

ТЕМЕ

ЧАСОПИС ЗА ДРУШТВЕНЕ НАУКЕ

UDK 1+3

2
—
2021

ISSN 0353-7919

ТЕМЕ 2/2021

Издаје

УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У НИШУ

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Часопис излази тромесечно

Тираж: 140 примерака

Часопис је доступан преко Index Copernicus,
„Онлајн библиотеке централне и источне Европе”
(CEEOL), EBSCO базе и Српског читатног индекса
Реферисан у DOAJ, ERIN PLUS

Published by

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CIP - Каталогизација у публикацији
Народна библиотека Србије, Београд

3

ТЕМЕ : часопис за друштвене науке / главни и одговорни
уредник Сузана Ђукић. - Год. 13, бр. 1/2 (1990)- . - Ниш :
Универзитет у Нишу, 1990- (Ниш : Atlantis). - 24 cm

Тромесечно. -

Текст на срп. и енгл. језику. -

Је наставак: Марксистичке теме (Ниш) = ISSN 0351-1685. -

Друго издање на другом медијуму: Теме (Online) = ISSN 1820-7804

ISSN 0353-7919 = Теме (Ниш)

COBISS.SR-ID 559631

**Публиковање часописа ТЕМЕ суфинансира
Министарство просвете, науке и технолошког развоја Републике Србије.**

ТЕМЕ

ЧАСОПИС ЗА ДРУШТВЕНЕ НАУКЕ

ТЕМЕ, г. XLV, бр. 2, април–јун 2021, стр. 407–786

UDK: 1+3

ISSN 0353-7919

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СОЦИОЛОГИЈА И МЕДИЈИ
SOCIOLOGY AND MEDIA

MY JOB IS TO ENJOY! – THE SERBIAN EXPERIENCE OF LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Marina Nedeljković, Jovana Čikić*

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Abstract

The paper examines the recently recognized form of entrepreneurship – lifestyle entrepreneurship – in the specific context of (post)transitional society. The key question is: are there any specific characteristics of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle entrepreneurs (e.g. personal characteristics, business traits, motivation, business plans and strategies, etc.) due to the specific economic and social settings. The exploratory study covers six lifestyle entrepreneurs. Data were collected in in-depth interviews. Results proven that (post)transitional lifestyle entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs are specific, especially regarding their motivation and work-private life balance. (Post)transitional lifestyle entrepreneurship includes basic features of profit-orientated entrepreneurship as an element of survival strategy.

Key words: lifestyle entrepreneurship, qualitative research, (post)transitional society, Serbia.

МОЈ ПОСАО ЈЕ ДА УЖИВАМ! – СРПСКО ИСКУСТВО ПРЕДУЗЕТНИШТВА ЖИВОТНОГ СТИЛА

Апстракт

У раду се анализира недавно препознати облик предузетништва – предузетништво животног стила – у специфичном, (пост)транзицијском окружењу. Кључно питање је да ли постоје неке посебне карактеристике предузетништва животног стила, као и овог типа предузетника (нпр. личне карактеристике, обележја предузећа, мотивације, пословних планова и стратегија и сл.) услед специфичног економског и социјалног окружења. Експлораторна студија обухвата шест предузетника животног стила. Подаци су прикупљени дубинским интервјуом. Резултати потврђују да су предузетници и предузетништво животног стила у (пост)транзицијском друштву специфични, посебно у погледу мотивације и односа између приватног и радног времена. (Пост)транзицијско предузетништво животног стила укључује

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основне црте „класичног”, ка профиту оријентисаног предузетништва као елемент стратегије опстанка.

Кључне речи: квалитативно истраживање, (пост)транзицијско друштво, предузетништво животног стила, Србија.

INTRODUCTION

Recent trends in researching entrepreneurship show great sensibility for crossing over boundaries of strictly economic sphere and analyzing entrepreneurship in relation to various social issues such as cultural patterns, family functions and relations, spare time, social capital, way of life (Vorley & Rodgers, 2012). The latter was an inspiration for researchers to focus on entrepreneurship developed around specific lifestyle or lifestyle entrepreneurship.

For the last three decades, the (post)transitional Serbian society has struggled with unfavorable conditions for the development of entrepreneurship (Bolčić, 2003). The (post)transitional period (especially the blocked transition during the 1990s) is characterized by unpredictable, but mainly discouraging economic, social and political circumstances¹. Inconvenient conditions endanger entrepreneurial aspirations and entrepreneurial effects. National data on entrepreneurship is ambiguous - they showed growth in the entrepreneurial sector², but “business performances (of private sector – *author’s note*) are still unsatisfactory. The majority of SMEs are active in trading or manufacturing industries of low technological complexity which are characterized by products of low value added, low differentiation, low price and profit margins and weak competitive market positions” (Ostojić & Petrović, 2018, p. 267). Current focus in national economic policy is on foreign investments rather than upgrading domestic entrepreneurship. Undertaken state policy measures for promoting entrepreneurship have been inefficient and insufficient (Official gazette of the RS, 35/2015). Previous researches showed limited individual entrepreneurial potentials, but also aspirations (CEVES, 2014), especially among women (Avlijaš, 2017; Babović, 2012). Entrepreneurs are often driven by necessity rather than opportunity. They face various challenges

¹ By discouraging economic circumstance, we refer to increased risk of (long-term) unemployment, high fluctuation in labor market, unfavourable work conditions, lack of domestic entrepreneurial potentials, favouring foreign investments, etc. Unfavourable social conditions mainly refer to greater risk of poverty and social exclusion and ineffective developmental policies, while unfavourable political circumstances refer to frequent and severe political conflicts, lack of political stability and consistency, unfair rules of political participation, etc.

² E.g. increase of number of privately owned companies, especially SMEs; increase of labour force in privately owned companies, increase of VAT, etc.

in their pursuit (financial, administrative, etc). As a result, Serbian entrepreneurship develops gradually, but at a slow pace.

In such economic and social context, it was interesting to explore the characteristics of lifestyle entrepreneurship and how lifestyle entrepreneurs manage their businesses. As there is no previous research on lifestyle entrepreneurship in contemporary Serbian society, this one is designed as an exploratory study analyzing the traits of six lifestyle entrepreneurs and their businesses using the qualitative research method. The main research question is: are there any specifics in lifestyle entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs (their personal characteristics, business traits, motivation, business plans and strategies, etc.), due to the (post)transitional context?

LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP – OUTLINES OF THE CONCEPT

Growing attention of researchers for lifestyle entrepreneurship harmonizes with the main features of postmodern societies (e.g. individualism, pursuit for personal happiness, liquidity, embeddedness). It also corresponds to what Guercini and Cova (2018) labelled as unconventional entrepreneurship. Daghli (2008) stated that lifestyle entrepreneurs are a growing segment of the entrepreneurial community yet we know little about them and their impact on (local) businesses.

Several major traits of lifestyle entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship have been identified. Lifestyle entrepreneurship is a long term life strategy rather than a career (Buttner & Moore, 1997) as lifestyle entrepreneurs are orientated toward self-fulfillment. Lifestyle entrepreneurs are more focused on personal benefits rather than profit (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2000). Marcketti, Niehm and Fuloria (2006, p. 242; 250) stated lifestyle entrepreneurs start their businesses “because of passion and interests” and “uniquely developed activities of day-to-day living into fully functioning businesses.” The most comprehensive list of main features of lifestyle entrepreneurs are given by Peters, Frehse and Buhalis (2009, p. 397-398). There are several typologies of lifestyle entrepreneurs³ (Bredvold & Skálén, 2016, p. 96; Skellie, 2008; according to: Welsh, 2011, p. 50). Recent researches are focused on lifestyle entrepreneurship within developed societies of North America, Australia or Western Europe in tourism

³ According to Skellie (2008; according to: Welsh, 2011, p. 50) there are three types of lifestyle entrepreneurs: a) time minimalist are focused on time management in terms of 80/20 rule (Pareto's principle), b) nomadic lifestyle entrepreneurs shape their business in a way to be performed anywhere, independently from the location and to enable travelling and c) doing-it-for-love entrepreneurs put their life passions or hobbies in the core of entrepreneurial venture. Bredvold and Skálén (2016, p. 96) identified four types of lifestyle entrepreneurs in tourism industry: a) modern, b) loyal, c) freedom-seeking and d) post-modern, based on their embeddedness and identity construction.

and hospitality industries (Čikić, Jovanović, Nedeljković, 2018; Peters, Frehse, Buhalis, 2009; Skokic, Morrison, 2011), creative industries (Eikhof, Haunschild, 2006: 234) and agriculture (Mailfert, 2007).

There are several similarities between lifestyle and conventional entrepreneurs. They both take risks; both have distinctive achievement motive (Presenza, Yucelen, Camillo, 2015) and individual responsibility for their business performance. Both types of entrepreneurs are driven by personal initiative and creativity. Yet, the main distinction is motivation – while conventional entrepreneurs are primary driven by profit, lifestyle entrepreneurs concentrate on achieving long-term and sustainable balance between the specific lifestyle and economic activity. For lifestyle entrepreneurs, business is a form of promotion of personal interests, talents and values. They acknowledge their business as a recipe for supporting desirable balance between the quality of life and work performances. Also, they are more inclined to have low-profit business rather than endanger their way of life. Beside the differences in motivation, lifestyle and conventional entrepreneurship differ in several additional dimensions: business organization and plans, business goals, customer relations, entrepreneurial knowledge and skills, business – private life balance and local community relations (Nedeljković, Čikić, 2019, p. 547-548).

METHODS

Since there was no previous analysis of lifestyle entrepreneurship in Serbia, we have designed our research as an explorative which has a potential to “satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding” (Babbie, 2011, p. 95) of the new phenomenon. Qualitative research methodology was applied. Data were collected in in-depth interviews.

As there has not been any systematic data on lifestyle entrepreneurs, we have applied purposive and snow-ball sampling. It enabled us to focus on typical cases in order to identify and analyze the specifics of lifestyle entrepreneurs in contemporary Serbia. Six entrepreneurs took part in in-depth interviewing. Data were collected in the second half of 2018. Each interview lasted about 45 minutes. Interviews were based on a guide containing 10 major issues to be discussed⁴. Issues were identified based on previous researches of lifestyle entrepreneurship (Allardyce, 2015, p. 55-61; Marcketti, Niehm, Fuloria, 2006, p. 246), but adjusted to the specific social and economic (post)transitional context.

⁴ E.g. main characteristics of the respondent and his/her lifestyle, main characteristics of the enterprise, balance between personal life and business, decision making in the business, entrepreneurial beginnings, opportunities and constraints in lifestyle entrepreneurship, main characteristics of the social capital, etc.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURS

Three female and three male entrepreneurs took part in the research. Interestingly, lifestyle entrepreneurship has some similar features with female entrepreneurship – both are characterized by low performance in terms of revenues, number of employees, investment plans, etc. Like lifestyle ones, female entrepreneurs try to achieve greater balance between family responsibilities and work duties; they value lifestyle more than men (Claire, 2012). The aforesaid is typical for female entrepreneurship in (post)transitional Serbia (Babović, 2012, p. 57-68; Čikić, Jovanović, Nedeljković, 2018, p. 1344-1345).

Respondents' age varied between 32 and 52. Thus, lifestyle entrepreneurship is not exclusively linked to young population, but younger ones are more inclined to it (average age was 38.6). Four out of six of respondents are Millennials⁵. Several attributes of Millennials fit the lifestyle entrepreneur's profile⁶. However, due to continual social, economic and political instability, Millennials in (post)transitional Serbia are in a specific labor market and social position. They face great risk of being (long-term) unemployed, deprofessionalized or working overtime (Републички завод за статистику, 2003-2018; Tomanović, Stanojević, 2015). Thus, Millennials in Serbia greatly appreciate job and wage stability (Mojčić, 2012). They also prefer employment in state companies. Alternatively, only every seventh young person in Serbia is opting for self-employment/entrepreneurship as an alternative of being unemployed (Mojčić, 2012).

Although respondents are well-educated (they all have university degree), their educational profiles do not necessarily correspond with the business type they are active in:

“I have a degree in Economics. For 14 years I have been working as a journalist. Now I sell home-made natural cosmetic products.”

Two respondents were unemployed when they started their businesses. For them, starting a lifestyle business was potentially a win-win situation – it enabled them to pursue a personal dream, but also it was a way-out of unemployment and a solution for family budget improvement. Four respondents were married, while two had children. Family situation

⁵ Millennials or Y generation are persons born between the beginning of the 1980's and middle or end of the 1990's.

⁶ Those traits are: a) focus on improved personal - professional life balance, b) openness to new experiences, optimism (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010) and high self-esteem (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010), c) focus on personal needs, goals and aspirations (Smith, Nichols, 2015), support of distinctive social goals, d) favouring flexible working environment, friendly relations with co-workers and team work (Kowske, Rasch & Wiley, 2010), e) first digital generation, active social media users (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010).

can sometimes be crucial for starting and sustaining a lifestyle enterprise (Marcketti, Niehm, Fuloria, 2006), especially when balancing private life and business duties:

“I had so many duties in my previous job so I found it very difficult to organize... I hardly had any time for my family”.

Family can be major support:

”When I quit my job, everybody was stunned... except for my mother... She told me to do what I need and like to do”

but also indispensable in providing the necessary capital (financial, human, social, etc.).

CHARACTERISTICS OF BUSINESS ORGANIZATION AND PLANS

All analyzed enterprises are newly established ones – the longest entrepreneurial activity lasted for 8 years, while the newest was only active for a few months. The average duration of business was 4.6 years. Thus, lifestyle entrepreneurship in Serbia is considered a new form of business. Yet, respondents are not unfamiliar with entrepreneurship, as three of them stated to have been engaged in such activities before they have formally started their businesses. This indicates the respondents’ hesitation to undertake entrepreneurial activities, due to scarce resources or unfavorable economic circumstances:

“I am in this business for a decade, maybe even longer... However, I have committed myself to it six years ago, when I started trying to be recognizable on the market, spreading the idea of it ... But, for the last three years I am fully engaged in design... I hired a professional photographer, I make collections and I am trying to be more organized.”

Businesses are mainly concentrated around trading and providing services⁷. All of the analyzed lifestyle businesses are micro-enterprises, having less than five employees, including the entrepreneur himself/herself. Half of the interviewees hire additional employees, but only when necessary. Respondents use family labor force regularly. Results indicated that lifestyle entrepreneurs nurture specific co-worker relations – they prefer friendly and open communication rather than strictly professional relations:

⁷ Respondents run specialized spices store, production and sales of natural cosmetics, production and sales of artistic/unique female clothes, production and sale of artistic/unique jewellery. They are also engaged in musical workshops for children and wine tourism.

“I have a friend who helps me when needed. She is committed and responsible. I really can rely on her! She’s wonderful person! We met when she was babysitting my child and then we became friends... I could not be a typical leader, boss... I am really not interested in such type of relations”; “For me, it is important to work with people who share the same passion as I do towards hand-made products and design, people who support local business, who are ready to put their heart and soul into the products... it is important that my colleagues are honest.”

All of the respondents stated to have some support when decided to start the business. They all had financial support. Mostly, they used personal savings or family money:

“We had some savings... But, soon we have realized that we were spending it on trivial thing. Money started to vanish... For me, this was my dream. Also, at the time I was unemployed.”

Only one entrepreneur stated to rely on government start-up subsidies:

“When I quit my previous job and decided my hobby to be my business, I have assigned to Bureau (National Employment Service) and applied for the grant.”

while others were quite unsatisfied with the state support:

“The lack of governmental support is one of the greatest problems...it can be such an issue for the young entrepreneur”; “I had no support from the state. When I was starting the business, there were no start-up loans... I have tried to get some help from Chamber of Commerce, Development Fund, but it was pointless.”

Beside the financial support, all interviewees emphasized the importance of emotional support. Family members and close friends` approval is sometimes the most significant, due to the high psychological price of starting and sustaining the business. Yet, there are three levels of emotional support. Direct and explicit support consists of affirmative verbal support (boasting, cheering), but also practical entrepreneurial suggestions. It is rarest type of emotional support as only one respondent claimed to have it:

“I had support from the wine makers, my friends who advised me to start this business. They provided me with information; they offered cooperation, money... They supported me morally. But, every start is difficult... Also, my ex-girlfriend was very supportive... and my parents. I am very lucky to have parents who can give me a professional advice; they both have entrepreneurial knowledge and experience.”

The second type - declarative emotional support – is provided by family members or friends in the form of mild verbal approvals rather

than substantial acts of support or actual back-ups. Respondents stated this is the most common support - it reflects socially expected behavior of entrepreneurs- family members, friends, etc. The last case is the complete lack of emotional support. One of the respondents described it as the barrier she encountered when she proposed to family members and former colleagues her plan for starting her own business:

”No, I had no support, what so ever. Everybody was really stunned and doubtful... They even thought my idea was weird... It was so obvious that everybody was quite skeptical about the business...”

However, results indicated that the lack of confidence and encouragement from the entrepreneurs’ loved ones is not the result of their doubts in the personal qualities and abilities of the respondents, but the awareness of unfavorable social and economic conditions in the contemporary Serbian society. The respondent also stated that skepticism and concern of family members and friends were present only at the initial phase of enterprise’s development. Along with the development of lifestyle business, the emotional support has grown.

Even though a certain level of planning is present, results showed that lifestyle entrepreneurship is more an idea or state of mind rather than a precise set of goals and corresponding activities. Yet, respondents had several ideas for their business future. The majority stated they would like to improve and diversify their marketing strategies, especially the visibility on social media:

“There is no such thing as too much investment in advertising, especially nowadays when selling on-line, via different e-shops or social networks is present all over.”

Although respondents were not willing to over-expand their businesses, some would like to hire additional help, mainly one or two employees. Still, they are not aiming towards profit maximization, even though the economic aspect is vital for business survival. Employment of extra labor force is hereby seen as an opportunity for the entrepreneurs to be more focused on their product/service as a source of their pleasure/hobby, but also as means to enable steady production in order to improve economic sustainability. Of course, the main obstacle in employing additional labor force is the lack of financial capital. Interviewees also planned to acquire additional knowledge and skills. They had little aspiration towards developing entrepreneurial skills as they were mainly focused on learning about the products they make/services they provide or similar ones:

“I would like to take a course... it takes place in Belgrade... but, I am waiting for a better moment... it is an aroma therapy course... I’m very interested in it, also it is closely connected to what I already do (production of natural cosmetics – N.A.)”

Lifestyle entrepreneurs have no exit strategy. They stated to have no intentions of selling their businesses, even though they were not quite content with the current revenues:

“There is no way I am ever going to sell the business! No way!”

This confirms their principal entrepreneurial orientation towards the promotion of a certain lifestyle and achieving the desirable quality of life, rather than maximizing profit. As they are principally focused on a certain lifestyle, lifestyle entrepreneurs stated non-economic reasons to be leading for exiting the current business (e.g. health condition, specific family situation). Positive feedback from the customers/clients is often emphasized as a strong reason for not quitting, despite the difficulties. Affirmative response not only from the customers/clients, but the community in general is a special reward for the lifestyle entrepreneur. It is an impetus that has stronger impact than the profit. It refers to community endorsement and public recognition of the values entrepreneurs cherish and promote:

“It means a lot when you realize that you have developed certain passion in others for specific products, service... Or when people for a thousand time come and say to me: `Please, don't close your shop. What are we going to do without you?’”

Thus, often leading an avant-garde lifestyle, this type of entrepreneurs can be a significant proponent of alternative social values and communal awareness rising.

Lifestyle entrepreneurship entails specific communication and relations among co-workers. Respondents who employ emphasized they are trying to establish deeper, friendlier relations with their co-workers. They prefer open communication, followed by positive tones and mutual fair treatment:

„Trust is what I value the most... you know, that feeling that you can rely on somebody, leave him/her with your job, your cash, customers, profits without having to be anxious every second whether everything is going to be OK.”

Results pointed out lifestyle entrepreneurs have a high level of trust, which is rather unorthodox for the (post)transitional Serbian society (Lazić, 2012). Trust is not only an element of their business interactions, but also their lifestyle. As a personal, but also business feature, trust interacts with the lifestyle entrepreneurs' social capital. Those who reported to have multiple and versatile social and business connections also have greater resilience to potential business problems. Thus, their social capital and trust (as its vital element) are important in overcoming current business draw-backs or lack of enthusiasm.

*ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION OF THE LIFESTYLE
ENTREPRENEURS*

Specific entrepreneurial motivation is one of the most distinctive traits of lifestyle entrepreneurs. All of the respondents stated not to be primarily driven by the profit. They are more focused on the promotion of certain lifestyle and values with the intention not to jeopardize their habits, spare time, family time, etc.:

“Everyone who is primarily motivated by profit, sooner or later will end his/her business, because chasing money will eat him/her alive... entrepreneurship is not all about the money... Of course, we need to make a living. But, what if we buy the most expensive smart phone or the biggest TV on the market, the newest gaming console... those things brake; they are fleeting... Money is not everything...”; “I am chasing money only to get myself the best possible life experience.”

Although they are not running after money, respondents considered profit to be valuable, but only in terms of making business sustainable. Such is the consequence of a specific social and economic atmosphere. Namely, lifestyle businesses in Serbia often operate as family businesses, not only in terms of engaged labor force, but also used family financial capital. Significant utilization of family money often puts lifestyle entrepreneur`s family in a position of major economic dependency from the lifestyle business` livelihoods. Thus, even though the promotion of certain values and way of life is their central motive, making profit is vital as it provides lifestyle entrepreneurs with livelihoods for their families, but also to pursuit their business.

Results have proven a variety of other motives for starting the lifestyle business which corresponds with its main, non-profit orientation:

- passion for a certain type of business (“*I just love making soaps and cosmetics!*”) which provides joy and pleasure (“*My job is to visit a vinery, to taste all of their vines, to talk about those vines, to take notes and write columns for a magazine or my personal blog; that is pure pleasure! Matching vine with food, going to vine fairs, visiting vineries in Serbia and abroad... How can you explain to someone that is a part of the job when it is at the same time pure delight...? My job is to enjoy (laughter)... You know that saying: Hedonism makes your organism stronger!*”),
- ability to merge (often long-term) hobbies with the necessity to `put food on the table` (“*I previously had a regular job. This was a hobby. But, when I got blackmailed, when things got ugly in the company I had worked for... I realized that my hobby can provide me certain livelihoods*”),

- the feeling of being useful for the community⁸ (“*Being engaged in this business, I have realized that I can be useful not only for business development, but for the local community or regional culture overall. Beauty of creation and uniqueness can be promoted*”),
- developing specific relations with customer/clients⁹ (“*Customers kept coming back. They were asking for new products. Some of them were panicking if I had not their favorite soap at the moment (laughter)! I am glad to have regular customers. Some of them are visiting me for six years and we have more than just salesman – customer relations*”; “*One situation stuck in my memory, being particularly kind and endearing. During the shopping, one of my customers dropped his list of chores for the day – besides visiting parents, going to the kindergarten and reminder of the friends` birthday, there was also a name of my shop. In a way, I have truly felt to be a part of his family*”).
- opportunity for being avant-garde, creative and imaginative (“*I am constantly making some new things... the business is very creative, you can invent lots of new products... it is also a great fun!*”),
- making their own decisions¹⁰ (“*I am my own boss. I am responsible*”),

⁸ Advance of lifestyle entrepreneurship is closely connected to the entrepreneurs` perception and practice of their social roles. Respondents do not perceive their business only as a private thing, but a way to preserve and strengthen a specific communal identity. They comprehend their social status to be more embedded in their contribution to the community, rather than their wealth.

⁹ They do not perceive customers only as people who are ready to buy their products/services, but as persons who share their passion, love, interest and values. Customers/clients are often comprehended as similar to the entrepreneur which is a foundation for establishing special type of relations. Lifestyle entrepreneurs emphasized they are strongly motivated by a feeling of being closely connected to the customers/clients. As they offer a part of their personal life (in form of a product/service), respondents prefer to have face-to-face communication with their customers/clients. Such specific interaction is strongly socially, culturally and psychologically embedded. It also becomes an important feature of the entrepreneurs` unique lifestyle.

¹⁰ This is additionally emphasized by the fact that lifestyle businesses are often a `one-man show`. Respondents stated that such an aspect of business organization has, for the time being, both advantages and disadvantages (“*The fact that you are single handedly responsible for every business decision, loses and gains, can be at the same time both good and bad thing, double-edged sword. If you get the wrong design or a cut, it can cost you a lot... But, the drive to achieve and show off your potentials and talent always push you forward*”). Their independence is quite important which corresponds with the fact their businesses are focused on personal values and habits, often quite intimate.

- opportunity for introspection (“*For me, my business is an intimate inner communication with my own soul... Through it, I examine myself, my possibilities and that is the meaning of life, for me*”).

WORK – LIFE BALANCE IN LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Previous research on lifestyle entrepreneurship stated it enables better balance between personal time and professional duties (Peters, Frehse and Buhalis, 2009: 397-398). This is especially important in contemporary, fast-paced societies. Improved work – life balance in lifestyle business is a result of multiple flexibilities (e.g. location, schedule, plans) which enable adjustable daily routines:

“Creativity facilitates me to be a maker of my own personal time and to manage balance between work time and leisure.”

Anyway, respondents stated not to have clear distinction between personal life and business duties:

“The line between work time and personal time is sometime so thin, almost invisible... when you are your own boss; there is no 9 to 5 business hours.”

Even though some of them were not happy with such work – personal life balance, they emphasized the mitigating effect of the nature of their businesses:

“Creativity and beauty of the job itself make it all up.”

Often being a ‘one-man job’, lifestyle entrepreneurship could bring high risk of job overload and saturation. This is typical when there is a high ‘put the food on the table’ pressure, like several respondents stated:

“I love my job. But, sometimes, I feel like I am in jail... I have to look after every penny. So, having an employee is very expensive. So, it all on me... I am planning to focus only on production and to give retail to my former employee... I have to distant myself from retailing if I want to have time for myself.”

Some of the respondents deny job overload as they saw the work as their hobby/passion. Others claim job saturation is present, like in every business, but it has no significant consequences for business organization and sustainability. One interviewee said job saturation can cause major business crises.

CONDITIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SERBIA

Lifestyle entrepreneurs were moderately optimistic regarding future of their business in (post)transitional Serbian society:

“It depends on what are you expecting of it...when you express your inner-self (through entrepreneurship – N.A.), then it is always ok. It is all matter of personal demands and desires.”

