна Европа и Државниот Универзитет во Тетово),
- Беа примени првите албанци како членови на Академијата на Науките и Уметностите на Македонија,

Во процесот на демократизација на Република Македонија се создадоа и следните здруженија на албанците:

- Здружение на наставниците на алабански јазик и литература,
- Сојуз на албанските писатели во Македонија
- Здружение на педагозите албанци во Македонија
- Сојузот на наставници албанци во Македонија
- Здружение на албанските историчари во Македонија
- Здружение на математичарите на Македонија
- Унијата на албанската интелегенција во Македонија
- Здружение на лекарите и стоматолозите албанци во Македонија
- Здружение на економистите во Тетово
- Здружение на архитектите и инженерите албанци, и др.

Во овој период, иако во ограничен број, се гледа присуството на албанците во многу институции и на катедри во Универзитетот „Свети Кирил и Методиј“ во Скопје. Исто така, иако во мал број евидентно е вклучувањето на албанците во неколку проекти што се финансираат од Министерството за Образование и Наука и од Министерството за Култура на Република Македонија.

За информирање, вреди да се спомене дека од државниот буџет се финансира МАНУ, ДУТ, делумно и ЈИЕ Универзитет и Универзитетот „Свети Кирил и Методиј“ неговите институти и катедри како и научните и културни проекти. Истотака, се финансираат и Битолскиот и Штипскиот универзитет, но и другите институти каде не се вклучени албанците). Буџетската ставка во Македонија за овие цели достигнува до 0,2 % БДП што е за 15-20 пати помалку во споредба со развиените земји. Состојбата не е подобра ниту во Албанија и во Косово.

Што се однесува до албанските здруженија, тие не се финансираат од буџетот, или многу малку со по некој одделен проект. Во овие здруженија што беа создадени со иницијатива на одредени интересирани интелектуалци се организираат разни активности како што се публикации, организирање на конференции, дебати, каде што се третираат разни теми од областа на науката. Вреди да се споменат и научните изданија и тоа: „Визиони“, „Университас“, научниот магазин „SEEU review“, и др.

Кога се зборува за насоките на понатамошниот развој на албанската наука во Македонија, тогаш треба да се истакне фактот дека се очекува поголем прилив на научни работници во институтите создадени во рамките на универзитетите во Тетово, потоа во истражувачките центри, во научните сектори во МАНУ, учество на албанците во проекти кои се реализираат преку Министерството за Образование и Наука и на Министерството за Култура, како и вклучувањето на поголем број албанци во катедрите на Универзитетот во Скопје. Исто така радува и фактот дека работата на повеќето од здруженијата кои беа горенаведени до крајот на годината ќе се круниса со формирањето на Институтот на културното наследство на албанците во Македонија „Пјетер Богдани“. Тоа ќе биде првата институција

(по финансирањето на ДУТ и ЈИЕ Универзитетот) која ќе биде финансирана од буџетот на државата и која ќе се занимава исклучиво со истражување на :

- Албанскиот јазик и литература
- Историјата на албанците во Македонија и демографското движење
- Етнологијата
- Историјата на уметноста и на народната архитектура
- Културно-историските и јазични врски меѓу албанците и македонците и другите народи во регионот.

Албанците во Република Македонија во овој период беа ангажирани во создавањето на условите и ресурсите за научно- истражувачката работа (при тоа исклучувајќи ги индивидуалните резултати во одредени области од науката)- преку високо-образовните институции на албански јазик, поголемото вклучување во постојните научно-истражувачки центри и подготвувањето на човечки ресурси за научна работа.

Научната работа во Република Македонија е многу маргинализирана и дека во оваа област не се вклучени постојните потенцијали, посебно кога се во прашање албанците, треба да се каже дека недостасува вистинската организираност на научно-истражувачката дејност. Можеби, треба да се воспостави врската помеѓу науката и институционалната поддршка од страна на државата со цел научното мислење да го има своето место во општеството.

Трендот и тенденцијата на развојот на албанската наука во Република Македонија даваат надеж за подобро, иако сеуште се во ембрионална фаза.