Interviewees emphasized that (lifestyle) entrepreneurship developed under collisioning impact of two types of factors:

- the stimulating impact of endogenous factors - prevalence of good ideas and trust (“*Ideas and specific energy cannot be stopped... that mental and spiritual element of business is unstoppable*”); job commitment, open communication with colleagues and customers; team work (“*Without a good team, it is really difficult to improve the business...but, the main responsibility is on entrepreneur himself/herself*”).
- the inhibiting impact of exogenous factors - poor conditions for lifestyle business advance (“*There is no healthy insight into the necessity of authenticity in entrepreneurship*”); unfavorable business atmosphere in general (“*It seems that everything it set up in order to prevent success*”); the low living standard of population (“*It is worse than ever! Purchasing power is getting lower and all the entrepreneurial activities are affected. I am really worried*”).

Several options for enhancing lifestyle entrepreneurship arose:

- improved reorganization of the social, economic and legal system supporting entrepreneurship (“*The whole system should be changed!*”), with useful insights into the advanced practices and experiences of other societies/economies (“*Western and northern European countries are more responsive to various types of entrepreneurship*”; “*In western and northern European countries the practice is that young entrepreneurs do not pay taxes in their first year of business... they also have additional benefits, subsidies, start-up credits, etc.*”),
- more appropriate business standards (“*The creative element in entrepreneurship should be in line with the state regulations... it is something that should be more analyzed and matter of consultation*”),
- nurturing entrepreneurial culture among young entrepreneurs (“*Without continuous and systematic education of young entrepreneurs, without they are being introduced to rights and obligations when starting business, more respectable state*

support, without serious marketing strategy and ICT impact, nurtured client and team relations it is not possible to gain success as an entrepreneur”)

- elevate professionalism (“*Situation is sometimes bizarre... People are almost offended when you mention a contract...But, it is completely normal in business... I am longing to see more justice and professionalism in conducting the business*”),
- cooperation as mechanisms for overcoming various shortages (“*Cooperation helps. I am cooperating with another woman who also makes cosmetics. Together, we buy raw materials for productions, it is cheaper that way. We both make similar products, but we are not killing each other for the customers. They are going to choose whoever and whatever they like. We are not endangering, but helping each other... yet, there are also negative examples of cooperation... people can be too vain*”).

Despite the difficulties and obstacles, all of the respondents stated that if they would have to choose, they would have chosen to do it all over again:

“Yes, I would! It was all worth it... For the whole time, I have that desire.”

“Sometimes, I feel this all have no sense... but then something happens, it could be a small, insignificant thing... afterward, it is all good again... that something makes gives you strength and you go all over, again...”

“I am overwhelmed to be able to do my job, I participate in beautiful events... ok, I am not the richest man in the world, but I am thrilled that something like that (business / N.A.) can sustain... for me, that is more than enough and it already makes sense... life is too short, you can live it by someone else’s dictate or by your own understanding.”

CONCLUSION

Results have proven lifestyle entrepreneurs to be individuals more inclined towards personal growth and self-fulfillment rather than professional achievements. Although they argue profit is inevitable for sustaining the business, it is not their crucial business motive. Lifestyle entrepreneurs develop their business around their hobbies, personal goals and values which potentially could be quite `catchy` for the customers with similar lifestyle orientations. By selling their ideas, passion and values, lifestyle entrepreneurs establish a specific type of market ethos (Andersson Cederholm, Hultman, 2010) which fits into the prevailing notions of economy of experience and tailor-made production/service provision. Intimacy lies at the core of such market ethos and it “is used to differentiate

lifestyle businesses from other kinds of comparable economic activities, the interaction between producer and consumer is at the heart of the commercial offering, communication between producer and consumer framed by trust and perceived authenticity is central, and the economic transaction between producer and consumer is inseparable from social interaction and the formation of intimate social relations” (Andersson Cederholm, Hultman, 2010, p. 29).

However, there are several distinguishing traits of lifestyle entrepreneurs and their business as a result of the (post)socialist milieu. Disadvantageous economic, social and political circumstances of the (post)transitional period have an inhibiting impact on entrepreneurial aspirations and effects. Major specifics of lifestyle entrepreneurs in the contemporary Serbian society concern their motivation, work – life balance, but also their perception of conditions for lifestyle entrepreneurship development. Following the results, analyzed entrepreneurial practices are a mixture of lifestyle entrepreneurship and profit-orientated entrepreneurship, with the prevalence of the former. As lifestyle entrepreneurship in general, analyzed businesses are not based on identified market gaps/market niches, but on individual hobbies, life-long desires and values. They are micro-businesses (often a `one-man show`) with no intention, but also no capacities for business expansion and profit maximization. The analyzed lifestyle entrepreneurs have strong connections with their clients and the community. They have no exit strategy or intention to sell the business. Respondents stated not to have clear distinction between worktime and private time, which is typical for profit-orientated entrepreneurship. Sometimes, that leads to work overload. Some of the interviewees stated to feel like they are being sacrificing private life for business. They frequently use their family capital for starting and sustaining the business (e.g. money, labor, social capital). Thus, the co-existence of elements of lifestyle entrepreneurship with the basics of profit-orientated business can be considered as a form of a special surviving strategy, both for the business, but also the entrepreneurs' households.

Although this study examines only six local cases, it could be useful as a baseline study for further analysis of the lifestyle entrepreneurship/entrepreneurs in (post)transitional societies. Additional research could contribute not only to the more comprehensive academic understanding of the issue, but also to the development of adequate policy measures for promoting and making this particular entrepreneurial practice more sustainable.

Acknowledgement. The authors would like to thank lifestyle entrepreneurs who were willing to take part in the research.

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МОЈ ПОСАО ЈЕ ДА УЖИВАМ! – СРПСКО ИСКУСТВО ПРЕДУЗЕТНИШТВА ЖИВОТНОГ СТИЛА

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Резиме

Новија истраживања повезују предузетништво са различитим друштвеним феноменима (нпр. породични односи и функције, културни обрасци, слободно време, социјални капитали, начин живота). Последње поменуто је разлог због чега се данас све више говори о предузетништву животног стила. Реч је о растућем типу предузетништва, чије су главне специфичности оријентација ка самоостварењу и личном развоју, страст изнад профита промоција одређених вредности. Савремено српско друштво интересантан је оквир за анализу предузетништва животног стила с обзиром на тродеценијску борбу за успостављање повољне предузетничке климе уопште. Ранија истраживања показала су да се предузетници у Србији уопштено по-

сматрано суочавају са бројним (финансијским, административним, кадровским, организационим) препрекама у успостављању и вођењу послова, што је утицао на то да предузетништво више буде перципирано као нужност, а мање као шанса. Како нема ранијих анализа предузетништва животног стила у нашем друштву, ово истраживање осмишљено је као експлоративно, а подаци су прикупљени дубинским интервјуом у разговору са шест испитаника. Примењено је намерно узорковање и узорковање „грудве снега” с обзиром на то да нема систематичне базе података о предузетницима животног стила, као и да би се усредсредили на специфичне случајеве. У дубинском разговору прикупљени су подаци о личним обележјима испитаника/испитанице и њиховог животног стила, обележјима њиховог предузећа, предузетничким почецима, односу приватног и пословног живота, доношењу пословних одлука, могућностима и ограничењима и сл.

Резултати су потврдили да су предузетници животног стила оријентисани на лични развој, самоостварење, промоцију личних циљева и вредности. Међутим, у (пост)социјалистичком миљеу, предузетништво животног стила има одређене специфичне карактеристике – оне се пре свега односе на мотивацију и баланс између приватног и пословног живота. Анализиране предузетничке праксе мешавина су предузетништва животног стила и на профит оријентисаног предузетништва, са већим акцентом на први тип. Индивидуални хобији, жеље и вредности доминантни су мотиви. Предузећа су микробизниси, без намере и капацитета за ширењем. Анализирани предузетници успоставили су јаке везе са клијентима и заједницом. Резултати су показали да нема јасне разлике између приватног и пословног времена. Предузетници често користе породични капитал да би покренули и одржали посао. Мешавина елемената предузетништва животног стила и на профит оријентисаног предузетништва представљају специфичну стратегију преживљавања. Овим типом предузетништва успоставља се посебна врста релације између предузетника и клијента која превазилази класичан комерцијални однос и заснива се на размени личних искустава, жеља и вредности. Предузетништво животног циља одговара обележјима економије искуства и персонализоване производње/пружања услуга.

FASCINATION WITH THE MODERNIZATION OF JAPAN – REACTIONS OF THE WEST-EUROPEAN PART OF THE SILK ROAD THROUGH THE PRISM OF REVERSIBLE EXOTISME ^a

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Abstract

The interruption of Japan's foreign relations, which has lasted since the beginning of the 7th century, was interrupted by the signing of the treaty of Kanagawa and the seizure of power by the emperor Mutsuhito, who called his reign the Meiji period, or „Enlightened rule.” It was during this period that the foundations for modernization of today's sophisticated Japan were laid. Japan begins to open up to the world, but it retains its independence, combining tradition and modernism in all segments. The journey and the exchange of ideas that have inspired many literary works, not only by the French writer Pierre Loti, on whose work this paper is partially based, then artistic ideas and artefacts, aim to explore the author of this paper, which focuses on the presentation of elements of Japanese art and culture at the Exhibition Universelle in Paris, 1867.

The analytical-comparative method used in this paper shows the remarkable place of Japan in the cross-section that transported silk from the Mediterranean to East Asia, which has become a symbol of the connection between East and West and metaphors for various myths and legends from previous periods, and today the link between western and eastern cultural development models, whose proximity and distance are constantly changing, leaving a strong mark on all societies.

Key words: Meiji restoration, modernization, Japonisme, influence, exotisme.

^a This paper is partially presented on the Conference *International Scientific Conference, Belgrade*, September 4th, 2018 (Editors: Professor Ljiljana Marković, PhD Professor Noriyuki Inoue, PhD) and abstract is published in *Book of Abstracts: First 150 Years of Modern Japan – The First Modernization on the Silk Road*.

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ФАСЦИНАЦИЈА МОДЕРНИЗАЦИЈОМ ЈАПАНА – РЕАКЦИЈЕ ЗАПАДНОЕВРОПСКОГ ДЕЛА ПУТА СВИЛЕ ПРАЋЕН КРОЗ ПРИЗМУ РЕВЕРЗИБИЛНОГ ЕГЗОТИЗМА

Апстракт

Прекид односа Јапана са иностранством, који је трајао од почетка VII века, завршен је потписивањем уговора у Канагави и преузимањем власти од стране цара Мацухита, који је своју владавину назвао периодом Меиџи, односно „Просвећеним владањем”. У овом периоду је постављен темељ модернизације данашњег високоразвијеног Јапана. Јапан почиње да се отвара према свету, али чува своју независност, комбинујући у свим сегментима традиционалност и модернизам. Путовање и размена идеја које су инспирисале бројна књижевна дела, не само француског писца Пјера Лотија, на чијем раду је делимично заснован овај рад, затим уметничких идеја и артефаката – циљ су истраживања аутора овог текста, којим се у први план ставља представљање елемената јапанске уметности и културе на Светској изложби у Паризу 1867. године. Аналитичко-компаративним методом, примењеним у овом раду, приказано је изузетно место Јапана на трансверзали којом је преношена свила од Медитерана до Источне Азије, која постаје симбол повезаности између Истока и Запада и метафора за различите митове и легенде ранијих периода, а данас веза између западних и источњачких културних модела развоја, чија се блискост и удаљеност непрестано смењују, остављајући снажан траг у свим друштвима.

Кључне речи: Меиџи рестаурација, модернизација, жапонизам, утицај, егзотичност.

INTRODUCTION

The Silk Road, as a network of trade routes which connected the East and West was a central economic, political, cultural and religious interactions between these regions from almost 2000 years.

The object of this paper are the influence and interaction between Japanese and Western civilization, in almost every field of culture and art, but also industry, which continues through the New Silk Road today.

Thus, the work will include an analysis of the impact that Japan's participation at the 1867 Exposition Universelle in Paris had on Western civilization and the analysis of works of Japanese and French literature, most notably the work of French writer Pierre Loti, who approached the then-distant Japanese civilization to the French reader. An analysis of work of artists from all cultural fields from the second half of the XIX century, as well as contemporary artists, will be included, so that, through a broad multidisciplinary approach, taking into account the significant number of factors and components that are an integral part of the historical development of every society, conclusions and new ways of exchanging cultural experiences, avoiding cultural obstacles in this increasingly important geographical route for the dissemination and exchange of experiences in all these areas.

The resulting data can certainly and should be the basis for new research, which is the primary goal of this paper.

ART OF JAPAN – EXPOSITION UNIVERSELLE, 1867 PARIS

Japanese art and culture was first introduced to Western civilization during the 1867 Exposition Universelle in Paris.

In this period of Japanese history, the emperor was still only *de jure* sovereign of Japan, and de facto, this duty was exercised by a shogun of the Tokugawa family who gave fifteen shoguns, who were the equivalent of dictators, but even more today, than in ancient times. The center of military government - Bakufu - was in the city of Edo, or Tokyo today.

The shogunate which founded Tokugawa Ieyasu at the beginning of the 17th century, in fear of foreign influences, in particular Spain and Portugal, restricted trade and severed all ties with Catholic Europe. The Tokugawa shoguns intended to develop trade, while clans such as the Shimazu of Satsuma wanted to suppress all attempts to reach foreigners.

The samurai became an army of shogunates, but had no enemies to fight. In the following century, their power declined, compared to the strengthening of the merchant class, which also weakened the emergence of European and American ships in the waters of the Sea of Japan in the first half of the 19th century.

There was also a civil war in which the Tokugawa shogunate was expelled and the emperor returned to its former position in 1868. The founders of modern Japan understood that instead of suppressing the barbarians, cooperation with foreigners was necessary for the survival of the nation. Thus, the old practice of having a privileged samurai class has been broken.

The enthusiasm for the artefacts exhibited in the pavilion of the Champ de Mars, speaking of thousands of objects by various craftsmen and artists, provoked a strong reaction in the artistic, educational and industrial circles of visitors to the exhibition.

Several hundred artefacts in porcelain, bronze and estampes, selected by Britain's first consul general in Japan, Sir Rutherford Alcock, were exhibited in London, 1862, but only five years later at the Exposition Universelle in Paris, the Empire of the sun, which began slowly to open to the world, officially participated in an International exhibition which would represent a real discovery for Western civilization.

The suspended government, represented by the young prince Tokugawa Akitake, sent several thousand artefacts to Paris.



Photo 1. Photo of Japanese delegations at the International exhibition, Paris, 1867, Commission Imperiale du Japon, (1868). Histoire de l'Art du Japon. [History of Japanese Art.] Paris: Maurice de Brunoff

But the militant Satsuma and Chōshū (薩摩長州同盟) alliance, founded by the heads of the feudal domains of Satsuma and Chōshū in 1886 to restore imperial Japan, also has its own delegation.

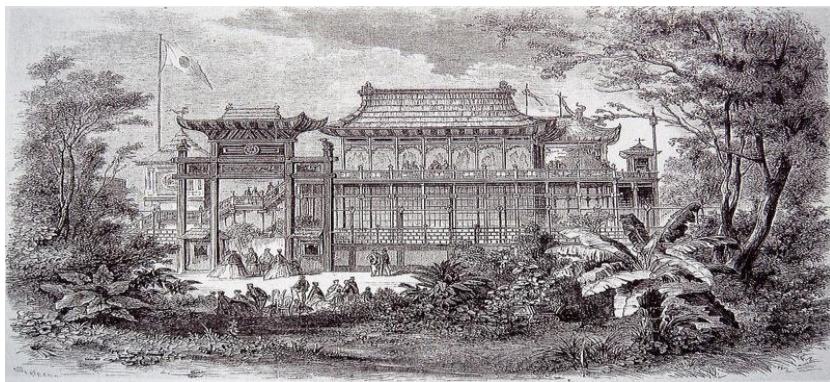


Photo 2. Japanese pavilion at the International exhibition, Paris, 1867, Commission Imperiale du Japon, (1868). Histoire de l'Art du Japon. [History of Japanese Art.] Paris: Maurice de Brunoff

The Japanese pavilion in the *Champ de Mars* was designed by architect Alfred Waterhouse, while the Japanese farm was set up in the *Jardin de Trocadero*.



Photo 3. Photo of the Japanese farm, Champs de Mars, World exhibition, Paris, 1867, Commission Imperiale du Japon, (1868). Histoire de l'Art du Japon. [History of Japanese Art.] Paris: Maurice de Brunoff

The first French General Consul in Japan, Gustave Duchesne de Bellecourt, reports on the event in the *Revue des deux mondes* and expresses his admiration for porcelain and less for weapons, which also occupied a significant place in the exhibition.

The author of the publication *Histoire générale de l'Exposition universelle de 1867*, Pierre Aymar-Bression, uses the characteristic lyrical style while describing the presence of the Japanese artistic and industrial objects: „Les Japonais, ce peuple artiste dont les principales qualités de leur art sont : l'invention, l'imagination et le goût de la perfection. L'exposition japonaise nous fera rêver longtemps! Elle est de nature à réduire sérieusement nos prétentions artistiques“, avant de conclure:¹ “Yes, Japan has a lot of secrets to teach us!” (Aymar-Bression, 1988, p. 48).

Interestingly, the translator from the Japanese delegation, Tadamas Hayashi, stayed in Paris. He became the first Japanese art dealer and founded a company to import Japanese prints, which he advertised in the already illustrated magazine *Paris*. Tadamas bequeathed his collection of *Sword Guardians* to the Louvre Museum.

More than 1300 pieces of Japanese artefacts were left in France at the end of the *Exposition Universelle*. Some of them were sold at an auction organized after the exhibition, and some continued to circulate among the first collectors of *japonaiserie*.

¹ **In-text citation:**

(Aymar-Bression, 1988), i.e. (Aymar Bression, 1998, p 48)

In 'References':

Aymar-Bression, P. (1988). „Oui, le Japon a bien des secrets à nous apprendre !“

The term Japonisme, started as a “fury“ for the collection of Japanese works of art, by which the French journalist, critic and collector Philippe Burty described a strong interest for specimens of works of art and Japanese decorative objects.

UKIYO-e AND FRENCH PEINTERS

Then also the Japanese artistic direction of Ukiyo-e, literally translated “floating image“, which became popular in Japan during the second half of the 17th century, through wood carvings and Japanese paintings which painted landscapes and presented Kabuki theater actors, sumo wrestlers, various scenes from folk tales and legends, samurai battles, exert a powerful influence on the painters of primitive impressionism. In addition to this direction, Western painting, especially French, was influenced by other Japanese painting art directions, such as Kanô, Maruyama, Nikonga, Rimpa, etc.

I will immediately mention the influence of Katsushika Hokusai on the canvases of Claude Monet and Pierre-Auguste Renoir, who even based their work on Hokusai's ukiyo-e graphics, then on Edgar Degas and Edouard Manet, then on the post-impressionist Paul Gauguin, Van Gogh, on Toulouse Lautrec and artists from other western countries, Gustav Klimt and Franz Marc, whose Jugendstil style drew ideas from Japanese art.



Photo 4. Katsuhika Hokusai, The Great Wave off Haganawa, Holmes, C.J. (2014). Hokusai. New York: Parkstone Press International.

Claude Monet painted the bridges of the Giverny Garden, from his Water Lilies series, inspired by the Japanese form, and we should not forget to mention one of his earlier works, a Japanese woman with a fan.



Photo 5. Claude Monet, *The Japanese Footbridge Wildenstein, D.* (2019). *Monet or The Triumph of Impressionism*. Cologne: Taschen.

Edgar Degas's drawings and pastels express a reflection of Japanese compositional style, and the wide-area design in one color is found with Gauguin and Toulouse Lautrec.

The reason for the earlier partial interest for Japan is present through epistolary novels, which were published either as a whole or as magazine articles during this period. After the Exposition Universelle, a two-volume study of the Art of Japan was published, in 1883, and from 1881 to 1891, the richly illustrated journal *Artistic Japan* was published, which aimed to promote the influence of Japanese design among European artists.

In order to show all segments of the rich Japanese civilization at one of the next World exhibitions, which again took place in Paris (where the Bing, Barte and Guimet collections attracted a lot of attention when it comes to decorative art), the Japanese Imperial Commission publishes an extensive two-volume publication *Japan at the 1878 Exposition Universelle* (*Le Japon, Exposition universelle de 1878*).



Photo 6. Toulouse Lautrec, *Divan Japonais*, Frey, J. (1995). *Toulouse –Lautrec: A Life*. London: Orion Publishing.

The first part contains a detailed description of the geography and history of Japan, and the second volume, which is more interesting for this paper, contains five chapters entitled Arts, Education, Industrial Production and Agriculture and Horticulture.

The chapter on education, chronologically conceived, begins from the ancient period, when no written form of expression was developed in Japan. The Japanese emperors Kaika and Sujin (157-50 BC) introduced the Korean script. During the sixteenth year of Emperor Ojin's reign, in the 3rd century, Chinese books (in the fields of medicine and astronomy) were imported and the influence of Chinese literature became dominant. At the beginning of the seventh century, the first students from Japan went to study in China, and in the middle of the same century, Emperor Tenji founded the University of Japan and appointed professors at this first Japanese public educational institution. In the first year of the period Taihō, Emperor Mommu (701-704) established in each province public colleges under the supervision of the aforementioned University of Edo.

During this period, the studies lasted for nine years and students were selected from the ranks of young people aged thirteen to sixteen. Enrollment issues were statutory and covered six areas. The study program included four sections: history and geography, philosophy, law and mathematics, and in two separate areas were studied music and calligraphy and medicine. The seriousness of the preparation of the Japanese Imperial Commission for the Exposition Universelle in 1878 is also evidenced by a precise account of the detailed development of the educational system, which at the time of writing this study is already numbered by ten universities. During this period, France sent professors to Japan to teach at Japanese universities. In sales exhibitions of Japanese artists's works, a portion of the proceeds is spent on expanding French language studies and establishing a Franco-Japanese language alliance.



Photo 7. Jules Chéret, *Exposition des maîtres japonais à l'École des Beaux-Arts*, poster *Journal of Japonisme*. (2017). *Netherlands: Brill*, vol 2, p.11

JAPONISME IN OTHER ARTISTIC AND CULTURAL FORMS

Since 1850, the Parisian auctioneer Hôtel Drouot has organized the annual public sale of Japanese art objects. Napoléon III style, when it comes to furniture, will reflect Japanese art through the use of black lacquer with mother-of-pearl inlays, while from 1867, Gabriel Viardot will produce furniture as replicas of the existing Japanese furniture.

In their newspaper in 1851, the Gonkur Brothers talk about a salon adorned with Japanese art objects: screens, candles, estampes and porcelain.

The porcelain factory in Sèvres is increasingly inspired by Japanese designs (the first service under the name “Rousseau“ is manufactured), and Satsuma ware, or Satsuma porcelaine) will become one of the most famous and most exported Japanese products during the Meiji period.



Photo 8. Traditional service Satsuma ware, Eriksen, S. & De Bellaigue, G. (1968). Sèvres Porcelain. USA, AbeBooks.

At all four world exhibitions held in Paris between 1867 and 1900, government representatives were also present, each time becoming more aware of the influence and prestige their empire was receiving in the west. And it is about the millions of visitors who have simply printed on these exhibits to see what has now arrived from Japan.

TRILOGY ABOUT JAPAN – PIERRE LOTI

One example of Japan's fascination with literature is Pierre Loti's trilogy about Japan, which is viewed by contemporary critics as a scene in which exoticism is opposed to colonialism, just as romanticism was opposed to naturalism. Pierre Loti was an officer in the French Navy, which, in addition to aspiring all artists of the time to be *quelque part ailleurs, quelque part plus haut*, gave him the opportunity to physically imprint on what attracted him and to express through his works what I named for my doctoral thesis as a reversible exoticism.

The first part of his trilogy on Japan, entitled *Madame Crysanthème*, was published in 1868 by Loti. This is an autobiographical novel

about Loti's first trip to Japan, about his life with eighteen-year-old Japanese Oikané-San, or Kikou-San, or Mrs. Chrysanthemum, whom he married the day after he arrived in Nagasaki, 1885, and which he would leave later, less than two months of marriage.

The closed civilization, which Europe did not know much about, was therefore strange to Loti. Even, as he stated several times, he did not know if he was in a French colony, in Australia, or in New Zealand.

The intertwined thematic-lexical exoticism is present, as already stated, from the very beginning of the novel, from the description of landing on, or entering Nagasaki, but from page to page changes its focus - from the description of nature to customs, then to inhabitants and in this example, specifically Loti's observations regarding the Japanese language.

During this first visit to Japan, Loti hardly understood the Japanese language at all, so he only described the experience seen and not the inner feelings of women of then-Japan. In this way, he painted a woman who is a doll in a kimono, calm and submissive who does not show her feelings and who reconciles herself to the destiny that, according to Japanese laws at the time, foreigners can buy her and be with her while they are in Japan.

In the last chapter, before parting with Madam Chrysanthemum, Pierre Lottie explicitly states that he bought Madam Chrysanthemum to enjoy himself during his stay in Japan, and there is the inevitable question of a Western civilization man: "What will be the last act of this little Japanese comedie of mine?" (Loti, 1981, p. 78).

In the whole trilogy on Japan, it is imperative that the readers' attention be drawn to the frequent use of the adjective small, of course, not in pejorative terms, but as a form of cultural exoticisme.

The way the home was furnished and decorated was also unusual for Lottie. The exoticisme of everyday life is shown here by a description of an Ikebana made by Chrysanthemum, which Loti admired and acknowledged that the inhabitants of Western civilization would not be able to make it:² "What form apart they still have, these bouquets arranged by Chrysanthemum: Something difficult to define, a Japanese slenderness, a prepared grace that we could not give them." (Loti, 1981, p. 71).

In addition to the Ikebana, the exotic connotation of the Loti was also given to famous Japanese bouquets made from native species of flowers.

² **In-text citation:**
(Loti, 1981, p 49),

In 'References':

Loti, P. (1981). „, Quelle forme à part ils ont toujours, ces bouquets arrangés par Chrysanthème : Quelque chose de difficile à définir, une sveltesse japonaise, une grâce apprêtée que nous ne saurions pas leur donner. “

Exotic from the sphere of everyday life, Loti also approached the western reader with a description of the custom that the Japanese must take off their footwear before entering the home and with a description of his wife who was resting in the afternoon by lying on the floor. Siesta was familiar to the European, and specifically French reader - Provence, Languedoc-Roussillon, but it was exotic that Madame Chrysanthème slept on the floor.

He continues the exoticism of the traditional sphere by describing cemeteries on the hills above Nagasaki, which according to the writer were not at all such as to cause a feeling of sadness: ³ “And these mountains all around Nagasaki are full of cemeteries; for centuries and centuries, people have been climbing there dead.” (Loti, 1981, p.75).⁴ And he immediately passes to the descriptions of eating habits, which are also exotic - “incredible thing” (Loti, 1981, p.38), that is, something amazing as Loti himself said. According to Japanese tradition, Chrysanthemum has two plums, which are first dipped in a kind of compote liquid and then dipped in powdered sugar. Of course, tea is obligatory. And other meals are completely different from Western civilization. Lunch consists of a number of smaller meals prepared by the landlady and which are, of course, eaten with chopsticks. There is also an exotic choice of dishes: a kind of sparrow platters, stuffed shrimp, seaweed in a sauce, salty candy, and especially dessert because of the amount served. In fact, it is a type of cooked rice on the water, which Chrysanthemum takes repeatedly. In the descriptions of the dishes, he constantly uses colors to emphasize the specificity of the meals, that is, their variety and thus to attract the readers' attention:⁵ “This continues in the course of the day with two very

³ **In-text citation:**

(Loti, 1981, p 75),

In ‘References’:

Loti, P. (1981). „, Quelle forme à part ils ont toujours, ces bouquets arrangés par Chrysanthème : Quelque chose de difficile à définir, une sveltesse japonaise, une grâce apprêtée que nous ne saurions pas leur donner. “

⁴ **In-text citation:**

(Loti, 1981, p 38),

In ‘References’:

Loti, P. (1981). „, la chose incroyable“

⁵ **In-text citation:**

(Loti, 1981, p 77),

In ‘References’:

Loti, P. (1981). „, Cela se continue dans le courant du jour par deux dînettes très drôlement ordonnées. De chez madame Prune, où ces choses se cuisinent, on les lui monte sur un plateau de laque rouge, dans de microscopiques tasses à couvercle ...

Mais ce qui ne change jamais, ni chez nous ni ailleurs, ni au sud de l’empire ni au nord, c’est le dessert et la façon de le manger : après tant de petits plats pour rire, on apporte une cuve en bois cerclée de cuivre, une cuve énorme, comme pour Gargantua, et contenant jusqu’au bord du riz cuit à l’eau pure ; Chrysanthème en remplit un très

oddly ordered dinettes. From Madama Prune's, where these things are cooked, they are brought up to her on a red lacquer tray, in microscopic cups with lids ... But what never changes, neither at home nor elsewhere, neither in the south of the empire nor in the north, is the dessert and the way to eat it: after so many small dishes for laughs, we bring a wooden vat encircled with copper, an enormous tub, as for Gargantua, and containing up to the edge of the rice cooked in pure water; Chrysanthemum fills a very large bowl (sometimes two, sometimes three), dirties the snowy whiteness with a black sauce, with fish, which is contained in a fine blue cruet ... The we collect the small cups and the small lids, the last ones, last crumbs fallen on the mats so white, nothing should ever tarnish the irreproachable cleanliness." (Loti, 1981, p.77).

The last paragraph of this chapter also discusses another aspect of eating habits. The attention is paid to the type of used pottery and cutlery, their size, shape, material from which it is made, as well as the special attention that the Japanese pay to table and tablecloth to be clean before, during and after the meal.

The fascination with sounds that characterize the different countries in which Loti served, is reflected in the fact that he did not fail to describe in detail every sound that was interesting to him, which was of course different from the sounds we are used to. His descriptions were so faithful and specific that even the reader could hear them, such as moving the paper walls from the following example:⁶ "The sound of those innumerable wooden panels being pulled and closed at the beginning of each night in all Japanese houses is one of the things of this country that will remain in my memory" (Loti, 1981, p. 84).

In this way, he combined exoticism on the phonetic level with exoticism in architecture, not only focusing on the description of the external appearance of buildings, but also their interiors, while emphasizing simplicity.

Simplicity attracted the writer's attention, so that, while describing it, he played with contrasts, as a stylistic figure which, in parallel setting opposites, mutually reinforces the meaning of one and the other term, in this case the adjective or noun to which the adjectives refer.

grand bol (quelquefois deux, quelquefois trois), en salit la blancheur neigeuse avec une sauce noire, au poisson, qui est contenue dans une fine burette bleue ... Ensuite on ramasse les petites tasses et les petits couvercles, les dernières miettes tombées sur ces nattes si blanches dont rien ne doit ternir jamais l'irréprochable netteté. "

⁶ **In-text citation:**

(Loti, 1981, p 84),

In 'References' :

Loti, P. (1981). „ Le bruit de ces innombrables panneaux de bois que l'on tire et que l'on ferme, au commencement de chaque nuit, dans toutes les maisons japonaises, est une des choses de ce pays qui me resteront dans la mémoire. “

The description of the Japanese flag, which is still a symbol of simplicity and diversity today, of course through the use of contrasting adjectives, as noted above, is an example of its minute analysis of cultural elements.

The rich Japanese civilization, as already stated, was at the end of the Edo Bakufu, or Tokugawa shogunate period. The power of the Samurai, the shogunate army is weakened, as there is no internal enemy to fight with. Japan is therefore opening up to the world, and with the advent of European and American ships in the waters of the Sea of Japan, a stronger trading class.

A closed civilization, of which Europe did not know much, must have been new and strange also for Loti. This is probably the reason that idioms have been present from the very beginning, and their frequent contextual use certainly represented Loti's desire to bring Western readers closer to the basics of the Japanese language. And to alleviate his impotence, or even anger at not being able to understand the ideograms of the Japanese language, to provide readers with information on whether the Japanese language truly reflects the beauty of the objects and beings he is surrounded with at every turn.

At Mr. Kangaroo's dinner, where he went to find a girl to marry, he was able to understand the meanings of women's names, which were mostly the names of flowers and fruits: Miss Jasmine - Mademoiselle Jasmine, Miss Carnation - Mademoiselle Cillet, of course Madam Chrysanthemum - Madame Chrysanthème, Miss Peach - Mademoiselle Abricot, Miss Plum - Mademoiselle Prune, Miss Snow - Mademoiselle Neige and Miss Moon - Mademoiselle Lune.

Lottie and Chrysanthemum went out to tea parties almost every night. That was an opportunity for Loti to make the image of Japan as authentic as possible by coloring and listing unusual male and female names. But also by the descriptions of the shops they visited when they have been returned at home, as well as the names of the sales people and what they were selling.

They always came first to the Extremely Clean Lady, Madame Très-Propre in French and O Séi-San in Japanese, who sells paper lanterns and struggles every time removing their favorite gray or red from the ceiling of the store.

Then they stopped by Mrs. Clock - Madame L'Heure, that is, Tôki San, where they bought pink and white candy.

This autobiographical novel, which also inspired Puccini to write *Madame Butterfly* is, according to the painter Philippe Lejeune, a fictional novel of what the author saw and experienced during his first stay in Japan. In the last part of Loti's trilogy on Japan, we learn that Mrs. Chrysanthemum married a lantern maker and lives in a neighboring city.

For the second time, Pierre Loti came to Japan in 1885, which would give him the opportunity to write in his own style *Autumn Story-*

telling from Japan - Japonerie d'automne. Minuscule descriptions imbued with his peculiar sense of humor, witness the scenes that Japanese writers still inspire today, such as the entertainment scene in Yedo.

From Kobe to Kyoto he travels by train, and in the preface addresses Edmond de Goncourt and mentions a train traveling at incredible speed, informing his readers of Japan's extremely rapid modernization. It is equally well represented as a Japanese village and city in the midst of spectacular modernization of Japan, which by then was almost closed to foreigners, and a paradoxical reality in which the land of the rising sun with extremely pronounced traditional refinement embraces the radical transformations of society in the dawn of the new century.

In nine chapters of this novel we find contrasting comparisons - the comparison of street noise and silence in the temple, salons with a large amount of furniture and decorative objects in France, and private residences in Japan.

He also cites a part of Van Gogh's letter in which Van Gogh asks his brother Theo: "Do you think that the real Japanese have nothing on their walls?" (Loti, 1984, p. 123).

So, we can inevitably conclude that the greatest artists in Europe read Loti to get better acquainted with Japan.

Now, more and more often, we also come across words from the Japanese language, such as djin - a type of rickshaw, or a person pulling it, then a mousko, meaning boy, but also now a constant mousmé, as Loti called his Mme Chrysanthème. This was not the most beautiful word in Japanese only for Pierre Loti. Literary critics often cite a letter in which Van Gogh writes to his brother Theo saying that mousmé represents one of the most beautiful words in the Japanese language, a word that has something like moue (expressive) and something that is frimousse (something what express the sweet child face).



Photo 9. La Mousmé, Sitting in a Cane Chair, Van Gogh, National Gallery in Washington, Metzger, R. & Walter, I.F. (2015). Van Gogh. The complete Paintings. Bibliotheca Universalis

Contemporary Japanese painter and photographer, Yoshihiko Wada believes that Loti's frequent use of xenism mousmé was in fact an attempt to reduce the then existing distance between his country, that is, France and Japan.

The latest novel in the trilogy about Japan, *Troisième jeunesse de Madame Prune, Mrs. Plum's Third Youth*, was written during Loti's service in Japan in 1900 and 1901, when he found himself in this distant land for the third time after fifteen years. This time, through Loti's novel, geopolitical events in East Asia at the beginning of the 20th century, such as the Russo-Japanese War, strained relations with China, and the modernization of Japan, also take place.

Hence, many critics suggest three ways of reading this novel - as a love novel, a historical novel, and a travelogue that rounds off Loti's story of Japan.

FRENCH INFLUENCE AND MEIJI PERIOD

The introduction of the notion of reversible exotism will be illustrated in this paper by the influence which, above all, French civilization exerted on Japanese creativity.

One of Japan's most famous composers, Rentaro Taki, who enrolled his piano studies at the Leipzig Conservatory in 1901, did his musical work, of which the most popular are *Moon over the ruined castle, Kojo no Tsuki*, 荒城の月, which has been honored by famous contemporary musicians and performers, influenced by Claude Debussy.



Photo 10. Antonio Fontanesi, Shinobazu Pond, Farioli, E. & Poppi, C. (1999). Antonio Fontanesi: E la pittura di paesaggio in Italia 1861-1880. [Antonio Fontanesi: And painting of landscapes in Italy 1861-1880.] Federico Motta Editore.

In 1869, Italian painter and graphic artist Antonio Fontanesi left Turin and came at the Academy in Tokyo, primarily to teach Japanese painters the techniques he used. This is how the famous oil on canvas *Shinobazu Pond* was created, which is located today in the National Museum in Tokyo.

Aoki Shigeru, a Japanese painter, was inspired by the French Impressionists, and his most famous painting, *Umi no sachi* (海の幸), *Fruit de mer*, or *Seafood*, makes him one of the greatest painters of the Meiji period.



Photo 11. Aoki Shigeru, *Seafood*, Fleming, J. & Honour, H. (1902).
A World History of Art. London: Laurence King Publishing

The Meiji period literature is influenced primarily by the Enlightenment, which is essentially the spreading of ideas from West Europe (Fukuzawa Yukichi - *Description of the West*), continuing with the translation of literary works from English (Sir Walter Scott, William Shakespeare), French (Alexandre Dumas father, Jules Verne and somewhat Victor Hugo), German (Johann Wolfgang von Goethe and Friedrich Schiller), and Russian (Tolstoy and Puschkin) with the complete absence of original literature.

Translations of the works of Edward Bulwer-Lytton and Benjamin Disraeli influence the emergence of a new literary genre, the so-called political novels (Toda Kindo - *Waves of the Stirring Sea*), to end this century with the genre suppressing literature that was to meet the needs of modern times. The general theory of Japan, written by Futabatai Shimei is considered to be the first literary work of new Japan.

It is necessary to mention writers among whom Naoya Shiga, Takeo Arishima, Kafū Nagai, Ryunosuke Akutagava, Takiji Kobayashi, Natsume Soseki and Toson Shimazaki in whose novel *I Am a Cat*, we come across mixed literary elements of Japanese and Western literature of the time.

Fine expression of French and Japanese artists tell a story specific to their poeticism. The same story as we can find in the novel *Snow Country* by Yasunari Kawabata, in which the girls weave the *tjidjimi* rugs with crumpled linen threads: "Linen thread, thinner than hair, could not be worked anywhere

except in wet snow, which made it a dark and cold season and particularly suitable for rug weaving” (Kawabata, 2009, p.107).

And their storytelling, more than anything else, connected Japan with countries in the Western European part of the Silk Road and laid the foundations of what we now call interculturalism.

In September 2012, the exhibition “Hikari-from Japan to Serbia” was held at the Museum of Applied Art in Belgrade. More than 200 showpieces of this exhibition were exemplified by various media, technical and artistic approaches that support and express a multitude of personal and individual expressions, summarizing and revealing the basic currents of contemporary Japanese art. Hikari in Japanese means light, friendship, renewal, the future. On this way, the title of the exhibition itself was an unequivocal message to the Japanese and Serbian people, who are living in the wake of the tsunami and wars. The multiculturalism of this exhibition is confirmed by the presentation and the Japanese way of setting the exhibits. The works of different artists were presented in the same plane, and the works of one author could have been exposed one above the other. The exhibits, as Feng Shui dictates, was not placed in the corners of the rooms, and the tea screen was on the floor, not on the wall, as used in the tea ceremony. It is extremely interesting that a part from the artist's name and the name of his work, his artistic name was also written, such as Young Cherry Blossom, which brings us back to the text of the work and the aforementioned names from the Pierre Loti's Trilogy on Japan.

When it comes to music art, it is necessary to mention the guest appearance of the Japanese music group Japalkan, which is known for nurturing the Balkan folk music, which opened the 2018 Kustendorf International Film and Music Festival. This group plays South Slavic and Serbian songs and combines folk tunes by performing them on traditional way with modern electric instruments.

The teaching of Japanese in Southeastern Europe began 43 years ago at the Faculty of Philology of the University of Belgrade, whose professors of Japanese language and literature now teach not only in the Silk Road, but also at the universities in America. The textbook of our Japanese language teachers, *Kanji*, has been published in Russian and English in addition to Serbian language.

RESULTS

The results obtained by this analytical and comparative approach and the works mentioned and analyzed from all fields of culture and art, lead to the creation of a new starting point in the analytical and compara-

tive approach and in the study of events in the extremely important and rich new Silk Road.

CONCLUSION

Based on the data presented and their detailed analyzes followed by adequate examples, we can conclude that influence of Japanese culture on the West European part of the Silk road, and vice versa, consists of the elements of the exotic which permeate both the theme and the action, and thus the time of the narration, not only in literature, but also in other artistic works. The culture in generally, and the industrial progress and new techniques in all life's areas, followed the same already mentioned guidelines. Today, when notions of mundialization, multiculturalism, or interculturalism were given prominence, we can suppose that the world discovered the existence and values of other cultures with the strong presence of synergy based on reversible differences offered a whole new dimension and opened up new possibilities for its interpretations, exchange and development.

The opened window to the Orient trough proven facts, and we can make it a necessary part of our lives, that is something that still opens many still closed windows today. This fascination with the modernization of Japan with the acceptance and by the same reaction in the countries on the Silk Road with the Rabelais thirst for new knowledge requires to be discovered and studied, of course, with constant reflection and analysis across multiple dimensions adopted as an obligatory percept that to step out means to step out of something that is known and familiar so as to bring the unknown into the familiar with the permanent going out further.

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ФАСЦИНАЦИЈА МОДЕРНИЗАЦИЈОМ ЈАПАНА – РЕАКЦИЈЕ ЗАПАДНОЕВРОПСКОГ ДЕЛА ПУТА СВИЛЕ ПРАЋЕН КРОЗ ПРИЗМУ РЕВЕРЗИБИЛНОГ ЕГЗОТИЗМА

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Резиме

Чувајући у великој мери своју независност, оно што карактерише отварање Јапана према свету које почиње у периоду Меиџи је комбиновање традиционалног и модерног у свим сегментима, а тада је и постављен темељ модернизације данашњег Јапана.

Током векова, елементи источне и западне цивилизације су преношени не само економским каналима, као што је делимично приказано у овом раду, него и кроз бројне књиге, новеле, слике, уметничке предмете, музику, плес, костиме и друго, чиме су државама на путу свиле пружане нове перспективе и готови модели, уз императив очувања личног културног идентитета.

Детаљна анализа трилогије о Јапану француског писца Пјера Лотија, француске и јапанске уметности 19. века, а посебно истицање важности представљања јапанске уметности, културе и економије на Светској изложби у Паризу, 1867. године, имају за циљ да прикажу изузетан значај Јапана, поред осталих држава којима је преношена свила од истока на запад, и који је постао веза источњачких и западних култура, и делимично индустријских, модела развоја савременог друштва.

Наведени резултати применом аналитичко-компаративног приступа, и наведена и анализирана дела свих области културе и уметности, представљају нову полазну тачку за наставак проучавања активности и дешавања на изузетно важном и богатом новом путу свиле.

MEDIA CRISIS AS A MEASURE OF RESPONSIBILITY OF MEDIA EMPLOYEES ^a

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Abstract

Numerous challenges and problems the media have faced in recent years, followed by the disappearance of many, resulted in a diagnosis of their global crisis. This situation has forced many media practitioners and theorists to think more about the situation and actively work on its interpretation to find a strategy for survival. Many of them, however, do not bring success, but only increase the problem because they represent a shift from the original role of journalism and the quality of the journalism. Therefore, the reversal of this logic is imposed as a response to the accumulated problems, and attempt to end the crisis. It also stresses the importance of the responsibility of media employees, especially those who run and organize media work – management, and the media content as its consequences. The focus of this article, therefore, is to try to illuminate this often unjustly neglected context, pointing to its importance, and hence the possibility of formulating of a media model that would allow a long-term stability for the media today.

Key words: The media crisis, Traditional media, Media management, Media editing, Media business.

^a Important notice: This article is an updated version of the content and conclusions of the doctoral thesis "Media Editing and Media Business Management in the Light of *Media Crisis*", written and successfully defended by one of the authors (Slobodan Penezić) of this article in 2018, at the Faculty of Political Sciences UB (mentor: Veselin Kljajić, PhD), which herein is prepared together with the participation of its second author, Neven Cvetičanin, as a co-author.

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КРИЗА МЕДИЈА КАО МЕРА ОДГОВОРНОСТИ ЗАПОСЛЕНИХ У МЕДИЈИМА

Апстракт

Бројни изазови и проблеми с којима се медији суочавају последњих година, а који су узроковали и нестанак многих од њих – подстакли су и дијагнозу о њиховој глобалној кризи. Такво стање приморало је многе медијске практичаре и теоретичаре да се замисле над ситуацијом и активно раде на њеном тумачењу и проналаску стратегија за опстанак. Многе од њих, међутим, не доносе успех, већ само увећавају проблем, јер у средишту имају мере које значе отклон од изворне новинарске улоге и квалитетног извештаја. Стога се преокретање те логике намеће и као одговор на нагомилане проблеме и покушај изласка из кризе. На тај начин, наглашава се и важност одговорности запослених у медијима, а посебно оних који њима управљају – медијског менаџмента, односно њиховог приступа и медијског садржаја као његове последице. Фокус овог текста стога је на осветљавању тог, често неоправдано занемареног, контекста, указивањем на његову важност, а стога и на могућности формулисања медијских модела који би омогућили дугорочнију стабилност медија данас.

Кључне речи: криза медија, традиционални медији, медијски менаџмент, уређивање медија, пословање медија.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The adaptation of media to the current challenges, given the indisputable importance of their role in society, is rightly labelled as extremely important. Failures in these efforts resulted in the crisis of the media, primarily for many so-called traditional media, and marked the end for many of them. In these circumstances, media crisis is often equalized with the crisis of journalism, blaming journalists for its outcome. This is, certainly, a wrong interpretation, because, as many experts warn, the “supreme responsibility lays among those who manage media and their competence” (Cole, 2004; Chan-Olmsted, 2006). Current media crisis essentially means the failure of management (*owners, directors, editors*) to found new models of media organization and business in new circumstances, which would provide survival for their media companies (Begović, 2002; Gade, 2004).

That is why we should primarily analyze those who govern them (management). One of the crucial topics today is certainly – how economic conditions affect their role and how they (management) motivate their employees to perform their job considering poor economic conditions? It is, therefore, necessary to analyze the work of management firstly. It can show us the problems that are affecting the management, but also to leave enough space for them to provide us with a different perspective. Examples of successful and less successful models can lead us to opportunities for positive change.

MEDIA RESPONSIBILITY IN PRACTICE

Serge Halimi, director and editor in chief of "Le Monde Diplomatique", believes that "journalists have no power and influence on defining direction in which their newspapers go" (2016). If we start from the question of what can be done in order to preserve the original role of the media and journalism once seen as a socially very responsible business, Sandra Bašić Horvatin points out that "media employees must stand in defense of this goal, emphasize their position and indicate their problems" (According to Balkan Insight, June 2017). The big problem is the fear (intimidation) and the lack of interest of media actors for their own situation. This is also revealed in our national media landscape, though it's not its exclusive characteristic. Speaking about the Slovenian newspaper "Delo", whose employees (especially journalists) were massively fired in 2016 and 2017, she also notes this problem, which manifests itself "through a lack of solidarity among media workers, but also through their lack of interest for the problems that directly affect their working environment" (According to Balkan Insight, June 2017).

We obviously must first dig deeply into that what is supposed to represent their tasks and responsibilities. To be honest, they are often insufficiently visible and undefined, but it does not mean that it is impossible to try to point out what they should comprise. Mirko Miletić points "the importance of a broader understanding of the interdependence of the social environment, media system and management, also as different levels and functions of management" (2006, pp. 33-41). He also realizes that this issue is followed by a problem of understanding of the management role, which only complicates the possibility of analyzing their responsibilities, primarily as a result of the traditional understanding of management, which is reduced to the so-called Media Business Management, where this feature is "reserved for professional managers" (2006, pp. 33-41). This situation well coincides with Serbian media, where management people mainly have no experience in management, or, in turn, do not know much about the nature of the media process.

If we adopt these remarks, then we are on the right track in looking at the organization and responsibility in the media. In this way, we will see who has the leadership responsibility to determine the direction of media work, whether they belong to the business or editorial sector. The primary task of management is to achieve organizational goals and efficiently use resources to maximize profit for their companies, as well as the fulfilment of the obligations that the media have to the public. This second aspect of their accountability is often overlooked, because of the pursuit of profit. It means betray to the core principles of quality journalism, which should be the "last defense of the media in dealing with current challenges, such as impacts of advertisers, politicians or technological development" (Kljajić, 2011).

MEDIA AND EFFECTS OF THE CRISIS

Tasks and Consequences within the Media Work

Global media crisis, a problem to deal successfully with the challenges of today, was also influenced by the fact that many of them become the environment with a bad business atmosphere, where the media professionalism is discouraged, and even punished. Hence, perhaps, that is why the journalists are unjustifiably charged for the media crisis, although it is not originally their fault. The functioning of the media for decades has been followed by the instability and that goes hand in hand with the process of their growing control by external actors, although the "independent media is very much important for the effective functioning of democratic societies, that depends on their adequate information of the citizens, encouraging transparency and better communication, which indirectly impacting the economic development of these societies" (According to Steyn, 2007, p. 6).

Thus formulated role of the media at the same time points to some of the main challenges they face today, due to the lack of financial resources, but also the will and skills and true desire of media actors to properly deal with them. Such an attitude produces mismanagement and professional negligence of employees, but also bigger problems and even shutting down the media. Behind it all is always the lack of interest for the responsibilities of employees in the media, as well as for the quality of management.

The role of management, in turn, implies the implementation of specific tasks and competencies, to which they are often unaware or which they deliberately forget to avoid their responsibility. Theorists, however, indicate that "their duties include basic dimensions and related tasks that follow such responsibilities," where basic "[involvement of] planning, organization, management and control, and following are the organization of communication, employee motivation, decision making, maintaining discipline and delegating tasks; while competence in relation to the tasks include awareness of the global challenges, the so-called self-management (in theory, it's the basis of successful management, assuming the responsibility and knowledge of the weaknesses and the quality of employees), planning of processes and tasks, as well as the implementation of the administrative work, organization communication and teamwork" (According to Lussier, 2003; Cole, 2004). Achieving these tasks and possessing the above competencies is "a prerequisite for quality management, and then an equal media product and market position of the media" (Steyn, 2008:4).

If we consider the Serbian media, it can be said that "the greatest weakness can be seen in the field of business management, and that is why researches should be directed towards the analysis of these weak-

nesses, which may lead to the creation of appropriate business policies and training of those who govern media, because it is more useful than the training of journalists" (Begović, 2002, p. 30). Begović also notes that "we are lacking in quality and professional managers, because those jobs are mostly carried by experienced journalists who are practicing for this job, and that is why the management role is mixed and undefined" (Begović, p. 25). Although painted in various colors, such landscapes primarily depend on the ownership structure (and influence) over a particular media outlet, but it is also marked by improper or at least insufficiently trained media management. In this respect, we can notice certain dominant profiles; two of them actually; such as experienced journalists (usually loyal to the owner; whether private or ruled by the current state nomenclature) who come to this position thanks to their recognition by the public, and, above all, thanks to their willingness to accept and implement every wish of those who appointed them. As such, the employers who elect them recognize them as acceptable enough, but they are also acceptable for the public for which the content should be designed. The motive for their choice, therefore, is primarily political and market oriented, and it does not have professional and qualitative nature. At the other extreme, we can notice those people who come from the so-called corporate world, predominantly framed by the assessments of possible cash profits, without a lot of (or often without any) knowledge of the specifics of the media role and work. Their choice is motivated by the desire for the media to become a useful tool for the realization of primarily economic interests. In both cases, the media and their employees are primarily seen as a tool of fulfilment of particular (private) interests, often driven by a short-term nature. That is the reason for which such media are rarely sustainable (they rise and fall following the impact of the nomenclature behind them), causing that they rarely achieve wider social relevance and the opportunity to become "media institutions" with wider national and public interest. It can, therefore, be concluded that there exist a very small number of professionals in our media landscape that are theoretically and practically trained and proven in the field of media to monitor and identify market trends and properly understand the local and global social context. But this already leads us into the broader topic of (dis)functionality of our social elite to serve broader social and national interests, rather than narrow-particular interests, which we have described in other works (Cvetičanin, 2018), and thus we will not deal closely with it in this text, keeping exclusively to its primary theme – the relationship between successful and responsible management and functioning of the media they are managing.

The theme of management responsibility, however, is often overlooked, both practically and theoretically, causing researchers to give up in advance from the idea that it can lead to a collection of adequate in-

formation on the method and the effects of their work. Thus, the role of management remains undefined, although their duties and competence, according to our hypothesis, are of the utmost importance. In our media space, they are usually reduced down to improvisation, without a clear strategy and respect of values, opening space for unprofessional work. Relevant literature, however, stipulates that "the primary responsibility of management is directed towards achieving organizational goals and efficiently use of resources for maximization of profit and fulfilment of the obligation of the media to the public" (Steyn, 2008, p. 5). The other aspect of such responsibility, as already noted, is ignored due to the struggle for profit. This causes the ignorance of high-quality journalism, to which we should all strive, and which becomes disabled because the practice of the media becomes organized with "predetermined scenario that leads us the creation of hegemony" (Salmon, 2010, p. 94). The result is professional irresponsibility and bad media product, and that, paradoxically, although it often goes unnoticed, leads us to greater problems — that is why we should accept the recommendation that the media will not quite succeed in their business intentions, if they ignore quality journalism, because the stability of the audience is made by the knowledge of the market, spotting opportunities and improving satisfaction of that public by media content — therefore, we can also conclude that any strategy for further development (survival) of the media must involve a return to the original principles of the role of media and quality journalism and media content.

Described problems are global and cannot be attributed solely to Serbia and this region, because we also observe them in the areas with more developed economic characteristics, which are allegedly better able to practice and pronounce media rights and freedoms. The consequences are, though, more tragic in those media systems (such as ours) that are economically and legally insufficiently based — sometimes even fatal for the media survival.

Media Professionalism and Integrity as a Stock for Survival

The level of media professionalism and integrity, as specific factors of influencing models and result of media work, cannot be interpreted separately from the external influences on the media. Most of them are manifested through the impact of the money on the media, which is mainly manifested through advertising (or no advertising), which is the undisputable main source of income for most of them. Actual challenges and negative consequences dictated by the impact of technology are only further encouraged with the possibility of such influence.

Many representatives of the advertising industry often evaluate media success by measuring the percentage of advertising within them. The space

for reporting is narrowed in such frameworks, because otherwise there would not be enough money for the normal functioning of the media. Such an approach is contrary to the postulates of quality journalism. Even the recommendations of marketing experts, such as agency "McInnis & Associates", state that management is primarily responsible for everything that will appear (or not), and that the primary objective must be the accurate reporting, in accordance with current "in reader-friendly way" recommendation for media. It is emphasized that the work of journalists is quite limited by the need for the greater space for advertisements. Many experts are, therefore, inclined to think that the "negative convergence" between editorial and advertising sectors happened and produced such outcome.

The study "Importance of media integrity: Restore media and journalism in the service of the public" analyzes the five countries of South-Eastern Europe (*Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia and Serbia*) with the aim to "identify and explain the sources and mechanisms that systematically corrupt the role and ability of the media to serve democracy" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 28). Through this review, an understanding of the broader context of the challenges, faced by the media and their employees is provided by focusing on those aspects of media systems that bring certain risks to the media integrity, and therefore affect "the attitude of the media towards the public interest: the development of media policy, ownership and financing, the functioning of public service, and the situation for journalists and journalistic practice" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 28). At the end, they recognize the existence of "obstructive patterns that prevent the media to serve the public interest, which appear in all media systems", representing the "system of corrupt relationships that pervade the media sphere infecting all its parts, from media policy to journalism as a profession" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 28).

It is determined that the integrity of the media, as the aim pursued by the analysis, can be achieved "only if there is a consensus that the media are obliged to serve the public interest and meet the communication needs of citizens" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 44). It further concludes that "the analysis of the structural and institutional constraints of journalistic work points to the insufficient capacity of journalists to oppose relationships that prevent them from functioning as a force of democratization", and that "because of the bad economic environment, but also because of the inability of journalists to unite and effectively advocate for their professional interests, media are captured by powerful political and economic actors" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 128). Therefore, they recommend the "re-regulation of the media system, which will enable the conditions for economic viability of media business, and regulation of financial flows in the media, so they can provide its economic independence, with efficient self-organization as the

only solution for the rescue of the journalistic profession from the crisis". When it comes to Serbia, it is estimated that "media reforms, which have been ongoing for more than a decade, did not create the conditions for the development of the media as an institution of democracy" and that "the media are prisoners of the current financing system, that makes them dependent from financial resources which are outside of the media market (business and political groups), rather than the audience for which they exist" (Petković, Bašić-Horvatin and Hodžić, 2014, p. 129).

The weakening of professionalism and integrity are a direct result of the described situation. The result is certainly the low-quality content, but the very existence of the media could be jeopardized. This, in turn, is rarely seen as such, although this relationship that leads to the loss of credibility and business failures is obvious. In the game of jugglery, also recognized by the participants of research which inspired this paper - between the acceptance of "necessary evil" from the outside influences and the efforts to preserve the editorial stability and trust of readers; the key role lays among those who manage media — "the consequences of mismanagement are tragic if they neglect the importance of the balance within media processes that leads to the bad management, due to the short-term financial or other interests" (Penezić, 2018).

The Dominant Media Practices and Orientations

Within media studies, we can usually notice two types of the interpretation of the role of media that are most often encountered and mostly opposed to each other: one that primarily sees media as a regular business structure (like any other), and the other that reminds us about their specific responsibilities towards wider public interest. In such a context we can notice two kinds of arguments, which are both the result of selective observation of media reality and the gap between media theory and practice.

Croteau and Hoynes once reminded us about a well-known statement given by "Mark Fowler, President of the U.S. Federal Communications Commission during the administration of Ronald Reagan, who stated that 'the television is a just another technical device' comparing it to 'a toaster with pictures, noting that in contemporary media theory we can find two basic approaches or two models of thinking: *Market* and *Public Sphere model*" (2006, p. 27), where the first assumes that "citizens are primarily consumers who have an interest in buying media products (as well as any other), but the media can't be observed just as another product that will be used by the consumers – so that is why the second model suggests that media is a sources for important information with education functions too" (Croteau and Hoynes, 2006, p. 27).

If we reduce our approach to the analysis to economic indicators of media work, it also inevitably leads to these funds. Numerous authors are because advertising has a great importance for many media, and that ad-

vertisers deliberately target consumers, measuring their quality and quantity. When they secure their income, they can continue to invest and control the process of selection of information within any market. This is not positive impact for high-quality information. Thus, with reference to the necessary economic interests, media produce a biased picture of reality, which is, in fact, a hidden promotion of certain particular interest. In this way, having in mind that kind of influence on the media, advertisers are becoming the most effective instrument of influence on their editing, which is usually in the hands of economically or politically powerful individuals and groups. It is, therefore, also clear who gains the most benefits at the end of such process, and it is not the media. That is how we come up with the opposition dominant views on the role of the media.

The selection of adequate models of media, therefore, is a matter of paramount importance. The basic starting point for finding a recommendation in this regard is the analysis of media organizations. Long time ago, Conrad Fink announced that “comes the time that will be perfect for those media managers who know how to inspire, organize and influence the development of their employees and the media, in order to adapt to changes; while those who are not capable will be in trouble” (1987, p. 55); and that success is a matter of “long-term planning and adequately tailored agenda, transparent business and good methodology – professionalism at all levels” (1987, p. 55). Peter Gade analyzed media challenges from a perspective of probably the world's most developed media system, such as those in the USA, analyzing the desirable profile of a journalist, pointing out that “the media today have a need for journalists with different skills, ready to be a part of the team. He also emphasizes the importance of creating proper conditions for journalists: “to provide them with peace and freedom, so they can make revolutionary stories” (2004, p. 126). The US Department of Labour has long recommended for the journalists to focus more on writing for online platforms. It increasingly leads them to the status of freelancers, which in financial terms is more effective. Presenting the findings of his and other related relevant studies, Raynald Beam managed “to show the relationship of media employees in the US in relationship to the media business objectives, defined within the editorial policy of these media outlets” (2006, pp. 169-185). Those data indicate that “the journalists’ satisfaction towards their work, and their motivation to do their job professionally, is deeply associated with their impression of business goals, defined by their superiors, and that journalists are less satisfied with media orientation to the profit making organization, and more if they recognize that their employers recognize quality journalism and value moral of their employees in a right way” — he also notices that “their job satisfaction is higher when they have a sense of independence and direct communication with superiors,

having in mind the fact that their satisfaction is also closely linked with the role they have" (Beam, 2006, pp. 169-185).

According to most of the opinions, media must go back to the roots and a tradition of quality journalism, which is a sort of guarantee for a better market position as well. More specifically, it is noticeable that this practice is betrayed nowadays, because they follow short-term interests and interests of big capital, opposed to the importance of maintaining the proper attitude towards the long-established values. If we take into account the current global media trends such as commercialization and tabloidization, we can also see that they are finding fertile ground for their development in the circumstances of economic and cultural poverty, as well as the permanent political instability, which together adorn our media framework, those trends just producing negative consequences.

At the beginning of the 21st century, IREX presented findings of its research at the forum *Tabloidization of Daily Newspapers in Serbia*. At the presentation, Snježana Milivojević noted that the press in Serbia is "in a strong tabloidization process, and Serbian tabloids, compared to similar newspapers in developing media environments, are specific for their interest in political life," while Stevan Niksić, however, pointed out something that is often lost from a sight – that "the tabloids in developed countries are serious newspapers, for which facts are sanctities", and what distinguishes them is "a subjects and manner of interpretation" (According to Media Center, 2005)¹. In this study, realized 15 years later, Zoran Panović notes the "dominance of the dark tabloids in our country, characterized by their political control" (Penezić, 2018, p. 134). The functioning of such media, therefore, is just a cover for the promotion of hidden interests, and their work is often not in the service of the protection of media survival.

These trends, which arise from media represent primarily the desire for quick profit at any cost, are now reaching their peak encompassing nearly all media. The Serbian media are no exception. It is a phenomenon which contaminates the entire social space, in order to achieve interest of media controllers. In a process framed in such context, which clearly produces enormous damage for the media, but also for the whole society, equally responsible are the most powerful social actors and media managers who show indolence and irresponsibility for consequences, which are bad for almost everyone, except for those who benefit economically, politically, or in both ways.

¹ According to the report of the "Media Center", published under the title "Tabloidization does not exclude professionalism". Available at: <http://www.mc.rs/tabloidizacija-dnevne-stampe-u-srbiji.515.html>

Editorial Changes as a Response to the Challenges

Given the fact that the media content is its main product, from which they produce their impact (and thus business results), an adequate access to edit and management strategies in the new market conditions are particularly important. Some authors, like Terhi Rantanen, analyze the importance of globalized communication, stating that “the media will survive if they are able to cover as much of the local news and make them globally accessible and relevant” (2007, p. 11). The same feeling is shared by newer guidelines, such as highlights by Joseph Turow, which estimate that “media executives must think about the audience, by putting themselves in their position, bearing in mind that the media business cannot exist without content which attract audience” – that is why the basic questions are:

- What do you think about the audience, how we define our audience?
- Will the content they plan to expose their audience to be appealing?
- Will the audience be attracted by our content? If so, why (and vice versa)?” (2012, pp. 77-78).

Change in the approach of media organization is emerging as a necessity. A good part of the changes needs to engage the creation of different editorial concepts. It is also necessary, as pointed out, to replace the concept of control with the concept focused on engagement and interaction, and management must focus more specifically on development. Amy Kovac-Ashley from *American Press Institute* notes that “it is important to realize what journalists want to learn, as well as what the newsroom is necessary to know and do in terms of how to organize its work in the right way, but the trouble lays in the fact that there is less time for such, more comprehensive approach” (2017). Therefore, many advocate for the idea that the way to establish a new model of media is a key issue for the success of management. The theme of management responsibility, however, is often marginalized, which is the main thesis of the research conducted in this text, confirmed in many parts of it.

When it comes to Serbia, examples are even drastic. The media, however, do not gain much for itself from such work. Those benefits are reserved to those who control the media, directly or indirectly, not caring much for their long-term status in the market. It is also not clear whether the Serbian media meet the current challenges with a readiness to respond to them. In addition, it is questionable to what extent their key players can adapt to the new context of work in a situation of exposure to the strong influence from different external factors. Unfortunately, we must conclude that the small number of media recognizes the importance of these notes. Those who have realized this have been able to fight for a stable public, which, apparently, is the only long-term reliable support for their survival.

The main task of the media today is to try, despite all difficulties, to examine the changes and achievements from different editorial concept and media business model and form a model of media work that has a perspective in current circumstances. Globally, we can also easily notice a declining number of media that are able to adapt and fight at least for maintaining their current position in the changed circumstances, in which the financial profit in the media market levy to those originally "non-media" actors, such as "Google" and "Facebook". Those examples are, therefore, worthy of specific analysis. Rick Edmonds analyses such examples, by seeing *The New York Times* as one of them, where "the number of subscribers to the digital platform (website) exceeds those who buy the print edition (in double), but where nearly 70 percent of total revenues continues to be earned from a print" (According to the Poynter Institute, 2017). Another example is *USA Today*, and that is why Kaiser Marty indicates (the ratio of Ron Smith, its editor-in-chief, related to their challenges: "he admits that he is intolerant to those who are not ready to work continuously on their self-improvement in order to be a part of the modern media streams, since the technology allows media to reach a larger audience — it is necessary, therefore, to conclude that the survival depends on everyone in the media industry: 'those who have the greatest responsibility are not people with fancy titles and offices, but those who create the spirit of community, encourage creativity and make the work done in the best way' — it is necessary to learn from mistakes, and he is trying to follow something he called "The three C's tactics", which means communication, community and creativity, which, he believes, is essential" (According to the Poynter Institute, 2017). He is aware that you cannot control everything, but to strive to be a leader with integrity. However, he is also aware that it is not possible to work without fault, nor is it necessary, but that the essence of good governance is constant training that should lead to reducing mistakes to a minimum.

CONCLUSION

It seems quite certain that behind each of these positive examples standing serious knowledge of the media market and changes in it — basically, it is an issue of adequate media management and trained and professional staff, especially those in the most responsible positions. Long ago, Underwood noted "negative trend of publishing 'light' content that could cause the collapse of the values for which the generations of journalists fought," because it is clear, by analyzing the operation of large media corporations that dominated the media market back then, that they "were following their request for high profits and so-called reader-friendly journalism, which actually bind the hands of journalists and turn the direction of information to the creation of another kind of socially

useless content” (1993, p. 88). Unhappy with these trends, he stressed “the importance of understanding of the real situation and economic conditions for the media, questioning the growing impact of economic pressures, changing patterns of media management and business, as well as the impact of global trends and morality of employees” (Underwood, 1993, p. 88).

However, the market is proving that there are media that have, with more or less success, endured the test of time. Some have been here for decades and some of them are fully self-sufficient, while many, especially in Serbia, still are, in truth, alive mostly thanks to the help of the state and its institutions (primarily as an advertiser). In Serbia, certain commercial media with less tradition also prove their “toughness” in the current era, with all its characteristics described above, which are discouraging for the operation of traditional media models. Zoran Panović estimates that it is difficult to “invent hot water” and a universal solution that would guarantee the survival of all media — that is why it is a matter of everyone individually to find their “secret spice,” which is often inexplicable, but can help them to survive (According to Penezić, 2018). We show that such “secret spice” is hiding mainly in the functioning of the media management that has a special responsibility to bridge the gap between the demands of professional journalism and the demands of advertisers and market, guiding the functioning of modern media. Bridging the gap can be a matter of an understanding of global change and the real market range, as well as the importance of building the integrity of the media and media employees. It represents the main feature of that “spice”. Although it is not the same for all, it can mean a finding of a strategy for survival in these unstable, but also exciting, global media context, for all of them who practice it in all its variations.

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КРИЗА МЕДИЈА КАО МЕРА ОДГОВОРНОСТИ ЗАПОСЛЕНИХ У МЕДИЈИМА

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Резиме

Бројни изазови и проблеми с којима се медији суочавају последњих година, а који су узроковали и нестанак многих од њих – подстакли су и дијагнозу о њиховој глобалној кризи. Такво стање приморало је многе медијске практичаре и теоретичаре да се замисле над ситуацијом и активно раде на њеном тумачењу и проналаску стратегија за опстанак. Многе од њих, међутим, не доносе успех, већ само увећавају проблем, јер у средишту имају мере које значе отклон од изворне новинарске улоге и квалитетног извештаја. Стога се преокретање те логике намеће и као одговор на нагомилане проблеме и покушај изласка из кризе. На тај начин, наглашава се и важност одговорности запослених у медијима, а посебно оних који њима управљају – медијског менаџмента, односно њиховог приступа и медијског садржаја као његове последице. Фокус овог текста стога је на осветљавању тог, често неоправдано занемареног, контекста указивањем на његову важност, а стога и на могућности формулисања модела који би омогућили дугорочнију стабилност медија данас.

Питање адаптације медија на актуелне изазове, с обзиром на неспорну важност коју имају у друштву, с правом је означено као изузетно важно. Неуспеси у таквим настојањима за резултат су имали кризу медија, која је, пре свега за многе тзв. традиционалне медије,² означила и крај. У овим околностима, шира јавност, али и бројни доказани експерти, кризу медија изједначавају и с кризом новинарства и кривце траже у новинарима. То је, како извесно можемо закључити, непотпуно тумачење, јер се, како многи упозоравају (Cole, 2004; Chan-Olmsted, 2006; Redmond, 2007...), пажња најпре мора усмерити ка улози оних који диктирају медијско функционисање – менаџменту, њиховој компетентности, одговорности и свести о изазовима.

Наиме, с правом се упозорава на то да актуелна криза суштински представља неуспех менаџмента (власници, директори, уредници) да у новим околностима пронађе моделе организације рада и пословања медија који би били адекватан одговор на њих (Беговић, 2002; Gade, 2004...). Стога се поставља и питање шта можемо закључити из рада медија, посматрајући како они који њима руководе (менаџмент) реагују на промене и проблеме. Једна од круцијалних тема данас је свакако то како економски услови у одређеној средини утичу на њихову улогу и то како, примера ради, менаџмент мотивише своје запослене да професионално обављају свој посао у условима све мањих и нередовних новчаних примања. Неопходно је зато прво анализирати рад менаџмента. То може показати који проблеми утичу на управљање медијима, али оставити и простор да наведу и другачије перспективе. Примери успешних и мање успешних модела су и практично корисни, јер могу показати и могућности за позитивну промену.

² Термин „традиционални” означава медије настале пре појаве тзв. нових медија, који почивају на интернет технологијама и стога су део тзв. дигиталних заједница формираних са развојем интернета.

THE REPRESENTATION OF THE NATO BOMBING OF YUGOSLAVIA IN FOREIGN ARTISTIC AND MASS MEDIA TEXTS: UNJUSTIFIED WAR OR JUSTIFIED INTERVENTION?

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Abstract

In addition to scientific and historical accounts, artistic and media texts also construct stories of significant events, thus constructing ideologically charged narratives of present and past events. These narratives can become official versions of the past that shape collective memory and identity. Unlike history books, which are written with a greater time distance, media and artistic texts directly influence the formation of narratives about current events and therefore the self-confidence and self-understanding of the collective. Based on an interest in the question of how identity is formed in today's Serbia, this article deals with media and artistic texts that speak about one of the most significant events in Serbia's recent history - the NATO bombing of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Opinions about this event are divided, and the totality of information about the bombing seems unknowable. To establish a more objective approach to this issue, the images of the bombing created by foreign media and artists are analyzed from the point of view of Memory Studies and through theories of arts and media (Assmann, Hartman, Felman, Laub, Kuljić), primarily using content and linguistic discourse analysis (Foucault, Spitzmüller, Warnke). The analysis has shown that most of the analyzed media texts justify the bombing, while all artworks criticize and condemn it. This has led us to the conclusion that the bombing wasn't justified, and that media texts on the subject served as political propaganda. In other words, artistic texts have a greater potential for social and political criticism than the media.

Key words: NATO bombing of FRY, arts and media, memory studies, German press, humanitarian interventions.

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РЕПРЕЗЕНТАЦИЈА НАТО БОМБАРДОВАЊА ЈУГОСЛАВИЈЕ У МЕЂУНАРОДНИМ УМЕТНИЧКИМ И МЕДИЈСКИМ ТЕКСТОВИМА: НЕОПРАВДАНИ РАТ ИЛИ ОПРАВДАНА ИНТЕРВЕНЦИЈА?

Апстракт

Поред историјских, уметнички и медијски текстови стварају приче о значајним догађајима и производе одређене идеолошки обликоване наративе који постају значајне верзије прошлости. Те верзије обликују колективно сећање и идентитет. Док су историјски уџбеници писани с већом временском дистанцом, медији и уметнички текстови формирају наративе о недавним догађајима и зато утичу на тренутно саморазумевање колектива. Полазећи од интересовања за питање формирања колективног идентитета у савременој Србији, овај чланак се бави медијским и уметничким текстовима који говоре о једном од најзначајнијих догађаја у њеној новијој историји – НАТО бомбардовању Савезне Републике Југославије. Мишљења о овом догађају су изузетно подељена, а бројне чињенице о бомбардовању су и даље непознате. Да би се успоставио што објективнији приступ теми бомбардовања и питању његове оправданости, у раду су анализирани инострани медијски и уметнички текстови о бомбардовању. Показано је да већина анализираних медијских текстова оправдава бомбардовање, док га већина уметничких текстова критикује и осуђује, што не доводи до закључка да је бомбардовање оправдано, него да су медијски текстови служили у сврхе политичке пропаганде. Другим речима, показано је да уметнички текстови имају више потенцијала за друштвено-политичку критику од медијских. У раду се анализира приказ оружаног напада НАТО-а на Савезну Републику Југославију 1999. године са становишта студија сећања и теорије уметности и медија (Асман, Хартман, Фелман, Лауб, Куљић), и то путем анализе садржаја и лингвистичке анализе дискурса (Фуко, Шпицмиллер, Варнке).

Кључне речи: НАТО бомбардовање Југославије, уметност и медији, студије сећања, немачка штампа, хуманитарне интервенције.

INTRODUCTION

The NATO bombing of Yugoslavia is a very significant event in the recent history of Yugoslavia and Serbia, however - due to many factors (and primarily due to confusing interpretations and the current process of Euro and NATO integration of Serbia), it has been suppressed by “policies of forgetting” (Conerton). There has been no

(...) serious public problematization and critical analysis of this stage in recent history. While the victims of the bombing seek at least "recognition that we were at war" because they believe that this fact is being denied, society is taking no serious action on the issue. The exact number of victims is unknown, and no scientific research has been done to address the economic, psychological and any other consequences” (Mihaljinac, 2019a: 47).

Apart from the lack of an official list of casualties, there is no consensus on whether the victims can be referred to as collateral damage. On the other hand, numerous participants were accused of the crimes – Mi-

lošević, Clinton, Serbs, Americans, the European Union, NATO countries and the economic elite, which means that no party claimed responsibility for the bombing. Thus, neither victims nor perpetrators are defined by any legal process. Therefore, the bombing does not have a clear status, and based only on the range of titles used to denote the 1999 airstrikes - from military aggression to humanitarian intervention - it can be concluded that there are conflicting opinions and interpretations. There are multiple (official and unofficial) answers to the question of who is responsible for the intervention and several explanations of what the real cause of the bombing was: for example, preventing Milošević from committing crimes or introducing capitalism into a socialist country that resisted economic changes. Sadly, it is currently impossible to access all the relevant facts and comprehensive data about the bombing and make it public.

To examine this topic in greater detail and maintain an ongoing debate, this paper addresses the issue of the justification of the NATO bombing of Yugoslavia. In addition to that, it deals with the question of the reliability of sources from which one can gain some insight into various arguments on this topic. When it comes to current events, these are primarily media and artistic texts, as well as public speeches by intellectuals (which are usually conveyed through media). That is why this paper is a continuation of two studies completed in 2019; one dealing with the topic of the representation of the NATO bombing in the arts, and the other dealing with the representation of the NATO bombing in media. The first one is a doctorate thesis by Nina Mihaljinac, which analyses about 160 artworks on the topic of the bombing whose authors are both artists from Serbia and abroad (*Arts and Politics of Remembrance: the trauma of 1999.*), and the other is a research done by Andjela Vujošević, which analyzes the image of Serbia during the NATO bombing period in the German and Serbian media, more precisely in the Serbian weekly magazine *NIN* and the German magazine *Spiegel* (*Serbia in the German and Serbian press - linguistic discourse analysis*).

Media and artistic texts have been treated as historical sources, and the subject of the analysis is limited to foreign authors – both artists and journalists, in order to ensure a more objective approach. The paper has two goals – the first one is to present and analyze the content of selected texts on the topic of justification for the bombing (for which discourse analysis methods have been used); the second is to explore the critical potential of media and art texts as historical sources, i.e. sources through which the events they deal with can be critically and objectively viewed (for which theoretical analysis has been used in the field of memory studies). The hypothesis states that the bombing was neither legally nor morally justified, however, the foreign (German) media predominantly produced an affirmative narrative about it, as opposed to artworks – which

not only criticized the bombing, but also pointed to the problems of media propaganda and the media war that has been waged on this intervention.

*WHO CAN TELL:
UNJUSTIFIED WAR OR JUSTIFIED INTERVENTION*

The justification of the so-called humanitarian interventions is debated not only in the case of the NATO bombing of the FRY but also in other cases. For example, Fajri Matahati Muhammadin in an article on intervention in Libya states:

The legality of humanitarian intervention has been debated for a long time, both on the level of scholarly works and inter-state politics. Most of the debates surround the sources of international law (international conventions, customary international law, etc.) or functions of the UN or the politics or a combination thereof” (Muhammadin, 2018, p. 70).

In our language, the lexeme “responsibility” is primarily defined as a sense of obligation and an awareness of duty (Dictionary of the Serbian language, 2011). This issue is inevitable when talking about the NATO bombing of the FRY because the intervention was carried out without the consent of the UN Security Council, and it represents a violation of the NATO charter, which states that NATO interventions are justified only if one of the NATO countries is attacked. The bombing is also considered unjustified because of negative consequences such as civilian casualties, destruction of military and aerospace industries in Yugoslavia, displacement of peoples, and danger to human health.

NATO, on the other hand, made its official statement, i.e. that the bombing was justified because of the threat to peace in the region. Just War theory of St. Augustine lays down certain principles about the ethics of war, above all that the achievement of peace is the only justifiable goal of war (Krempf, 2004, p. 36-37). The bombing act was justified by stating that it represented the prevention of a humanitarian catastrophe, genocide, and ethnic cleansing, the protection of human rights and minorities, as well as the removal and abolition of the regime of Slobodan Milosevic.

By filing a lawsuit with the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia in Hague, the Serbian side tried to prove the guilt of the instigators of the action and seek them to take responsibility for their actions, especially for the civilian casualties (RTS bombing). However, the court (whose work is also largely questioned) rejected to investigate this case, therefore neither side has officially taken responsibility.

Code-named *Operation Allied Force*, the campaign resulted in the deaths of approximately 500 innocent civilians while injuring more than 800 others. Both the number of casualties and the

circumstances in which they occurred gave rise to the question of whether NATO forces had committed war crimes and should be held criminally responsible for their actions before the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia ("ICTY"). Many viewed the incidents as sufficiently serious for an investigation to be conducted by the Tribunal. However, on June 2, 2000, after considering her team's assessment of NATO's conduct in the campaign, the Prosecutor of the ICTY, Carla del Ponte, who had taken over for former Prosecutor Louise Arbour on September 15, 1999, concluded "that there [was] no basis for opening an investigation into any of the allegations or into other incidents related to the NATO air campaign. While conceding that some mistakes were made by NATO, the Prosecutor nevertheless announced that she was "satisfied that there was no deliberate targeting of civilians or unlawful military targets by NATO during the campaign." 5 The decision by the Prosecutor of the Tribunal not to investigate, while favorably welcomed by NATO members and some writers, 6 generated strong and persistent criticism from the majority of scholars, 7 who questioned the Prosecutor's impartiality and expressed their suspicions that political rather than legal considerations, had influenced her decision" (Massa, 2006: 611).

Accordingly, popular views, views of citizens, politicians, artists, scientists, and other public figures were divided, both in Serbia and beyond. For example, on one hand, when asked: Was the NATO intervention in Kosovo and Metohija justified? Google's search engine provides the answer:

Yes, NATO's defense of Kosovo was long and costly, but it was certainly justified. ... "The first [myth] is that, in Kosovo, war constituted a morally simple conflict, between aggressive Serbs and victimized Kosovar Albanians" (Google Answers, 30.03.2011.).

On the other hand, according to Noam Chomsky, one of the most important contemporary thinkers, there are no doubts about the true causes and responsibility for the deed, and he states that all evidence can be found in the official documentation to claim that

(...) the real aim of that war had nothing to do with worry for Kosovo Albanians. The real reason is that Serbia did not carry out the required social and economic reforms, which means that it was the last corner of Europe that did not obey US-led neoliberal programs, so it had to be removed" (Chomsky, 2006).

The whole issue of divided opinions was written in the magazine *Vreme* under the heading *Why we quarreled about the bombing (Zašto smo se posvađali oko bombardovanja, Vreme, 2009)*.

Which or whose version of the bombing will be remembered is uncertain. However, in a time of different struggles for memory, where mul-

multiple groups of participants take part in this process, “writing history today is understood as a process of constructing collective identities in which all can participate equally, so this field has been found alongside historians other “memory actors” - artists, journalists, curators, social activists, cultural policymakers, foreign policymakers and others” (Mihaljinac 2019a: 30). Artists and works of art that bear witness to important political and historical events such as wars have the chance to open up new, alternative, critical versions of memories over official ones. According to one of the leading memory theorists, Geoffrey Hartman, intellectuals and artists are special kinds of witnesses whose professions involve them raising and debating issues of public importance:

I believe that literature and art have always served to create forms of representations that open the blocked paths of truth transmission hidden in memory” (Hartman, 2006, p. 2).

The artistic intellect, associated with the testimonial imperative, plays an extremely important role in the recording and transmission of traumatic experience. Traumatic experience needs a medium that will provide a longer duration of memory than the human mind can provide. Art and communicative memory in interaction can achieve this goal.” (Hartman, 2006: 4).

Shoshana Felman and Dori Laub advocated the idea that trauma deconstructs the typical distinction between fiction and facts, insisting that the (distorted, imprecise, constructed) “truth” of the artist-witness is a legitimate (and perhaps more significant) historical statement (Felman, Laub, 1992). On the other side, Hayden White in the book *Metahistory: The Historical Imagination of Nineteenth-century Europe* writes that any text of a historian can be read as fiction (White, 1975).

In addition to artists, contemporary theorists have recognized journalists as intellectual witnesses. Sue Tiat, in the article *Bearing Witness, Journalism and Moral Responsibility* writes that journalists have to respond and convey testimony about traumatic events (Tiat, 2011).

MEDIA TEXTS

There has been much debate about foreign media coverage of the NATO bombing and the attack of the media, creating the first internet war based on public discord and scientific analysis. Nikola Živković in his book *How Do Others See Us? The Image of the Serbs in the German Media 1990-2000* (2003) thematizes the presentation of the civil war in Yugoslavia in the German press, radio and television, and the dissertation of Stefan Krempf: *Media, Internet, War: the example of Kosovo* (2004) deals with the analysis of the role of the media in the Kosovo war in articles by the German magazine *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, the *New York Times* and the public discourse of the *nettime* mailing list. Slobodan Vuković in

his book *Serbs in the Narrative of the West* (2018) portrays a negative image in the public discourse about the breakup of Yugoslavia and its epilogue in the form of the NATO bombing, using excerpts and illustrations from the British, German, Austrian and American press, and explains that this negative image has been used to justify NATO aggression against FRY. *Staging a Justified War? Intellectuals, Media and the Kosovo War 1999* (1999) is a book by historian Kurt Gritsch in which the author problematizes the war in Kosovo and Metohija and characterizes it as a turning point after 1945, when Germany was involved in combat operations outside its area for the first time. In his book *War of Words - Power of Images: Manipulation or Truth in the Kosovo Conflict?* (2001), Walter Jertz's focuses on NATO's bombing of the FRY, highlighting the importance of the media and the Internet contemporary conflict. "The Kosovo conflict became the first Internet war, with all aspects of disseminating information and propaganda through e-mails and websites" (Vallen, 2007). According to Mitrović and Miljković:

in addition to turning to the Internet for propaganda purposes, it also served for carrying out operations in cyberspace in the form of distributed denial of Service attacks (DDoS)" (Mitrović, Miljković, 2018, p. 1367).

This paper focuses on the reporting of the German media, more specifically the German magazine *Spiegel*, which is considered one of the leading media outlets in Germany with a very strong international reputation and reach. This magazine and the German-speaking region were chosen first because Germany, as the richest European country, had a strong political influence and, consequently, did much to form the public opinion in Europe. Also, the German authorities were then tasked with getting their public to participate in the NATO aggression (Vuković, 2018, p. 177–183), which was not easy since the participation in the NATO bombing of FRY was the first military intervention by German forces since World War II. This paper analyzed thirty-nine thematically relevant newspaper articles published during the period of the NATO bombing. Founded in 1947, *Spiegel* magazine published articles in defense of German foreign policy and their involvement in the NATO aggression against the FRY, despite the personal attitude of the Editor-in-Chief Rudolf Augstein who judged and criticized this action. The loudest advocate of the NATO bombing at that time was the magazine's cultural editor, Reinhard Mohr, and despite the disagreements, approval by the intellectual majority and justification of the bombing by representing supporters of the intervention and their views were realized in *Spiegel* articles.

The magazine selected as the subject of the paper discusses Germany's foreign policy and its role in intervention. Kurt Gritsch (2010) lists the names and reasons for and against the bombing, as well as a quantitative view of the *Spiegel* magazine interviews, which noted that

intellectuals and journalists did not support the NATO aggression, while politicians with their various arguments did. He cites some of the reasons for the bombing: protection of Albanians from Kosovo and Metohija, intervention against extreme nationalism, the necessity of NATO intervention over failed Rambouillet negotiations, as well as some of the reasons against NATO bombing: ambiguity of the political goals of the intervention, interference with the internal politics of a sovereign state or violation of international law (Gritsch, 2010, p. 84–91).

Article 26 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany of 1949 states that all acts which hinder the free life of the population, such as the preparation and execution of a military attack, are unconstitutional and punishable. (Grundgesetz für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland, 1949). By participating in NATO's military intervention, Germany as a member of the NATO forces violated their constitution, but the German media reporting on the "new Holocaust" in Kosovo and Metohija, compared Milošević with Hitler and Stalin and wrote about the collective guilt of the Serbian people, equating the people with the president Slobodan Milošević. All of this contributed to the formation of a collective consciousness that Serbia's intention was the destruction of the Albanian population. German public opinion was therefore based on an analogy between Serbs and Nazi Germany, that they fought against another Hitler (Glišović, 2001, p. 192–197).

The image of Serbia as the enemy was constructed in the German press for a long time before the NATO bombing of 1999, where it had been portrayed as the aggressor, enemy and trigger of the conflicts in the Balkans (Vuković, 2018, p. 20–25; Vujčić, 2019, p. 353–355).

In the following examples found in *Spiegel* magazine we can see the argumentation both in favour of and opposed to NATO bombing:

Approval of NATO bombing

– “We have no choice but to end the killing in Kosovo, Chancellor Gerhard Schroeder defended the military punitive action, like most of his Social Democrat counterparts in the squadron of the Falcons.”¹

(*Spiegel* 13/99 – Alle Serben im Krieg)

– “Sharping: Everyone in the government had scruples. However, to prevent a humanitarian catastrophe in Kosovo, we had no other choice.”²

(*Spiegel* 13/99 – Alle hatten Skrupel)

¹ „Wir haben keine andere Wahl, um das Morden im Kosovo zu beenden, verteidigte Bundeskanzler Gerhard Schröder die militärische Strafaktion, wie die meisten seiner sozialdemokratischen Amtskollegen im Geschwader der Falken.“ Translated by the authors.

² „Sharping: Alle in der Regierung hatten Skrupel. Um eine humanitäre Katastrophe im Kosovo zu verhindern, blieb uns jedoch keine andere Wahl.“

– “*Not for territory, we fight for values*, said British Prime Minister Tony Blair.”³

(*Spiegel* 17/99 – Krieg für das gute Gewissen)

– “Solana: *This is not a war in the classical sense. We do not want to occupy the land, secure raw materials or open up new trade routes. This war is about values and about the moral constitution of that Europe in which we will live in the 21st century.*”⁴

(*Spiegel* 18/99 – Wir sollten stolz auf uns sein)

– “But the intellectuals were silent - except for Günter Grass, who greeted the NATO attack in a few words, but at the same time criticized it as half-hearted and belated.”⁵ (*Spiegel* 15/99 – Krieg der Köpfe)

NATO bombing in selected *Spiegel* articles is realized as an action to prevent the Serbs from exterminating and killing Albanians in Kosovo and Metohija and is therefore justified. The conflict in Kosovo and Metohija in 1999 and the activities of the Serbian army are compared to the events during the regime of Adolf Hitler, and are used to justify the bombing, characterizing it as a positive action to prevent the situation from worsening. Justification is also claimed by citing Javier Solana and Tony Blair's views on the bombing as being part of a war being fought over values and morals; preventing the killing, extermination and genocide by Serb forces. In this way, a message was sent to readers that the bombing was an inevitable action to improve the situation in Kosovo and Metohija.

Disapproval of NATO bombing

– “It was also a turning point for German foreign policy because, for the first time since the end of the Second World War, German soldiers participated in an attack on another state with their Tornados. And this, of all things, in the Balkans, where especially the Serbs associate their worst memories with the invasion of Hitler's troops.”⁶

(*Spiegel* 13/99 – Alle Serben im Krieg)

³ „Nicht um Territorium, um Wertekämpfen wir, formulierte der britische Premier Tony Blair.“

⁴ „Solana: *Dies ist kein Krieg im klassischen Sinn. Wir wollen kein Land besetzen, keine Rohstoffe sichern oder neue Handelswege öffnen. Dieser Krieg wird um Werte und um die moralische Verfassung jenes Europas geführt, in dem wir im 21. Jahrhundert leben werden.*“

⁵ „Die Intellektuellen aber schwiegen - mit Ausnahme von Günter Grass, der den Nato-Angriff in knappen Worten begrüßte, ihn aber zugleich als halbherzig und verspätet kritisierte.“

⁶ „Es war eine Zäsur auch für die deutsche Außenpolitik, denn erstmals seit Ende des Zweiten Weltkriegs beteiligten sich deutsche Soldaten mit ihren „Tornados“ an einem Angriff auf einen anderen Staat. Und dies ausgerechnet auf dem Balkan, wo sich besonders bei den Serben mit dem Einmarsch von Hitlers Truppen übelste Erinnerungen verbinden.“

– “According to Belgrade, the result of this criminal NATO aggression by the end of last week was more than 1,000 dead and 4,000 seriously injured civilians and the destruction of 7 bridges, 22 cultural monuments, including a monastery, 9 railway stations, 7 airports, several thousand factories, and residential buildings. Total damage: over 180 billion marks.”⁷

(*Spiegel* 16/99 – Ziellos und traumatisiert)

– “There are only two written exceptions to the oath of war codified at the end of World War II: the right of an attacked state to defend itself and the military compulsory measures against peace hunters to protect world peace by order of the Security Council.”⁸

(*Spiegel* 17/99 – Krieg für das gute Gewissen)

The disapproval of NATO bombing in selected articles is realized by stating the consequences and results of the bombing, such as civilian casualties or infrastructure. Thus, in the minds of the readers, NATO bombing is realized as a negative action. It then points out that war is justified only in two cases – either as the right of the attacked state to defend itself or measures of military coercion undertaken to protect world peace at the behest of the Security Council. Since the bombing is neither of these two cases, it should be considered unjustified and condemned; the Milošević regime did not aim at genocide or endangering world peace, so the comparison of the Kosovo war with World War II is exaggerated.

ARTISTIC TEXTS

According to the research *Art and Politics of Remembrance: the Trauma of 1999*, which mapped over 150 artworks on the subject of the NATO bombing, about 40% of the authors cited came from countries outside Serbia (Mihaljinac, 2019a, p. 240) which shows that the bombing was an almost equally relevant topic to artists from the international community as it was to those from Serbia. When looking at the corpus of these artworks, it is easy to conclude that the dominant position of the international art community was a critical orientation towards the bombing, and most often at the same time against the policies of NATO and Milošević.

⁷ „Laut Belgrad waren das Ergebnis dieser kriminellen Nato-Aggression bis Ende voriger Woche über 1000 Tote und 4000 Schwerverletzte unter der Zivilbevölkerung sowie die Zerstörung von 7 Brücken, 22 Kulturdenkmälern, darunter ein Kloster, 9 Bahnhöfe, 7 Flughäfen, mehrere tausend Fabriken und Wohngebäude. Gesamtschäden: über 180 Milliarden Mark.“

⁸ „Von dem am Ende des Zweiten Weltkriegs kodifizierten Schwur „Nie wieder Krieg“ gibt es nur zwei geschriebene Ausnahmen: das Recht eines angegriffenen Staats auf Verteidigung und die militärischen Zwangsmaßnahmen gegen Friedensstörer zum Schutz des Weltfriedens auf Anordnung des Sicherheitsrates.“

The largest international art project-reaction to the bombing and the war in Kosovo and Metohija, entitled: *Stop the Violence*, came from Western Europe. It was an initiative from the professors of the Vienna Academy of Arts Carl Pruscha, Michael Benedict, Gerhard Botz, Gerda Buxbaum and Leopold Specht, which brought together more than 30 artists from Albania, Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Hungary, Austria, the Scandinavian countries, USA, Australia and other countries in the world (among them Robert Adrian, Dara Birnbaum, Manfred Butzmann, Gunter Damisch, Gjelosh Gjokaj, Jenny Holzer, IRWIN group, Robert Jankuloski, Svetlana Kopystiansky, Brigitte Kowanz, Visar Mulliqi, Oswald Oberhuber, Raymond Pettibon, Nancy Spero, Klaus Staeck, Zaneta Vangeli, Lawrence Weiner, Otto Zitko). An exhibition of anti-war posters was organized in cooperation with the Austrian Museum of Contemporary Art MAK and the Faculty of Fine Arts in Belgrade. It was staged in Vienna, Belgrade, Tirana, Sarajevo, Budapest and Berlin. Expressing concern that "every new day of the war will harm Europe's cultural self-understanding and understanding of its fundamental assumptions" (Pruscha, 1999), a group of professors at the Academy of Arts in Vienna decided to make a public request

(...) to immediately suspend the expulsion of the Albanian population from Kosovo, unconditionally interrupt all aspects of the war and launch peace agreements at the UN level" (Pruscha, 1999).

Artworks produce a large spectrum of narratives - from accusations and ironical statements to narratives of anxiety and apocalypse to pacifist narratives with universal symbols of peace. A key focus of the *Stop the Violence* project was its commitment to respect human rights, which were under threat by the false rhetoric of the humanitarian war and its deadly outcomes.

In addition to this project, the reaction of one of the world's most famous curators, Harald Szeemann, was significant for stimulating public debate on the subject of the NATO bombing in international artistic and wider circles. Szeemann included in the international selection of the Venice Biennale in 1999 videos by two female Serbian artists dealing with the trauma of war and the bombing (*To Be* by Tanja Ristovski and *Wash Me and I'll be Whiter than Snow* by Vesna Vesić). Two years later, on the occasion of the opening of the Real Presence exhibition in Belgrade, Szeemann said:

While preparing for the 1999 Venice Biennale, I remember that the bombing of Belgrade stopped the night before the opening. We were all relieved. Now that I'm participating in the opening of Real Presence ... I saw what intelligent and stupid bombs did to the city in 1999" (Szeemann, 2001).

The motif of the destroyed city is also present in the video titled *Bouncing Skull* by the famous Italian artist Paolo Canevarri, which was

presented in the international selection of Venice Biennale in 2007. The video shows a teenager playing with a human skull in the middle of a bombed-out building of the General staff in Belgrade, as he would with a regular ball in an ordinary yard. According to the artist:

The NATO bombing represents a wound in Europe; it was absurd that NATO countries decided to bomb the city. I visited Belgrade after the bombing and was shocked by the ruins and the fact that the destroyed buildings looked like monuments in the middle of the city” (Canevarri, 2014).

Since it represents a metaphor for the NATO bombing, a war taking place on the European land, the dazzling image of a boy kicking a skull instead of a ball and doing it on the rubble instead of in the yard - can be interpreted as a vicious picture of only a seemingly peaceful and stable Europe.

One of the most well-known contemporary Albanian artists, Anri Sala, also reacted to the bombing with a video named *Natural Mystic* (2002). The work raises the subject of ideological repression and biopolitics, i.e. practices of subordination and disciplining of the body in the modern technocratic society. The work shows a studio recording of a man who, with astonishing accuracy, almost mysteriously and uncannily imitates a “Tomahawk” missile sound. This is a man who survived the NATO bombing and who materialized the trauma of survival in sound. To be able to reproduce the sound of a Tomahawk, he had to be continuously exposed to the sound of the bomb, which means he was in a life-threatening position. Thus, the sound appears as a traumatic element of reality, an element that creates a sense of fear; that mobilizes and subjugates the body. From the point of view of Foucault's biopolitical theories, and especially from the point of view of the term *panopticon* (a type of prison with an “all-seeing” central position from which the guards can supervise prisoners while they cannot be seen from below), the bombing is shown as a force that subjugates people. According to the theorist Patricia Clough, “this sonic waste of war has been imposed as a form of rhythmic violent bio-control by the bodies of citizens” (Clough, 2013, p.10).

Another prominent Albanian author, Sokol Beqiri, has also produced artwork on the subject of the bombing called *When Angels Are Late* (2001). The theme of the work is Albanian and Muslim casualties, and the work deconstructs the propaganda discourse of the rescue mission of the bombing as the action of a guardian angel, accusing NATO of “delaying” intervention. A similar thesis about the delayed reaction was elaborated by Žižek in the text *Not yet ENOUGH Bombs and they are TOO LATE*. According to art historian Boynik,

Western intervention, which brings freedom and saves Kosovars from trauma, is portrayed in Beqiri's work as an angel, which is actually an ironic name for NATO intervention, always presented within the religious discourse of war between ultimate evil and good" (Boynik, 2008, p. 29).

Artworks produced in neighboring countries often deal with the relationship between Western countries and Eastern Europe, so they can be situated in the fields of geopolitics, post-colonial criticism and criticism of nationalism and Balkanization. This paradigm of art is visible in *Landing* by Dan Perjovschi, one of the most significant contemporary Romanian artists. He realized his artistic engagement as a series of fast reactions (drawings) to a variety of socio-political events in Europe, mainly on the subject of the Red Scare (fear of communism), so that the NATO bombing of Yugoslavia has become one of the themes of his works. A drawing from the *Landing* series, called *I was bitten by a Serbian Mosquito*, created in 1999, was published during the bombing in the local Serbian newspaper *Danas*, as well as in Luxembourg's *Land - Luxemburg* weekly, and was subsequently included in the collection of the Museum of Contemporary Art in Belgrade. As Perjovschi states:

It was important for me to blame the Milosevic regime, but also the EU, and not just concentrate on the US. I was also interested in how someone who went deep into the war on (Muslim) terror could be on the side of Muslim Kosovo ... My (very ironic) question was: If a Serb mosquito bites me, do I immediately become a villain? I think the EU is pretty fucked up, and the fact that Serbia is not an EU member today is unacceptable" (Perjovschi, 2015).

Because Perjovschi's works often "focus on contradictions in sociopolitical metamorphoses" (Babias, 2015), the drawing *I was bitten by a Serbian Mosquito* critiques the dual repressive ideological action of the Milošević regime and the foreign Western policy regime towards Serbia.

When looking at the corpus of artworks by foreign artists, it can be concluded that they have been extremely critical of the bombing, pointing to the unwarrantedness of the intervention, with some - such as Beqiri - pointing to the false rhetoric of rescuing Albanians. It could be said that the bombing was a shock to the Europeans and the international community - who could not understand that at the threshold of the 21st century such a war was going on in Europe.

It should also be noted that many artists reacted against media propaganda during the bombing, and in Serbia there even occurred a movement called *media activism* which used the new media - Internet to deconstruct and criticize the language of old media - television.

Internet art production in Serbia in this period can be described as media activism, that is, as activism against official (old) media discourse, through the use of a new media.” (Mihaljinac, 2019b, p. 892).

NARRATION AND CRITICAL CULTURE OF REMEMBRANCE

Communities narrate and retell past events to establish shared values and shape collective identity. Nevertheless,

(...) in a global society where dominant narratives of the past and shared memory are tailor-made according to the needs of global transnational centers of power, especially thanks to global media services and platforms - the role of the state and its institutions in underdeveloped countries is greatly reduced. (Mihaljinac, 2019a, p. 30).

This also refers to individual critical voices. In other words, those with political power also have the power to impose official versions of the past in a top-down manner. As the old saying goes - history is written by winners. As this research has shown, the media play a very important role in this process when it comes to imposing narratives on the NATO bombing of Yugoslavia.

Still, opportunities for resistance and activism always exist. As long as practices of producing narratives of the past involve and reflect the struggle of many different voices, then one can speak of a critical culture of remembrance (Kuljić, 2006, p. 282), which is present in the case of the bombing. In other words, as long as "bottom-up memory" (Asman, 2011, p. 36) is produced, there is a chance to maintain the struggle for the past. Crucial actors in producing this memory are private individuals, especially those who are or put themselves in a position to publically raise their voices. Hartman calls these individuals intellectual witnesses, referring to the academic community and artists. Intellectual witnesses have to speak for those who are killed, oppressed or silenced. When it comes to the NATO bombing of FRY, it was precisely the artists who took the role of witnesses; who critically discussed official versions of the event which were constructed by media. According to Felman and Laub, in the circumstances of an outbreak of collective trauma, artists can take on “the role of a doctor who heals the history, which occurs in a form of an illness” (Felman, Laub, 1992, p. 45). Art can help by retelling stories from the past and placing them in a new context, which can prove to be a healing process. This is the basic postulate of narrative therapy. Narrative therapy assumes that the identities of individuals and collectives are formed through dominant stories about them, and the healing process involves rethinking old ideas, deconstructing the represented discourse, and constructing narratives that impede the healthy development of (collective) identity.

CONCLUSIONS

There is no consensus in the international community concerning the responsibility for the NATO bombing of FRY; which reflects the Hague tribunal's decision not to consider indictments against NATO for civilian casualties. The NATO interventions that followed the bombing of Yugoslavia also raised these issues - however, the centers of political power established the narrative that all these actions were legitimate missions for peace and stability.

In this paper, artworks on the topic of the bombing, done by international artists, as well as articles published by the leading German magazine Spiegel on this subject were analyzed. Of the 54 analyzed artworks by foreign artists - all have criticized the NATO bombing of FRY, calling it an unwarranted attack; an action that used the false rhetoric of humanitarian intervention but did not resolve internal conflicts. On the other hand, of the 39 articles in Spiegel that were published in the period between the 24 March to 10 June 1999, 65% of them justify the bombing by designating it as a humanitarian intervention. Despite the personal views of some journalists that the bombing was not justified, the media still overwhelmingly reported the justification of the intervention. This points to the fact that a great political influence was exerted on the media during the bombing. In other words, the Western media was a means of political propaganda during the bombing, and censorship as an instrument of media policy was predominant. Only the voices of individuals - academics, artists and individual journalists (on alternative media channels), as well as some politicians (though we did not deal with this in the paper), took a critical view of the bombing. This leads to the conclusion that the texts of the official state media, which support politically determined versions, cannot and should not be trusted until the voices of individuals - intellectual witnesses - have been taken into consideration. According to these voices, the NATO bombing was not a justifiable act.

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РЕПРЕЗЕНТАЦИЈА НАТО БОМБАРДОВАЊА ЈУГОСЛАВИЈЕ У МЕЂУНАРОДНИМ УМЕТНИЧКИМ И МЕДИЈСКИМ ТЕКСТОВИМА: НЕОПРАВДАНИ РАТ ИЛИ ОПРАВДАНА ИНТЕРВЕНЦИЈА?

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Резиме

НАТО бомбардовање СРЈ посматра се као заокрет у савременој историји Србије, догађај након којег су уследиле демократске промене, али и догађај с којим се повезују многе моралне дилеме о исправности и оправданости, што води ка различитим ставовима и виђењима бомбардовања. Мишљења о овом догађају изузетно су подељена, а истина о бомбардовању делује несазнатљиво. Да би се успоставио што објективнији приступ теми бомбардовања и питању његове оправданости, у раду су анализирани инострани медијски и уметнички текстови о бомбардовању и приказани су резултати два истраживања: Србија у српској и немачкој штампи – лингвистичка анализа дискурса (Вујошевић, 2019), Уметност и политике сећања: траума 1999. (Михаљинац, 2019). За потребе овог рада одабрани су немачки медији јер су немачке власти тада имале задатак да придобију своју јавност за учешће у НАТО агресији, што није било једноставно с обзиром на то да је учешће у НАТО бомбардовању СРЈ била прва војна интервенција немачких снага после Другог светског рата. Упркос личним ставовима бројних новинара да бомбардовање није оправдано, медији су ипак доминантно извештавали о оправданости интервенције, будући да је тај наратив подржавао званичне ставове политичара. То значи да су западни медији у рату били средство политичке пропаганде и да се доминантно користила цензура као инструмент медијске политике. НАТО бомбардовање у одабраном немачком медију окарактерисано је с једне стране као ак-

ција спречавања истребљења и убијања косовских Албанаца од српске стране, па се самим тим оправдава Сукоб на Косову 1999. године и деловање српске војске пореди се са дешавањима током режима Адолфа Хитлера, што оправдава бомбардовање као акцију која је извршена у циљу побољшања тадашње стварности, карактеришући је као позитивну акцију у циљу спречавања погоршања ситуације на Косову. С друге стране, у мањем броју текстова се наводе последице које је земља претрпела због бомбардовања, као што су цивилне жртве или инфраструктура. Када је реч о уметничким радовима иностраних уметника на тему бомбардовања (уметника Анрија Сале, Сокоља Бџирија, Дана Пержовског, Паола Каневарија, групе кустоса и уметника окупљених око пројекта Бечке академије уметности Стоп насиљу!!!) – сви критикују бомбардовање као неоправдан, насилан чин који користи лажну реторику хуманитарне интервенције. Дакле, показано је да већина анализираних медијских текстова оправдава бомбардовање, док га сви уметнички текстови критикују и осуђују, што доводи до закључка да уметнички текстови имају више потенцијала за друштвену критику од медијских. Уметници и уметничка дела која сведоче о битним политичким и историјским догађајима попут ратова имају шансу да отворе нове, алтернативне, критичке верзије сећања у односу на званичне.

ПЕДАГОГИЈА И ПСИХОЛОГИЈА
PEDAGOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY

КОХЛЕАРНИ ИМПЛАНТ: ИСКУСТВА РОДИТЕЉА ГЛУВЕ И НАГЛУВЕ ДЕЦЕ

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и рехабилитацију, Београд, Република Србија

Апстракт

У раду се испитују искуства родитеља глуве и наглуве деце која се односе на процес одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији, као и на њихово задовољство исходима кохлеарне имплантације. Испитивање је извршено на узорку од 77 испитаника оба пола, чија се деца рехабилитују у „Дечијој кући” КБЦ Звездара у Београду, као и у школама за глуву и наглуву децу у Крагујевцу, Суботици и Нишу. За потребе истраживања коришћен је упитник под називом *Деца са кохлеарним имплантима: перспективе родитеља (Children with Cochlear Implants: Parental Perspectives)*. Резултати истраживања указују на то да су родитељи имали умерене тешкоће у процесу одлучивања за кохлеарну имплантацију, као и да су умерено задовољни исходима имплантације. Са процесом одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији није повезана старост њихове деце нити узраст када им је уграђен кохлеарни имплант, иако обе наведене варијабле корелирају са задовољством родитеља исходима имплантације.

Кључне речи: родитељи, оштећење слуха, кохлеарни имплант, глува и наглува деца, рехабилитација.

COCHLEAR IMPLANT: EXPERIENCES OF PARENTS OF DEAF AND HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

Abstract

The paper examines the experiences of parents of deaf and hard of hearing children related to the decision-making process about the cochlear implant, as well as their satisfaction with the outcomes of cochlear implantation. The research was carried out on the sample of 77 examinees of both sexes whose children are rehabilitated at “Children’s House” at the Clinical Hospital Centre in Belgrade, as well at schools for

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deaf and hard of hearing children in Kragujevac, Subotica and Niš. The questionnaire entitled *Children with Cochlear Implants: Parental Perspectives* was used for the purpose of the research. The results of the research indicate that parents had moderate difficulties in the process of deciding on cochlear implantation and that they were relatively satisfied with the outcome of the implantation. The age of children and the age at which the cochlear implantation has been performed are not related to the process of deciding on cochlear implantation, although this variable correlates with the contentment with the outcome of the implantation.

Key words: parents, hearing impairment, cochlear implant, deaf and hard-of-hearing children, rehabilitation.

УВОД

Кохлеарни имплант је електронски систем који се хируршким путем поставља у структуре унутрашњег уха да би стимулисао слушни нерв који директно шаље аудитивне сензације у мозак (Wheeler, 2008). Циљ кохлеарне имплантације је да омогући глувим и тешко наглувим особама којима је слух оштећен на нивоу кохлеје и које не могу имати користи од конвенционалних слушних апарата да чују звукове и развију језик и говор (Eisen, 2009). Данас се кохлеарна имплантација сматра рутинском хируршком интервенцијом – процењује се да се годишње примени на око 45.000 особа широм света, а прва савремена кохлеарна имплантација у Србији урађена је 2002. године (Dankuc, Vlaški, Pejaković i Mrdanov, 2015).

Дијагностиковање глувоће или наглувости детета неминовно погађа родитеље. Они могу искусити тугу, бес, порицање, збуњеност, као и беспомоћност (Steinberg, Delgado, Bain & Ruperto, 2003). Веома је важно да се родитељи потруде да очувају сопствену функционалност, с обзиром на то да у процесу рехабилитације детета управо они имају пресудну улогу. Они доносе одлуку о кохлеарној имплантацији, активно учествују у свим аспектима рехабилитације и представљају спону између детета и стручног особља (Incesulu, Vural & Erkam, 2003).

Доношење одлуке о кохлеарној имплантацији засновано је на комбинацији претходног искуства, знања, информација и очекивања родитеља у погледу исхода овог процеса (Li, Bain, & Steinberg, 2004). Такође, фактори као што су лична уверења, систем вредности, разумевање информација које им се пласирају и емоционално стање родитеља могу значајно утицати на њихов процес одлучивања (Duncan, 2009; Li, Bain, & Steinberg, 2003; Li et al., 2004). Хајд и сарадници (Hyde, Punch & Komisaroff, 2010a) наводе да родитељи сматрају процес одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији стресним, иако су често убеђени да њихова деца немају другу могућност за развој говора.

Велика разноликост исхода (Bat-Chava, 2005; Hawker, Ramirez-Inscoe, Bishop, Twomey, O'Donoghue, & Moore, 2008; Inscoe, Odell, Archbold & Nikolopoulos, 2009; Pisoni, Conway, Kronenberger, Horn &

Henning,, 2008; Purdy, 1995; Sach & Whynes, 2005; Spencer, 2004; Spencer & Marschark, 2003; Svirsky, Robbins, Kirk, Pisoni & Miyamoto, 2000) указује на то да је веома тешко са сигурношћу предвидети успешност рехабилитације за свако појединачно дете. Таква ситуација намеће родитељима да морају да одлучују о уградњи кохлеарног импланта својој деци у одсуству било какве извесности у погледу користи које ће дете имати од њега. У неким случајевима, очекивања родитеља од кохлеарне имплантације буду оправдана, чак и надмашена, док се у другим јављају тешкоће у перцепцији и продукција говора код деце (Holt & Kirk, 2005; Robbins, Svirsky & Kirk, 1997).

Задовољство родитеља исходима имплантације је индивидуално, зависи од различитих фактора, међу којима се свакако истиче брзина напредовања детета, и углавном је условљено претходним очекивањима родитеља (Radić-Šestić, Šešum i Isaković, 2018). Иако су ова очекивања углавном веома реалистична у току трајања процеса имплантације, она се често мењају током времена како дете стиче веће искуство у слушању помоћу импланта. Вајзел и сарадници (Weisel, Most, & Michael, 2007) утврдили су да су очекивања родитеља глуве и наглуве деце од кохлеарне имплантације највећа током периода пре имплантације и у току прве године након имплантације. Аутори су закључили да су родитељи склони да своја очекивања прилагођавају развојном току детета.

Будући да родитељи имају кључну улогу у целокупном процесу рехабилитације глуве и наглуве деце, одлучили смо да се у оквиру овог истраживања посветимо испитивању њиховог искуства у погледу одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији и задовољства исходима рехабилитације, као и испитивању повезаности узраста њихове деце и узраста на којем им је уграђен кохлеарни имплант са овим конструктима.

МЕТОД РАДА

Циљ истраживања

Овим истраживањем желели смо да испитамо искуства родитеља глуве и наглуве деце која се односе на процес одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији, као и њихово задовољство исходима кохлеарне имплантације.

Желели смо и да проверимо да ли постоји повезаност старости деце и узраста када им је уграђен кохлеарни имплант са процесом одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији и њиховим задовољством исходима имплантације.

Узорак испитаника и начин спровођења истраживања

Подаци су прикупљени у узорку родитеља седамдесет седморо глуве и наглуве деце која се рехабилитују у „Дечијој кући”, КБЦ Звездара у Београду и у школама за глуву и наглуву децу у Крагујевцу, Суботици и Нишу. У испитивању је учествовао један родитељ по детету, тачније 42 мајке и 35 очева. Хронолошки узраст деце у тренутку испитивања родитеља био је од две године до 19 година ($M = 8,25$), док је распон узраста деце када им је уграђен имплант био између једне године и 13 година ($M = 4,03$).

Испитаници су бирани на основу тога колико је времена прошло од уградње кохлеарног импланта њиховој деци, па су, према упутству за коришћење инструмента, контактирани искључиво родитељи чијем је детету кохлеарни имплант уграђен пре најмање годину дана. Учешће у истраживању било је добровољно, уз усмену сагласност родитеља, који су контактирани и обавештени о истраживању посредством терапеута. Испитивање је извршено у Рехабилитационом центру „Дечија кућа” и у школама за глуве и наглуве.

Након усменог упознавања са сврхом истраживања, испитаницима су дата упутства за попуњавање упитника *Деца са кохлеарним имплантима: перспективе родитеља*, на чија су питања могли да одговоре у року недељу дана. Од 92 подељена упитника, у предвиђеном року враћено је 77 попуњених упитника ($\approx 84\%$ од броја подељених), који су ушли у даљу обраду података добијених у истраживању.

Инструмент

Подаци о старости деце и узрасту деце у тренутку када им је имплант уграђен добијени су од родитеља.

Испитаници су попунили упитник *Деца са кохлеарним имплантима: перспективе родитеља (Children with Cochlear Implants: Parental Perspectives)*, којим се процењују искуства родитеља након најмање једне године од кохлеарне имплантације, који је преведен за потребе овог истраживања. Овај упитник су Арчболд и сарадници развили на основу квалитативне студије (Archbold, Lutman, Gregory, O'Neill & Nikolopoulos, 2002). Аутори су упитник осмислили на основу искустава са кохлеарном имплантацијом која су родитељи глуве и наглуве деце изражавали сопственим речима, путем интервјуа или упитника са питањима отвореног типа. Арчболд и сарадници су затим анализирали одговоре родитеља и мапирали домене који се истичу као најрелевантнији, који су укључени у коначну верзију упитника. Утврђено је да су овом инструменту одлике стабилне у различитим узорцима (O'Neill, Lutman, Archbold, Gregory, & Nikolopoulos, 2004), а његова валидност накнадно је потврђена кроз бројне студије (Incesulu, Vural, Erkam, 2003; Nunes, Pretzlik, & Picak,

2005; Damen, Krabbe, Archbold, & Mylanus, 2007; Archbold, Sach, O'Neill, Lutman, & Gregory, 2008; Huttunen et al., 2009; Fortunato-Tavares, Befi-Lopes, Ferreira Bento, & Furquim de Andrade, 2012).

Упитник садржи 74 тврдње, а испитаници изражавају степен слагања са њиховим садржајем на петостепеној скали Ликертовог типа, од 1 – *потпуно се слажем*, па све до 5 – *уопште се не слажем*. Упитник се састоји од две главне скале: прва се односи на процес одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији (25 тврдњи), а друга на задовољство родитеља исходима имплантације (49 тврдњи).

Скалу *Процес одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији* чине супскале које се односе на: а) сигурност одлуке (10 тврдњи); б) проблеме и предности рехабилитације (10 тврдњи) и в) очекивања испитаника од кохлеарне имплантације (5 тврдњи). Скалу *Исходи имплантације – искуство родитеља* чине супскале: а) комуникација детета (7 тврдњи), б) уопштено функционисање детета (6 тврдњи), в) ослањање детета на сопствене снаге (4 тврдње), г) напредовање детета (5 тврдњи), д) социјалне интеракције (7 тврдњи), ђ) образовни потенцијали (7 тврдњи), е) ефекти имплантације (7 тврдњи) и ж) потреба детета за подршком након кохлеарне имплантације (6 тврдњи).

Резултати на скалама и супскалама утврђују се сабирањем појединачних одговора који улазе у њихов састав, при чему ниже вредности резултата указују на позитивнија искуства родитеља. Оцена процеса одлучивања о имплантацији категоризује се на следећи начин: од 1 до 41 укупно постигнутог поена на скали *Процес одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији* указује на то да су испитаници одлуку о кохлеарној имплантацији донели лако, вредност збира у распону од 42 до 83 поена указује на умерено тежак процес одлучивања, док укупан збир у распону од 84 до 125 указује на испитанике који су кроз процес одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији прошли са тешкоћама. Поени постигнути на супскалама бодују се на следећи начин: *Сигурност одлуке* (бодови 1–50): 1–16 чврста одлука; 17–33 релативно сигурна одлука; 34–50 несигурна одлука; *Рехабилитација* (бодови 1–50): 1–16 задовољни; 17–33 умерено задовољни; 34–50 незадовољни; *Очекивања родитеља* (1–25): 1–8 велика очекивања; 9–17 умерена; 18–25 ниска очекивања.

Укупан резултат на скали *Исходи имплантације – искуство родитеља*, који се креће у распону од 1 до 82, указује на задовољство родитеља исходима кохлеарне имплантације, вредност збира у распону од 83 до 163 указује на умерено задовољство исходима кохлеарне имплантације, док укупан резултат у распону од 164 до 245 указује на незадовољство испитаника исходима кохлеарне имплантације. Поени са супскала бодују се на следећи начин: *Комуникација* (1–35): 1–11 одлична комуникација; 12–23 делимична ко-

муникација; 24–35 слаба комуникација; *Функционисање уопште* (1–30): 1–9 одлично функционисање уопште, 10–20 просечно; 21–30 лоше функционисање уопште; *Ослањање на сопствене снаге* (1–20): 1–6 дете се ослања на сопствене снаге; 7–13 делимично се ослања; 14–20 слабо се ослања; *Напредовање* (1–25): 1–8 одлично напредује; 9–17 умерено напредује; 18–25 слабо напредује; *Социјалне интеракције* (1–35): 1–11 одличне; 12–23 умерене; 24–35 слабе; *Образовни потенцијали* (1–35): 1–11 одлични потенцијали; 12–23 умерени; 24–35 слаби; *Ефекти имплантације* (1–35): 1–11 одлични ефекти; 12–23 делимични; 24–35 слаби; *Потреба детета за подршком* (1–30): 1–9 мања потреба за подршком, 10–20 умерена потреба за подршком; 21–30 велика потреба за подршком.

РЕЗУЛТАТИ ИСТРАЖИВАЊА

Табела 1. Дескриптивни показатељи добијени на скали „Деца са кохлеарним имплантима: перспективе родитеља”

Супскала	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Распон скорова	<i>Skew</i>
Сигурност одлуке	19,81 (3,16)	14–27	0,04
Рехабилитација	20,48 (3,56)	10–31	–0,02
Очекивања имплантација	12,23 (2,43)	6–18	–0,41
Укупно одлука	52,52 (6,75)	33–73	–0,30
Комуникација	17,45 (3,16)	9–26	0,09
Функционисање уопште	13,38 (2,62)	6–20	0,01
Ослањање на сопствене снаге	9,49 (2,10)	4–16	–0,06
Напредовање	11,48 (2,54)	6–20	0,58
Социјалне интеракције	18,05 (2,80)	12–23	–0,37
Образовни потенцијал	15,75 (3,50)	7–28	0,65
Ефекти имплантације	20,10 (3,70)	12–27	–0,08
Потреба за подршком	13,40 (2,51)	7–18	–0,42
Укупно: исходи	119,12 (14,52)	86–158	–0,31

Распон добијених скорова на супскали *Одлука* (*Процес одлучивања за кохлеарну имплантацију*) показује да је испитаницима процес одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији био или лако или умерено тешко искуство, што је довело до умерене позиције просечних вредности одговора, који припадају средњим вредностима (умерено тежак процес одлучивања). Посматрано у односу на супскале, испитаници су били или потпуно или релативно сигурни у сопствену одлуку о кохлеарној имплантацији (просечне вредности припадају категорији релативне сигурности одлуке), били су задовољни или умерено задовољни исходима дотадашње рехабилитације (у просеку

умерено задовољни), а њихова очекивања од кохлеарне имплантације покрила су све три бодовне категорије – од високих до ниских очекивања (у просеку су очекивања била умерена).

Одговори испитаника на супскали *Исходи (Исходи имплантације – искуство родитеља)* указују на то да су умерено задовољни исходима кохлеарне имплантације, будући да се њихов целокупни распон креће искључиво у оквирима ове бодовне категорије. Резултати супскале која се односи на процену комуникације детета након кохлеарне имплантације крећу се у читавом распону од одличне до слабе комуникације, са просечним вредностима које припадају средњој категорији (делимична комуникација). Процена уопштеног функционисања детета обухвата категорије одличног и просечног функционисања уопште, са просечним резултатима који се налазе у категорији просечног функционисања уопште. Код процене ослабања детета на сопствене снаге, одговори родитеља покривају све понуђене категорије, а просечне вредности указују на то да се деца делимично ослабају на сопствене снаге након кохлеарне имплантације. Процена напредовања детета такође обухвата све понуђене категорије; иако просечан резултат указује на то да родитељи сматрају напредак детета умереним, било је и оних испитаника чији су одговори припадали категоријама одличног, али и слабог напредовања. У погледу социјалних интеракција детета након кохлеарне имплантације, испитаници су сагласни у процени да су оне умерене. Образовне потенцијале деце родитељи сматрају, у просеку, умереним, иако се одговори крећу у читавом распону понуђених категорија – од личних до слабих образовних потенцијала. Када је реч о ефектима имплантације, одговори испитаника сугеришу да су они делимични или слаби, са просечним вредностима које припадају категорији делимичних ефеката. Потреба детета за подршком након кохлеарне имплантације просечно је оцењена као умерена, иако је одговорима обухваћена и категорија мање потребе за подршком детету.

Треба додати да добијени распон резултата, као и приказане вредности скјуниса за све супскале (Табела 1) – показују да добијене расподеле не одступају значајно од нормалне дистрибуције. Наиме, распршење резултата на свим супскалама је адекватно, а вредности скјуниса се махом крећу између 0 и 0,5, указујући на благу асиметричност расподела и оправданост даље примене параметријских статистичких поступака обраде података. Поред дистрибутивних својстава, једнофакторском анализом варијансе (АНОВА) проверено је и да ли је пол испитаника имао ефекта на одговоре испитаника. Резултати ове анализе показали су да нема статистички значајних разлика у проценама које су на овом инструменту дале мајке и очеви ($F(1, 75) = 0,01 - 0,78, p = 0,380 - 0,962$).

Корелационом анализом испитана је повезаност актуелне старости детета и дететовог узраста у тренутку уградње импланта са оценама родитеља на упитнику *Деца са кохлеарним имплантом: перспективе родитеља* (Табела 2).

Табела 2. Корелације скорова на упитнику „Деца са кохлеарним имплантом: перспективе родитеља” са узрастом детета и узрастом детета у време кохлеарне имплантације

Супскала	Узраст детета	Узраст детета у време имплантације
Сигурност одлуке	-0,24*	-0,23*
Рехабилитација	0,07	0,13
Очекивања имплантација	-0,37**	-0,41**
Укупно одлука	-0,21	-0,18
Комуникација	-0,15	-0,28*
Функционисање уопште	-0,06	0,02
Ослањање на сопствене снаге	-0,19	-0,26*
Напредовање	-0,14	-0,09
Социјалне интеракције	-0,23*	-0,34**
Образовни потенцијал	0,11	-0,05
Ефекти имплантације	-0,57**	-0,54**
Потреба за подршком	-0,23*	-0,19
Укупно: исходи	-0,30**	-0,36**

* Корелација је значајна на нивоу 0,05.

** Корелација је значајна на нивоу 0,01.

Значајна повезаност негативног смера утврђена је за укупни резултат на супскали *Исходи кохлеарне имплантације детета – искуство родитеља* и обе испитиване независне варијабле, док за ове варијабле и укупни резултат на супскали *Процес одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији* повезаност није утврђена. Узраст деце испитаника негативно корелира са резултатима на супскалама: *Ефекти имплантације, Потреба детета након кохлеарне имплантације за подршком, Социјалне интеракције, Сигурност одлуке и Очекивања испитаника од имплантације*. Узраст на којем је уграђен кохлеарни имплант је негативно повезан са резултатима на супскалама: *Комуникација детета, Ефекти имплантације, Социјалне интеракције, Ослањање на сопствене снаге детета, Сигурност одлуке и Очекивања испитаника од имплантације*.

ДИСКУСИЈА

Резултати истраживања указују на то да су родитељи глуве и наглуве деце имали умерене тешкоће у процесу одлучивања за кохлеарну имплантацију, као и да су умерено задовољни исходима им-

плантације. Просечни резултати на скали која се односи на процес одлучивања испитаника категорисаних према обе испитиване варијабле концентришу се око 52 поена, што их, према упутству, сврстава у средњи регистар бодовања, на основу чега се може закључити да су родитељи искусили одређене тешкоће у процесу одлучивања о кохлеарној имплантацији. Ипак, будући да такви резултати, иако просечни у односу на укупан број поена, гравитирају ка лакшем одлучивању, могуће је да управо та разлика доприноси одређивању родитеља за кохлеарну имплантацију. Да одлучивање о кохлеарној имплантацији није једноставно за родитеље потврдила је и студија Лија и сарадника (Li et al., 2004), у којој су само две трећине испитаника чија су деца процењена као подобни кандидати за кохлеарну имплантацију разматрали да пристану на ову процедуру. У студији Арчболда и сарадника (Archbold, Sach, O'Neill, Lutman, & Gregory, 2006), родитељи којима је процес одлучивања био најтежи били су они који нису придавали много значаја развоју оралног говора као исходу кохлеарне имплантације. Резултати истраживања из 2003. године (Incesulu et al., 2003) потврдили су да родитељи глуве и наглуве деце сматрају процес доношења одлуке о кохлеарној имплантацији веома стресним, иако се међусобно разликују у погледу виђења који део процеса им је био најтежи. И друге студије потврђују да је одлучивање о кохлеарној имплантацији доводило до повишеног стреса код родитеља и утицало на њихова очекивања у погледу будућег третмана и развоја њихове деце (Archbold et al., 2006; Burger Spahn, Richter, Eissele, Lohle, & Bengel, 2005; Spahn, Burger, Löschmann, & Richter, B., 2004; Spahn, Richter, Burger, Löhle, & Wirsching, 2003).

С обзиром на то да је распон просечних резултата на скали која се односи на задовољство исходима имплантације концентрисан око средине бодовног регистра, може се закључити да је задовољство родитеља исходима кохлеарне имплантације просечно, без упадљивог гравитирања ка наглашеном (не)задовољству. Такође, резултати свих појединачних супскала припадају бодовном регистру умереног задовољства исходима кохлеарне имлантације, што је донекле у колизији са налазима Хутунена и Валима (Huttunen & Välimaa, 2010), који су утврдили да су родитељи најзадовољнији напретком у социјалним односима своје деце након кохлеарне имплантације, затим комуникацијом, уопштеним функционисањем и порастом самопоуздања деце. Николас и Гир (Nicholas & Geers, 2003) закључили су да је задовољство родитеља кохлеарном имплантацијом значајно повезано са напредовањем говора и језика детета након уградње кохлеарног импланта, што донекле потврђују и резултати нашег истраживања, будући да су испитаници умерено задовољни комуникацијом њихове деце након кохлеарне имплантације. Донекле у складу са нашим налазима су и резултати истраживања Арчболда и сарадника (Archbold

et al., 2008), према којима је приближно 20% родитеља барем делимично незадовољно исходима имплантације. Пиаза и сарадници су (Piazza, Kandathil & Carron, 2009), на основу свог истраживања, утврдили да су родитељи задовољни напретком своје деце након кохлеарне имплантације. И у истраживању Кристијансена и Лија (Christiansen & Leigh, 2004) већина родитеља била је задовољна исходима кохлеарне имплантације, а више од половине изјавило је да би волели да су своје дете и раније подвргли овој процедури. У студији коју су спровели Николопулус и сарадници (Nikolopoulos, Lloyd, Archbold, O' Donoghue, 2001) утврђено је да су родитељи задовољни исходима кохлеарне имплантације који су били у складу са њиховим очекивањима или их чак и надмашују у области која се односи на комуникацију, што потврђују и налази Хутунена и Валима (Huttunen & Välimaa, 2010), према којима су очекивања родитеља у погледу слушања и развоја језика у 39% случајева била оправдана, а у 44% надмашена.

Клавин и Стјуарт (Kluwin & Stewart, 2000) спровели су истраживање на 35 родитеља чијој је деци уграђен кохлеарни имплант. Резултати су показали да је најбржи напредак након имплантације остварен у погледу развоја језика и говора, док на плану социјалних вештина и контаката напредак није био толико уочљив. И други истраживачи (Damen, Krabbe, Archbold, & Mylanus, 2007; Watson, Hardie, Archbold & Wheeler, 2008) утврдили су да су родитељи најзадовољнији коришћењем кохлеарног импланта на плану развоја говора и језика деце. Резултати истраживања Николаса и Гирса (Nicholas & Geers, 2003) указују на то да деца која користе кохлеарни имплант имају користи од њега, као и да су добро емоционално и социјално адаптирана. И Стејси и сарадници су (Stacey, Fortnum, Barton, & Summerfield, 2006), на основу одговора родитеља и наставника, утврдили побољшање у социјалном домену функционисања глуве и наглуве деце након кохлеарне имплантације, а, према налазима Хутунена и сарадника (Huttunen & Välimaa, 2010), 67% родитеља након 5 година од кохлеарне имплантације сматра да су њихова деца подједнако самостална као и сва друга деца.

У оквиру скале *Процес одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији*, испитаници чија су деца старија и којој је на старијем узрасту уграђен кохлеарни имплант показали су већу сигурност одлуке и већа очекивања од процеса кохлеарне имплантације. Ипак, важно је подсетити да употребљени инструмент не предвиђа испитивање наведених конструката у реалном времену, већ ретроактивно, те се не може искључити могућност утицаја протока времена и тока рехабилитације након кохлеарне имплантације на промену перцепције испитаника. Повезаност старости деце испитаника и узраста на којем им је уграђен кохлеарни имплант са укупним резултатима на скали која се односи на одлучивање родитеља није утврђена, што

је интересантно јер резултати истраживања из 2002. године (Dowell, Dettman, Blamey, Barker, & Clark, 2002) указују на то да кохлеарна имплантација спроведена на млађем узрасту исходује бољим развојем аудитивних, а тиме и комуникационих, вештина деце, што намеће претпоставку да би се родитељи млађе деце лакше одлучивали за ову врсту интервенције. Ипак, изгледа да се потврђује тврдња Лија и сарадника (Li et al., 2004) да на родитеље у процесу доношења одлуке о кохлеарној имплантацији утичу и бројни други фактори, као што су, нпр. њихове личне карактеристике, тематска искуства и препоруке стручњака.

Резултати добијени на скали *Исходи имплантације* показују да су испитаници који имају старију децу значајно задовољнији њиховим социјалним интеракцијама, ефектима кохлеарне имплантације и потребом детета за додатном подршком. Могуће објашњење оваквих налаза могу пружити резултати истраживања из 2004. године (Christiansen & Leigh, 2004), који потврђују да је време протекло од кохлеарне имплантације значајан чинилац задовољства родитеља њеним исходима. У њиховом истраживању, једну годину након имплантације 54% родитеља било је веома задовољно њеним исходима, а тај проценат је у наредном периоду порастао на 67%. Аутори закључују да је потребно време да би се уочио напредак детета након кохлеарне имплантације, па је могуће да је то пресудан разлог због чега су родитељи старије деце задовољнији њеним исходима. Хасуџи је (Hassuji, 2019) сагласан са овим закључком и сматра да се са протоком времена повећава и задовољство родитеља исходима кохлеарне имплантације, а Блејми и сарадници (Blamey et al., 2001) тврде да се вештине комуникације глуве и наглуве деце временом углавном побољшавају.

Узраст на којем је детету уграђен кохлеарни имплант сматра се једним од кључних фактора на основу којих се могу предвидети исходи имплантације, будући да истраживања показују да су исходи бољи уколико је кохлеарна имплантација спроведена на млађем узрасту детета (Connor, Craig, Raudenbush, Heavner, & Zwolan, 2006; Govaerts et al., 2002; Duchesne & Marschark, 2019; Nikolopoulos et al., 2001; O'Donoghue, Nikolopoulos, & Archbold, 2000; Miyamoto, Houston, & Bergeson, 2005). Ипак, резултати нашег истраживања указују на то да су испитаници чијој је деци на старијем узрасту уграђен имплант значајно задовољнији њиховом комуникацијом, ефектима имплантације, социјалним интеракцијама и ослањањем на сопствене снаге. Укупни резултат скале упућује на то да је задовољство родитеља исходима кохлеарне имплантације значајно веће код родитеља чија су деца старија и којој је на старијем узрасту уграђен кохлеарни имплант. Кристијансен и Ли (Christiansen & Leigh, 2004) истичу да је перцепција задовољства исходима имплантације повезана са иницијалним

очекивањима родитеља, као и са побољшањем у другим областима функционисања детета које родитељи сматрају значајним, те је могуће да су, у нашем истраживању, родитељи старије деце имали мања очекивања од успешности кохлеарне имплантације, па је тиме и њихово задовољство исходима било веће. Оваква могућност је у складу са ставом Хутунена и Валима (Huttunen & Välimaa, 2010), који су утврдили да родитељи деце којој је кохлеарни имплант уграђен на старијем узрасту имају релативно ниска очекивања од исхода имплантације.

Ограничења истраживања

Ограничењем истраживања може се сматрати чињеница да, будући да употребљени инструмент не предвиђа документовање слушног узраста глуве и наглуве деце, утицај овог чиниоца на процес доношења одлуке родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији, као и на њихово задовољство исходима рехабилитације није испитиван. С обзиром на потенцијални значај слушног узраста за процес одлучивања и исходе рехабилитације након кохлеарне имплантације, препорука за будућа истраживања односи се на утврђивање утицаја овог чиниоца на одлучивање родитеља глуве и наглуве деце за имплантацију и на њихово задовољство исходима имплантације.

ЗАКЉУЧАК

Успешност рехабилитације глуве и наглуве деце, поред биолошких фактора, условљавају и бројни средински фактори, а један од најзначајнијих представљају њихови родитељи. Доношење одлуке о уградњи кохлеарног импланта, поред примарног страха од ризика самог оперативног захвата, родитељима додатно отежава и неизвесност у погледу исхода рехабилитације након имплантације, који могу бити веома различити. На основу резултата овог истраживања, може се закључити да су родитељи имали умерене тешкоће у процесу одлучивања за кохлеарну имплантацију, као и да су умерено задовољни исходима имплантације. Са процесом одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији нису повезани ни старост деце нити узраст на којем им је имплант уграђен, иако обе варијабле корелирају са задовољством родитеља исходима имплантације. С обзиром на сложеност и деликатност процеса одлучивања родитеља о кохлеарној имплантацији, као и на несигурност у погледу исхода имплантације, веома је важно да родитељи на време буду објективно, организовано и систематично информисани од стране чланова стручног тима о свим аспектима кохлеарне имплантације, са посебним нагласком на њене емпиријски потврђене могућности, али и на ограничења.

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COCHLEAR IMPLANT: EXPERIENCES OF PARENTS OF DEAF AND HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

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Summary

A cochlear implant is a device which enables persons with severe and profound hearing impairment to receive sounds and is intended for people to whom conventional hearing aids are of no practical use. The candidates for cochlear implantation are patients who are deaf because of the state of cochlea. The role of parents in the rehabilitation of hearing impaired children from the moment of the establishment of the diagnosis all the way to the final outcome of the rehabilitation is justifiably considered to be irreplaceable. Decision making can be challenging for parents contemplating cochlear implantation on their child's behalf. The parents' expectations of the success of the cochlear implantation, the high level of parents' investment in their children's rehabilitation and the relative invasiveness of cochlear implantation compared to hearing aids suggest that it is important to examine all the factors of this complex process. In our research, we have focused on the examination of the factors which are significant for the parents' decision-making process

pertaining to the implantation in children, as well as for the parents' contentment with the outcome of the implantation.

The research was carried out on the sample of 77 examinees of both sexes whose children are rehabilitated at "Children's House" at the Clinical Hospital Centre in Belgrade, as well as schools for deaf and hard of hearing children in Kragujevac, Subotica and Niš. The scale entitled Children with Cochlear Implants: Parental Perspectives (CCIPP, Archbold et al., 2002) was used for the purpose of the research.

The results of the research indicate that the parents were relatively confident in their own decision on the implantation, and that they were relatively satisfied with the outcome of the implantation. Additional work of surdologists with children at home and the level of children's hearing impairment prior to the implantation have no effect on the certainty of their parents' decision on the implantation. Moreover, the age of children, the age at which the implantation has been performed and the weekly frequency of the rehabilitation also seem unrelated to it, although all of the three aforementioned variables correlate with the contentment with the outcome of the implantation in hearing impaired children.

The value of this research is reflected in the contribution to the development of theory and practice of hearing and speech rehabilitation considering the noticeably rare examination of factors which affect decision making and contentment with the outcome of the cochlear implantation of hearing impaired children's parents in Serbia. What also contributes to the significance of the research is the number of the examinees comprising the sample, which is relatively large considering the specificity of the examined population.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

Numerous changes that contemporary universities have to face with have also resulted in significant pedagogical implications. There is a growing number of criticisms toward contemporary universities that are often cited as being subject to market demands, which moves them away from basic science teaching activities. The aim of this paper is to examine the consideration of higher education in the context of the reality imposed by new and new goals of education. This goal is conceptualized within two tasks. The first task involves presenting different approaches to entrepreneurial education with significant pedagogical implications, primarily different teaching goals depending on the accepted conception. The second task presents various challenges facing the realization of entrepreneurial education as perceived by foreign authors. In conclusion the paper stresses that entrepreneurial education is a new field of research, but due to the increased importance of a practical application of knowledge in the changing conditions of work and life in the future it may become even more important.

Key words: university, entrepreneurial education, knowledge society.

РАЗВОЈ ПРЕДУЗЕТНИЧКОГ ОБРАЗОВАЊА

Апстракт

Бројне промене са којима се суочавају савремени универзитети за резултат су имале и значајне педагошке импликације. Све је већи број критика које се упућују савременим универзитетима, за које се често наводи како подлежу захтевима тржишта, што их удаљава од основних научно-наставних активности. Као циљ овог рада поставља се сагледавање високог образовања у контексту нових реалности, које намећу и нове циљеве образовања. Овај циљ концептуализован је у оквиру два задатка. Први задатак подразумева представљање различитих приступа предузетничком образовању са значајним педагошким импликацијама, првенствено различитим циљевима за наставу у зависности од прихваћене концепције. У оквиру другог задатка представљени су различити изазови са којима се суочава реализација предузетничког образовања на начин на који их виде инострани аутори. Као закључак

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рада истиче се да је предузетничко образовање новије подручје истраживања, али услед повећаног истицања значаја практичне примене наученог у промјенивима условима рада и живота у будућности може да поприми још већи значај.

Кључне речи: универзитет, предузетничко образовање, друштво знања.

INTRODUCTION

The transition period of modern universities for last couple of decades is conditioned by a number of external reasons, primarily at global national, regional and local level. For the purpose of reconciliation of many contradictions and challenges faced by modern universities, universities' social responsibility is gaining in significance. Although universities' social responsibility can be approached in different ways for the purposes of this paper, attention is focused on the development of entrepreneurial education. The contemporary social context, in which universities operate, and from which they cannot be viewed in isolation, indicates the transformation of universities from the so-called universities as *ivory towers* towards *McUniversities*, that offer widely available and standardized service (Ćulum & Ledić, 2010). The commercialization of Higher Education reached its peak in America, but also it has resulted in harsh criticism due to numerous demands for university-based money profiting on the developmental line, from sports to education and research (Bok, 2005). Conrad Paul Liesmman (2008) also highlights the concern for contemporary universities, which, are in a so called "knowledge based society." The university's new roles have resulted in a number of criticisms from educational traditionalists, who point out that universities are increasingly growing as subjects to market demands and therefore moving away from their core activities, teaching and research toward market and entrepreneurial orientations.

The aim of this paper is to consider higher education in the context of new realities that impose new goals for education. The complexity of the situation is reflected in the attempt to reconcile contradictions that are put in front of higher education. The development of entrepreneurial education is one of the implications that results in numerous opportunities and even more challenges, but it is an inevitability of the functioning of modern universities and therefore it is necessary to consider it as a whole, with its all complexity.

Higher Education in the Context of New Realities

The increasing interest in higher education in recent decades has led to the emergence of numerous international organizations and international agreements, which, as Ćulum and Ledić (2010) point out, are primarily political and economic organizations such as the EU (European Union), ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), NAFTA (North Ameri-

can Sree Trade Agreement), etc. In this context, it is inevitable to approach education and from the perspective of entrepreneurial education. Altbach (2008) warns that market-oriented academic tendencies of the 21st century are the cause for concern as universities increasingly lose their character as a social institution of public good. Popović (2019) points out that in the early stages of the development and change of the European Union, its educational policy was significantly different from that created and imposed by the World Bank and the OECD, and much closer to the educational policies of the UN and UNESCO. The last decade has seen a dramatic approximation of their ideologies and values that they promote through educational policy. Even UNESCO, traditionally committed to humanist discourse, has adopted the rhetoric, concepts and approach of the World Bank, but more so the OECD.

It is the European Commission's intention that knowledge must be a stronger driver of economic growth and development, and therefore the knowledge-based syntagm aims to modernize universities and higher education. The goal is to make Europe the most competitive economy in the world. In this context, the Lisbon Strategy (2000) underlines in its principles and principles the importance of increasing market orientation and linking universities with the economy. Talking about the European dimension of education, Avramović (2003) points out that at the level of principles it proclaims political and social goals, not educational ones. Education is considered as a "factor of transformation and change" of society. The UNESCO International Commission on Education for the 21st century emphasizes the need to pay particular attention to the goals and means of education (Milutinović, 2008). The new philosophy and strategy of education is expressed in the form of four fundamental goals that Delors (1996) calls the pillars of development. These are: *learning to know* that includes knowledge that enables people to understand their environment and at the same time enables them to make critical judgments independently. It is particularly important here to emphasize that learning for knowledge presupposes the learning of a learning skill based on higher cognitive processes rather than just memory of information, thereby increasing learning efficiency and quality of knowledge. The next pillar of *learning to live together* states that one of the most important learning goals is to adopt the values of pluralism, tolerance of difference, multiculturalism, mutual understanding, community action and the like. One of the reasons for its growing importance, as stated by Milutinović (2008), is the increasing interdependence of groups and individuals. The pillar of development *learning to be* consists of the contribution of education to the overall development of the individual- spirit and body, intelligence, sensualists, sense of aesthetics, personal responsibility, spirituality.

For the purposes of this paper, particular attention is dedicated to the pillar, which involves *learning to do*, that, although closely related to

learning for knowledge, unlike it, is more closely linked to professional development. This goal of education, as stated by Milutinović (2008), consists in developing the capacity for practical application of the learned in the changing working and living conditions, as well as in developing the ability to cope with many life situations and teamwork skills. This goal of education can be linked to fostering the development of entrepreneurial education as a way of developing the capacity to put into practice the lessons learned in changing working and living conditions. Within education, Raposo & Do Pako (2011) highlight the following important reasons for fostering entrepreneurship: education provides individuals with a sense of independence; education enables people to be aware of alternative career choices; education broadens individuals' horizons and thus makes people better equipped to perceive opportunities and finally, education provides knowledge that individuals can use to develop new entrepreneurial opportunities.

Development of the Entrepreneurial Education and its Challenges

The concept of the knowledge society indicates that knowledge is a key personal and economic resource (Milutinović, 2008), which is increasingly emphasized within the knowledge economy. Although the business world and academia are based on different principles, we are witnessing their growing convergence and interdependence. As the Commission of the European Communities, (2006) points out, entrepreneurship is a key competence for growth, employability and personal fulfillment. Entrepreneurship involves the ability of an individual to turn ideas into action. These include creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects to achieve goals. It helps everyone in everyday life at home and in society, makes employees more aware of the context of their work and better opportunities to take advantage of, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs who set up social or commercial activities. Also, it is emphasized that the development of generic attributes and skills is the basis of entrepreneurship, and it is complemented by the transfer of specific knowledge about business in accordance with the level of education.

The document (Commission of the European Communities, 2006) emphasizes that entrepreneurial competences need to be acquired throughout lifelong learning, thus emphasizing the importance of education from primary school to university, including secondary vocational education (initial vocational education) and technical tertiary education institutions. The paper focuses on the development of entrepreneurship education at the university level. Within this framework, the Commission of the European Communities (2006) proposes the promotion of entrepreneurship in higher education within the following steps: higher education institutions should integrate entrepreneurship in different subjects, especially in scientific and technical studies; the support of national authorities is particularly needed

to provide training for high-level teachers and to develop networks that can share good practice; teacher mobility between the university and the business world should be encouraged, along with the involvement of business people in teaching.

Based on the literature reviewed, the paper starts from the view that although most of the papers dealing with the study of entrepreneurial education represent research efforts from the perspective of economics and management, this topic needs to be approached from the perspective of pedagogy as well as presented in Figure 1. The development and challenges of creating entrepreneurial education within pedagogy can be viewed in relation to university missions, teaching goals, context, and challenges. This approach sets out to be a conceptually methodological framework for a more detailed analysis of the development of entrepreneurship education and its pedagogical implications.

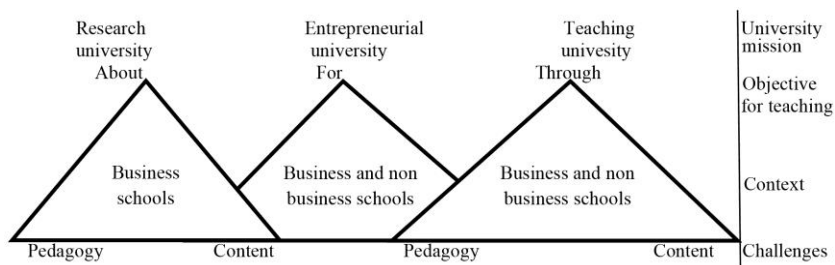


Figure 1. Teaching entrepreneurship in different contexts

Source: (Heinonen & Hytti, 2010, p.314)

(a) *University Missions.* In the study of the development of entrepreneurial education and its dimensions, it is necessary to focus on the dominant university mission, which also determines the way of approach toward entrepreneurial education. Considering the fact that the emergence of entrepreneurial education is a consequence of contemporary aspirations within the knowledge economy, it is important to point out that there is still no uniform approach and generally accepted definition. However, it is the fact that increasing attention is being paid not only to entrepreneurial education, but also to the creation of entrepreneurial universities, which points to the inevitability of analyzing the development of entrepreneurial education, depending on the primary university mission. In addition to teaching and research, as a core academic activities, especially during the transition period, the university's third mission is significant, reflected in the university's participation in economic development and the construction of civil society and democratic values (Spasojević, Kleut & Brankovic, 2012). The participation of universities in economic development from the angle of pedagogy involves studying the development of entrepreneurship education. It is important to note

that teaching-oriented universities will have a different approach to entrepreneurial education compared to research-oriented universities, as well as universities whose primary focus is the development of an entrepreneurial university.

However, attention should also be paid to the criticisms addressed to the concepts of university missions and their pedagogical implications. Thus, Bodroški Spariosu (2015) points out that students and professors from constituent members of the academic community become "stakeholders," equal with stakeholders from private and public sector employers, central or local government representatives, alumni and by donors, etc. By definition, an interest group is interested in maximizing its own, not social, well-being. If everyone had the same interest in a social issue, there would be no different interest groups. What kind of university will exist in society depends on the results of the conscious action of different interest groups, which may have completely conflicting preferences regarding mission, institutional arrangement or organizational solutions. On the whole, the issue of university missions is a controversial topic that is being addressed in many ways, but its definition and institutionalization are becoming more and more common rhetoric within the academic community.

b) Objectives of entrepreneurship education for teaching. As shown in Figure 1, Heinonen & Hytti (2010) highlight three forms of entrepreneurial learning.

Teaching about entrepreneurship is a feature of research universities. This approach involves studying entrepreneurship as an academic subject. The programs focus on individuals who are intellectually motivated to understand entrepreneurship and want to gain insight into the world of entrepreneurship. To this end, entrepreneurship is approached as a research discipline within the university, and thus entrepreneurial studies are aimed at developing students' research skills.

Teaching for entrepreneurship aims to provide individuals with both the knowledge and skills needed to start, develop and grow one or more businesses. The starting point is that the university curriculum will have a positive impact on providing entrepreneurial skills to fulfill their roles satisfactorily. Any academic discipline can offer a wealth of entrepreneurial opportunities.

Teaching through entrepreneurship emphasizes the role of the entrepreneurial process. It is about entrepreneurship and innovative individuals interacting with their environment, discovering, evaluating and taking advantage of opportunities. This approach suggests that entrepreneurship can be learned within other subjects, which may be basic capabilities embedded in frameworks other than business or management. The outcome is that learners know what they can achieve and understand how to move forward to maximize any role in society. Having in mind changing work life, entrepreneurial skills and behavior are considered necessary

and significant. However, the narrowly utilitarian idea of education must be avoided. As Milutinović (2008) states emphasizing the importance of providing a workforce capable of working in the economy must not suppress the basic function of education-which is the realization of a person who fully learns to exist, to enable human beings to become, not just instruments of development, but to justify that development. One of the challenges in the future, when it comes to education, starts with the view that it will be about finding a balance between the utilitarian and liberal ideas of education. However, exclusive focus on one idea can be as unrealistic and harmful as negating the importance of their coexistence. The results of the Aznar (2013) survey of students have shown that, in order to meet students expectations, it is necessary to find solutions that harmonize both, liberal and entrepreneurial education. Sullivan (Sullivan, 2004) points out that, despite economic and social changes, there is still a great need for liberal education. Although liberal education is a concept with different definitions, within the presented research it implies the role of education that can enlighten individuals, society and humanity as a whole. Unlike the entrepreneurial education that places emphasis on knowledge management, liberal education embraces knowledge for its own sake. Overall, teaching goals must both, entail and encourage entrepreneurship education, but also should not neglect the development of liberal education.

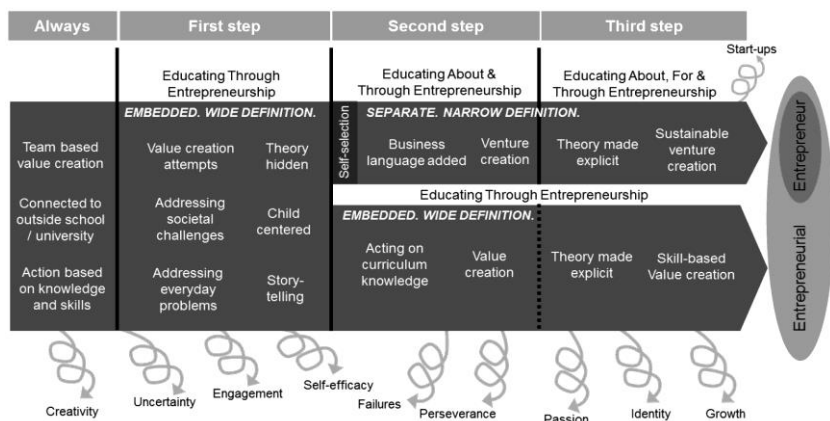


Figure 2. A unified progression model for entrepreneurial education (Lackeus, 2015: 25)
 Source: (Lackeus, 2015, p. 25)

The progressive model of entrepreneurial education is presented in Figure 2 and it represents all three forms of entrepreneurial learning, as well as their successive combination.

(c) *Context.* As presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, learning about entrepreneurship, although predominantly targeted at entrepreneurial

schools, may include those who are not. Čekić and Marković (2015) point out that entrepreneurial learning can be divided into narrower and broader entrepreneurial learning. The first form of learning educates and empowers for entrepreneurial business activity, and the second for entrepreneurial behavior, thinking, or acting. In formal education, narrow entrepreneurial learning is encompassed by the subject of entrepreneurship, a virtual enterprise or a training firm, which have been introduced as a separate subject by vocational education reform and cover specific economic competences and knowledge. Broader entrepreneurial learning in formal education develops the knowledge, skills and attitudes of entrepreneurship as a way of thinking and acting. In this context, a broader entrepreneurial learning approach and non-entrepreneurial schools can foster the development of an entrepreneurial mindset and action. The pedagogical importance of studying entrepreneurial education is within the broader context of entrepreneurial learning.

(d) Challenges. One of the basic challenges of entrepreneurial education can be cited as a still insufficiently articulated theory and a generally accepted definition. However, within the challenges of entrepreneurial education, it is also important to present challenges at a broader level as well, that is, the challenge of creating entrepreneurial universities. Sporn (2001 according to: Mugabi 2014) uses the concept of “adaptive university,” a term that closely links it to the term entrepreneurial university, and emphasizes seven factors critical to creating adaptive universities: when it comes to the environment, it could be defined as a crisis or an opportunity for universities; a clear mission and goals that guide decision making, planning, orientation and integration of all members into a traditionally decentralized and loosely connected academic organization; a specific organizational culture - for example, an entrepreneurial approach that emphasizes individual responsibility and rewards creativity; a differentiated but coordinated institutional structure that allows universities to respond quickly to various environmental demands; professionalization of university management; joint management or integration of university actors in the decision-making process, as well as dedicated leadership. These challenges also have direct implications for entrepreneurial education.

The challenge particularly emphasized by Heinonen & Hytti (2010) when it comes to entrepreneurial education is the tension between academic and pragmatic in a university context. As presented in Figure 3, the relationship between university and business needs to be analyzed in view of the typical differences. As Ješić (2015) points out, the relationship between science and the business world in contemporary conditions should be seen as a highly complex process in which all differences in goals, interests and priorities must be understood, but at the same time in the legal status and management style of these two vital spheres of the social system. On the other hand, although they entail numerous and signif-

icant differences, the importance of studying their relationship is of particular importance at a time when dual education in higher education is increasingly being actualized and advocated. The future brings a growing rapprochement between universities and the economy, which will further enhance entrepreneurship education. The key question is how best to combine these approaches that appear to be quite different without the nature of one destroying the nature of the other.

Figure 3 Differences between university and economy

University	Economy
academic freedom	profit and commercial sustainability-time and money
instant publishing, scientific reputation	profit and commercial sustainability-time and money
cooperation	competition "destroy competition"
long-term basic research, creation of new knowledge	short-term commercial use of new knowledge
thematic research, research stimulated by curiosity -	mission-oriented research and development.
job creation for researchers	problem solving
adapting research and development activities to specific problems and needs of the economy	development of human resources
prestige	technology monitoring
	prestige

Source (Ješić, 2015, p.122)

Heinonen & Hytti (2010) state the difference between entrepreneurial pedagogy that supports the “art” of entrepreneurship (creative and innovative thinking) and content-based content that supports “science” (business and management). There are also certain arguments against entrepreneurship education, which are presented in Figure 4.

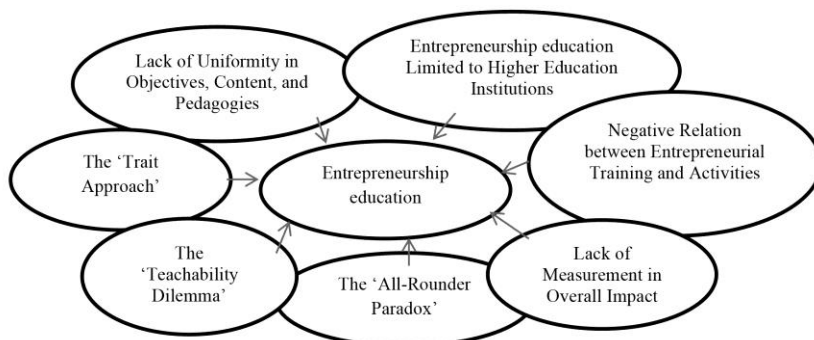


Figure 4. Seven Arguments against Entrepreneurship Education

Source: Lautenschläger & Haase (2011, p. 149)

When it comes to the *lack of uniformity in content and pedagogy* goals, fundamental concern relates to the economic and social goals of entrepreneurship education. Fayolle (2008) defines the goals of entrepreneurship education within theories, that is, entrepreneurship education of professors and researchers, ways of thinking, preparing entrepreneurial individuals, skills, training of entrepreneurs or professionals in the field. Depending on the focus, methodologies vary significantly within the model. However, when it comes to shaping entrepreneurial individuals, as pointed out by Lautenschläger & Haase (2011), consensus regarding the pedagogies that exist implies appropriate experiential and project-based learning as appropriate. Such methodologies increase motivation and encourage the emotional and intuitive dimensions of entrepreneurship.

The *'Trait Approach'*. The fundamental debate remains as to whether entrepreneurship is a regulated capacity. The basic premise emphasized by Lautenschläger & Haase (2011, p. 150) is that entrepreneurs have a unique characteristic of stable, inherent and enduring personality characteristics that favor entrepreneurial activities. These traits should be permanent and remain consistent across time and context. Opportunity identification is presented as one of the key competences of entrepreneurship and includes not only entrepreneurial knowledge but also less tangible forms such as vigilance, creativity, innovation, proactiveness, risk taking and the need for achievement. Then, the same authors point out that entrepreneurial education cannot make up for missing qualities such as talent and temperament. Also according to research (Klein and Bullock, 2006 according to: Lautenschläger & Haase, 2011), the conclusion is that it is not possible to teach the discovery, recognition, decision making and nature of an entrepreneurial personality. Therefore, it is concluded that some traits are inseparable from entrepreneurship and their ability to develop depends on individuals' predispositions.

The teachability dilemma. One of the basic dilemmas when it comes to entrepreneurship is whether it can be learned or entrepreneurs are born. Hindle (2007) believes that entrepreneurship can be learned, with differences in performance highlighting differences in levels of *intrinsic factors* (for example, greater intelligence, greater natural dexterity), different levels of *stimulation* (more or less suitable environment), and different *external factors* (for example, a deeper and longer study of principles or more practice). Also, the same author emphasizes the importance of highlighting the differences between the *lectures that relate to the phenomenon* (professional field) from *teaching about the phenomenon* (about its meta aspects, its theory and how this phenomenon affects other phenomena), as well as highlighting the difference between *the end results with the process*. In discussions about the entrepreneurship learning Henry et al., (Henry et al., 2005 according to: Lautenschläger & Haase, 2011) emphasize that at least some aspects of entrepreneurship can be successfully learned. Rae & Carswell (2001) cite business world and functional

knowledge management as well as business plans as components that are easy to learn, however they state that creativity and innovation as competencies are not easy to learn. Blenker et al., (2008) dispute that the current education system is capable of developing motivation, competencies and skills in entrepreneurship-related students. They point out that universities have not mastered the required learning methods, pedagogical processes and frameworks for entrepreneurial learning.

Lack of Measurement in Overall Impact. Lautenschläger & Haase (2011) state that measurement means defining commonly agreed or standard indicators of success, but because of the lack of alignment on what teachers want to achieve through a pedagogical approach, there are many measures. There is a debate about appropriate measures of influence that can be interpreted as changes in various aspects of entrepreneurship such as intention, desire persuasion, willingness, perception, attitude, risk assessment, feasibility, confidence, skills and abilities as variables of pedagogical effect. Then, there are tangible effects, that is, measuring the economic outcomes of entrepreneurial success. Lautenschläger & Haase (2011, p. 152) point out that both types of effects cannot be judged separately; rather there exists a linkage spanning from the pedagogical to the economic impact.

Negative Relation Between Entrepreneurial Training and Activities. Bosma et al. (Bosma et al., 2009 according to: Lautenschläger & Haase, 2011) conclude that governments with low levels of entrepreneurial activity are investing more in entrepreneurship education and training to increase entrepreneurial activity.

Entrepreneurial education limited to higher education institutions. Although the importance of introducing entrepreneurship education from the earlier levels of education is emphasized, it most often comes down to higher education, which, as Lautenschläger & Haase (2011) point out, a significant number of potential participants are excluded from the opportunity to participate in entrepreneurship education. Commission of the European Communities (2006) emphasizes the importance and provides guidelines for the development of entrepreneurial competences to be acquired during lifelong learning, emphasizing the importance of education from primary school to university. However, in order to realize the incorporation of entrepreneurship education at lower levels, changes in teacher education are also needed.

The '*All-Rounder Paradox*'. Entrepreneurs need to be versatile, that is, have multiple skills and expertise in a significant number of subject areas. Being a successful entrepreneur, as Lautenschläger & Haase (2011, p.154) point out requires being a generalist with the ability to bring a series of disciplines and talents together in a practical manner. Nevertheless, a type of education that is unilaterally and uniquely directed towards the creation of new businesses cannot 'produce' generalists or all-rounders. Entrepreneurial

education should therefore be designed to incorporate the broad range of entrepreneurial skills and competences that make up entrepreneurs.

Abgonlahor (2016) cites the following functional challenges for implementing entrepreneurship education: lack of capacity of adequate lecturers; absence of curricular capacity to support the training; lack of infrastructural support; overemphasize on theory delivery, as well as absence of research support and connectedness. Overall, the numerous challenges facing entrepreneurship education indicates significant and numerous pedagogical implications.

CONCLUSION

The interest in higher education that has been growing in recent decades within various international organizations points to the inevitability of studying the new goals that are being imposed on higher education. The importance of studying the development of entrepreneurship education is growing in the context of the growing connection between universities and the business world and the economy. As presented in the paper, there are many controversial issues regarding the implementation of entrepreneurship education. However, the current tendencies that result in the introduction of dual education and higher education indicate the importance of studying this topic, which may take on even greater significance in the future. Within the teaching process, it is of the utmost importance to highlight the differences between education about, education for and education through entrepreneurship. Also, during implementation, it is important that the learning objectives are in line with the university mission in relation to its dominant orientation, that is, whether the university is primarily geared towards teaching, research, or is the development of entrepreneurship the core mission of the university. In order to minimize the negative phenomena caused by the process of economization of higher education, it is important to study this topic from the perspective of pedagogy as well. Also, if entrepreneurship education is updated in the future, it will also entail significant changes in the education of future teachers. From the perspective of pedagogy, the importance of studying entrepreneurial education does not imply an end result, but an entrepreneurial mindset that is expected of students. In this context, the development of entrepreneurial education needs to be approached, critically and analytically, from the perspective of new educational policies as well as various university missions.

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РАЗВОЈ ПРЕДУЗЕТНИЧКОГ ОБРАЗОВАЊА

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Резиме

Савремени универзитети суочавају се са бројним променама и изазовима који су највећим делом нови захтеви и очекивања од стране спољашњег света. С једне стране образовни традиционалисти усмерени су на очување традиционалних улога образовних институција, док су образовни прогресивисти склонији њиховом преиспитивњу и прилагођавању новонасталим околностима. Допринос овог рада односи се на аналитички приступ развоју предузетничког образовања којем је с једне стране могуће приступити као неминовности, док се с друге стране истичу и бројни изазови у оквиру увођења предузетништва у процес образовања. С обзиром на тренутну фазу у Републици Србији, у раду се тематици приступа аналитички и критички. Као закључак истиче се да је ово поље истраживања у својим зачецима, а у будућности може да поприми још већи значај и из тог разлога је значајно познавање ове тематике од стране свих који су укључени у високо образовање.

THE ROLE OF ONE'S NATIVE MUSICAL IDIOM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MUSIC ABILITIES AND ACQUISITION OF NEW MUSIC MATERIAL

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Abstract

One's native musical idiom is of great importance for the growth and development of a child. However, despite the frequent mention of this concept in the methodological literature, we cannot find it clearly defined anywhere. Therefore, in this study, we first defined the native musical idiom through a multidisciplinary approach, then we pointed out its role in the development of the ability to perceive (the melody, harmony and rhythm), the acquisition of songs, rhythmic abilities and music memory, and then emphasized its role in the acquisition of new music material. The ultimate goal of this study is to indicate the necessity of establishing beginner music education classes in elementary schools (first and second grade) on material which represents the native musical idiom of the environment in which a child is growing up.

Key words: native musical idiom, musical abilities, music material.

УЛОГА МУЗИЧКОГ МАТЕРЊЕГ ЈЕЗИКА У РАЗВОЈУ МУЗИЧКИХ СПОСОБНОСТИ И УСВАЈАЊУ НОВИХ САДРЖАЈА

Апстракт

Музички матерњи језик има огроман значај за развој и сазнање детета. Међутим, и поред честог помињања овог појма у методичкој литератури у Србији, нигде не наилазимо на његову јасну формулацију. У раду је зато прво мултидисциплинарним приступом дефинисан музички матерњи језик, затим је истакнута његова улога у развоју способности опажања (мелодије, хармоније, ритма), усвајања песама, ритмичке способности и музичке меморије, а потом и наглашена његова улога у усвајању нових музичких садржаја. Крајњи циљ рада је указивање на неопходности заснивања почетне наставе музичке културе у основној школи (I и II разред) на садржајима музичког матерњег језика средине у којој деца одрастају.

Кључне речи: музички матерњи језик, музичке способности, музички садржаји.

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of the native musical idiom was first used by the Hungarian musical pedagogue, ethnomusicologist and composer Kodaly who, during the 1940's, designed a concept of music education based on Hungarian folk music. One of his standpoints was that children will become masters of their native musical idiom only after they acquire their native tongue (Dobszay, 1992). Kodaly's students and followers introduced their principles into the teaching process in elementary and music schools in Hungary after World War II in the form of *Kodaly's method*, which along with "certain (minimal) transformations" in the sense of using various native musical idioms, which could be realized everywhere around the world (Drobni, 2008: 46).

Numerous musical psychologists and pedagogues have discussed the importance of the native musical idiom on the development of individuals. Bjerkvol points out that it plays an important role in the social-emotional development and marking of the identity of an individual, since children's social life, just like its "embedding" into culture and society, begin from the "inspired primary dialogue between infants and mothers" which is realized through song (Bjerkvol, 2005:107). One time when he was addressing an audience, Vasiljević stated the following:

If your mothers sang lullabies to you while you were in your cribs, then you, my dear sweet children, attended the best conservatory... All the other conservatories and music schools are not able to make up for what you mother had not passed on to you in her song and her speech (Vasiljević, M. 1941: 8, author's translation).

Kodaly points out that a child, just like it first learns to speak and then to read and write letters, also first has to learn its native musical idiom, and only then learn notes (Kodaly, according to: Kodaly Educators of Southern New England, www.kesne.org).

However, by analyzing the methodological literature we can note that there is no definition of the native musical idiom, as well as that the syntagm of a folk song, native idiomatic singing (Vasiljević, M., 1941, Nastasijević, 1972) and native idiomatic songs (Drobni, 2008) are often used as synonyms for this concept. Therefore, its role in the development of musical abilities is presented in very restricted terms. This is why a more comprehensive view of the native musical idiom (the definition and presentation of the forms which it consists of), as well as the emphasis on its role in the development of a composite musical ability¹, otherwise a

¹ The concept of a musical ability/musical abilities is one of the "most sensitive" (Teplov, 1966: 41) and "most controversial" (Révész, 1954: 131) concepts in the psychology of music. There are numerous views on the nature of musical abilities, and we have in this paper opted for the structuralist understanding according to which

key assumption in the successful realization of music education classes among younger school age children, is of exceptional importance for music pedagogy and teaching. The topic of this study is the native musical idiom and its role in the development of the ability to perceive, to acquire songs, rhythmic abilities and memory², as well as to acquire new content, all viewed through the prism of knowledge of the field of music pedagogy, psychology of music, musico-linguistics and neuromusicology. The goal of the paper is to indicate the necessity of founding beginning level music education classes in elementary school (grades one and two), which would include material from the native musical idiom of the environment in which the children are being raised.

DEFINING THE NATIVE MUSICAL IDIOM

The native musical idiom is a form of “sounding line... from the deepest recesses of the spirit” (Nastasijević, 1972: 236) which includes music material from the childhood of one's parents, grandparents, great-grandparents, maybe even great-great-grandparents (Bjerkvol, 2005). It is assumed that a child begins to acquire it very early on, in the mother's womb³ (Trevarthen, 1988). When learning the native tongue, a child first hears the speech of adults, and then spontaneously acquires the complete linguistic ideas and communicates with its environment. The analogy is that when learning a native musical idiom it first listens to the singing and playing of adults⁴, and then acquires musical ideas (poetic-melodious-harmonious-rhythmic patterns) and through singing with adults in the form of mimicry and the study of sound sources musically communicates

musical ability is the sum of relatively independent abilities expressed to various extents (the ability to perceive and reproduce pitch, intensity, duration and color, rhythmic and other abilities). For more on defining musical ability, see Nikšić, N. (2005). *Muzičke sposobnosti dece pred polazak u I razred osnovne škole* [Musical abilities of children prior to enrolment in the first grade]. Unpublished MA thesis defended at the Teachers College in Užice.

² The native musical idiom, that is the musical experience of children, also influences the development of other abilities, such as preferences, taste in music (Kodela & Nikolić, 2016), and harmonic hearing (Nikolić & Kodela, 2020).

³ Based on the results of psychological research, it was determined that from early vocalization, babies have the metric and harmonious features which are characteristic of adult performances, and so it is assumed that as early as the foetal stage, certain biochemical imprints take shape which the child receives by listening to its mother's singing. (Trevarthen, 1988).

⁴ After birth, children through their mothers' singing, tapping or swaying acquire various counting rhymes, cradle songs and clapping songs, and while playing daily with other children, they unconsciously take part in the performance of simple melodic-rhythmic motifs of counting rhymes, counting out rhymes, tongue twisters, riddles, etc. (Stojanović, 1996).

with its environment (Stojanović, 2001). Bjerkvol points out that the native musical idiom is formulated within the framework which is set up by the linguistic and musical codes of the culture the child is growing up in (Bjerkvol, 2005). Neuro-musicological studies show that our brain “learns some kind of musical grammar which is characteristics of the music of our culture, just like we learn the language of our culture” (Levitin, 2011: 126). The musico-linguistics Jackendoff and Lerdahl, following the ideas of Chomsky, founded the *Generative theory of tonal music*⁵. According to this theory, an individual “possess the perfect internalized knowledge of his native musical idiom”⁶ (Antović, 2004: 91, author’s translation) which is unconsciously, and to a great extent, innate, and which is “in part dependent on early experience, that is, the native musical idiom to which the hearer has been exposed during childhood”⁷ (Ibid, 90, author’s translation). Kodele & Nikolić (2016) hypothesized the existence of a “genetic code” thanks to which certain types of music are “suitable” and more “understandable” to a particular nation.

Thus, the native musical idiom can be defined as the organized system of the linguistic-musical sounds which emerged in the patterns of a certain culture which the individual acquires from his earliest childhood, and which represents a fundamental element of communication, socialization, but also of the cultural identity and deepest feelings of the individual. It consists of the melodious-rhythmic content of an environment which the child acquires from early childhood, including: folk songs, folk

⁵ During the 1950s, Chomsky, the founder of cognitive linguistics, proposed the hypothesis that there is a strong genetic predisposition for the use of language, which during childhood is shaped to suit the structure of the individual language that a child is exposed to. He proposed that there is a universal and mental grammar. *Universal grammar*, as he pointed out, is nothing more than an innate ability (a genetic predisposition transferred from the parents to the child which does not depend on any external factors) of a healthy child who is constantly exposed to a language, to over a short period of time (several years), with very little conscious effort, acquire this language as its native tongue, while *mental grammar* represents a specialized form of universal grammar, which means that a child that possesses universal grammar, and is exposed to a certain language during its childhood, after a period of time masters the mental grammar of that tongue and solely uses the grammatical principles specialized for that language. From 1978 to 1983, one of Chomsky’s most prominent students, the famous linguist, and also talented violin and clarinet player Jackendoff along with the composer and music theorist Lerdahl established the *Generative theory of tonal music* (Antović, 2004: 12-13).

⁶ A musical idiom represents a musical expression, and the key feature of a native musical idiom is the basic musical scale of a particular area (Antović, 2004).

⁷ Antović points out that “the musical grammar in GTTM focuses on the ‘native listener’s’ ability to perceive a musical piece as conformant (or not) to his or her native ‘musical idiom’, based on a series of deep, perhaps partly inborn intuitions.” (Antović, 2015: 79).

dances, rhymes/counting rhymes, counting-out rhymes, cradle songs, clapping songs, finger games, etc.

A composite musical ability⁸ is the key assumption of successful realization of music education classes at the beginning of elementary school, and thus in the remainder of the paper we will through our existing knowledge from the field of musical pedagogy, music psychology, musico-linguistics and neuro-music view the role of the native musical idiom in the development of the abilities to perceive sound and acquire songs, rhythmic abilities and memory. At the same time, what is of exceptional significance is the understanding of the role of the native musical idiom in the acquisition of new material, and so we will consider this role as well.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO PERCEIVE SOUND

In order for a child to be able to reproduce any sound, it needs to have a well-developed ability to perceive it. Psychological studies indicate that the ability to perceive sound begins at birth, and maybe even sooner, and then takes place in accordance with a child's general development. A child's experience with the music material of his native musical idiom significantly influences the formation of this ability. Namely, in the opinion of the neuromusicologist Levitin, the perception of sound is conditioned by sounds which are already contained in our memory. Auditory sensations which precede perception begin with the ear drums, where they are immediately classified, and "the musical apparatus begins to divide the signal into constituent parts and especially analyse the height and colour of a tone, pitch contour and rhythm" (Levitin, 2011: 149). The neurons which perform these tasks send output information to the regions in the frontal lobe, which bring them together and attempt to find a structure or order in the pattern of this entire occurrence. At the moment when the frontal lobe begins to connect with the hippocampus and the regions of the interior of the temporal lobe, where it is determined "whether in our memory bank there are any data which could be used to help understand the signal", the processing of the basic elements at a lower level has

⁸ The concept of musical ability is one of the "finest" (Teplov, 1966: 41) and "most controversial" (Révész, 1954: 131) concepts in the psychology of music. There are numerous approaches to the nature of music abilities, and in this paper we have opted only for the structuralist one, which indicates that musical ability is the sum of relatively independent abilities expressed in various degrees (the ability to perceive and reproduce the height, strength, duration, timbre, rhythmic and other abilities). For more information on the definition of musical ability see Nikšić, N. (2005). *Muzičke sposobnosti dece pred polazak u I razred osnovne škole* [Musical abilities of children prior to enrolment in the first grade]. (MA thesis). Užice: Učiteljski fakultet.

begun, that is, the perception/registering of elementary or composite attributes of the sensory stimuli (individual tones - strength, duration, height and timbre; musical sequences – the melodic contour, intervals and rhythmic structures) (Levitin 2011: 149). The most recent neuromusical research by McAdams indicates that the mechanism of expectancy is key in the perception of the musical flow, while it is genetically based and culturally formed. “One part of the musical flow limits our mental processing and thus even prior to the continuation of that flow [...] our subconscious has already built a sequence of several possibilities which the flow could further take” (according to: Antović, 2004: 56, author’s translation). Dowling and Harwood spoke of *music-related expectations* and *melodic patterns*, which, as they point out, are cognitive patterns which develop in a certain culture (according to: Radoš, 1996: 107) and reflect the melodic contour, intervals and the tonality of the songs of this culture.

The results of the neuro-musical research of Krumhansl indicate that the ability to perceive tones is conditioned by culture, since there are “built-in ideas on tonal hierarchy” in the brain which are acquired by passive exposure to music and cultural norms (according to: Levitin, 2011: 51). Psychologists also point out that the ability to perceive melody, harmony and rhythm is conditioned by culture. Radoš points out that for the perception of the melody “experience with tonal sequences in the same or similar style” is necessary (Radoš, 1996: 106). Levitin points out that most children up to the age of five acquire rules on which harmonious patterns are regular, or typical for the music of their culture, and in accordance to that “quickly recognize any deviations from the standard flows, just like we easily note if a sentence is incorrectly structured” (Levitin, 2011: 52). Sloboda points out that children “perceive and group patterns [the reference here is to rhythmic patterns] into certain categories in accordance with their previous experience and perception in rhythmic groups” (according to: Radoš, 1996: 123).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO ACQUIRE SONGS

In order for a child to be able to sing it has to be able to master the ability to acquire song which is formed under the influence of the folk song culture in which it is growing up. There are many opinions on the development of the ability of acquiring songs. We will focus on the results of Davidson et al. and Bjørkvold’s research on spontaneous children’s songs.

Davidson et al. determined that during the first three years of life, a child first passes through a phase of *undifferentiated musical babbling/vocal games*, followed by *spontaneous songs*, in order for, at the age of two and a half years, the development of songs begins to develop in the direction of *a general framework or simple rhythmic songs*. In this

phase the child, through processes of assimilation and accommodation, transforms the elementary rhythmic patterns which it has heard within its home by including them in the schema which it already possesses, into a so-called "general framework" of songs, which leads to a further change in schemas. When a child completely comes to terms with the framework or simple rhythm (sometime around the age of three), it begins to use its own schema "which are broad enough and flexible enough to produce a recognizable presentation of the external reality in any symbolic field" (according to: Radoš, 1996: 216). Davidson et al., by studying the ability to acquire songs through folk songs which are not familiar to children, songs which follow the general rules of traditional music, determined that children aged four and five go through a series of phases⁹, and that only at the age of five does a song receive the basic features of "a real culturally determined vocal product". This kind of song is the first version of the song and is known as the song-draft¹⁰ (according to: Radoš, 1996: 217).

Bjørkvold, based on the results of a study carried out in Norway, the USA and the Soviet Union, also determined that spontaneous song can occur among children. He points out that 'every culture possesses spontaneous children's songs', and so that the musical culture of various nations is still characterized by national music material (folk songs), which is a natural source of a child's completed song pattern (Bjerkvol, 2005: 83). Bjørkvold pointed out that spontaneous song is a child's "native musical idiom" and which occurs in three forms, such as: 1) "amorphous" song (the first dance with song and sound is characterized by a glissando, micro-intervals and free rhythms, which is far from what is traditionally considered a song), 2) "formulae" (short and established twists of clear intervals and rhythms which become an active part of the

⁹ Based on the research results provided by Davidson, McKernon and Gardner, at the ages of four and five children pass through the following phases: 1) *the monologue phase* (a phase when all the lyrics of a song appear, or the most characteristic phrases, as well as the basic rhythmic pulse); 2) *the rhythm acquisition phase* (when a child synchronizes the surface rhythm of a song with the baseline rhythmic pulse and is approximately correct when singing the contours of the most typical phrases, but there is still no stable tonality between the phrases or precision when singing intervals); 3) *acquiring contours of the target melody* (during this phase the child attempts to shape the contour of each phrase, but there is still no stability in the tonality between phrases and precision when singing the interval); 4) *acquiring a stable tonality* (during this phase stable tonality is achieved, as is the ability to perform expressive transformations, and during this phase the child can separate baseline beats from surface rhythms, but the singing of the interval is still not correct) (according to: Radoš, 1996).

¹⁰ Here we need to mention that starting from the age of two, a child develops both "spontaneous songs and those shaped by the influence of the surrounding culture" at the same time, and that a clear distinction between them is made only around the age of five (Radoš, 1996: 217).

children's native musical idiom) and 3) "completed" songs (songs in which children freely use material which is based on finished song patterns) (Bjerkvol, 2005: 87-90).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF RHYTHMIC ABILITIES

In addition to the ability to perceive sound and ability to acquiring songs, a precondition for overcoming music problems in younger elementary school age children is to a certain extent a product of development of rhythmic abilities. Rhythmic abilities are to a great extent determined by genetics (Vasiljević, Z., 2006), and an important factor of their development are their motor skills (Zimmerman, 1971). The most important ability is the ability to maintain a rhythmic pulse which makes up the baseline of music education classes (Vasiljević, Z., 2006). This ability begins to develop starting from the fifth (possibly eighth) month when the child begins to move to the music (to sway left and right, forwards and backwards, up and down), while its development continues with the development of movement (children tap their feet, lift themselves up, lower their bodies and turn their bodies and arms around – they perceive the rhythm and create the first movements to the music). Between its second and third year of life, a child begins to follow the melody with somewhat more precise rhythmic movements of its hands, legs, head, and sometimes entire body, and as early as its third year relatively successfully coordinates his movements to the music (Đurković-Pantelić, 1997). According to the findings of Davidson et al., the ability to maintain a rhythmic pulse is greater among four-year-olds, in the topological phase of acquiring new songs (according to: Radoš, 1996). However, children between the ages of 4 and 5 can only for a shorter period of time maintain a rhythmic pulse to the same tempo. At the ages of 5 and 6, there is still the absence of harmony between movement and music. At this age, children are better at maintaining a stable rhythmic beat to slower rather than quicker tempo (Radoš, 1996). At the ages of 6 and 7, children can "equally well" adapt to quick and slow tempo (according to: Zimmerman 1971: 25) and are able to govern their basic locomotor movements and so skillfully coordinate their movements to music (Radoš, 1996). The results of the psychological studies of Williams, Sievers & Huttwick indicate that the ability to maintain a rhythmic beat improves with age. Moreover, Petzold indicated that the plateau in the development of this ability is achieved at the age of nine, after which it does not change significantly (according to: Zimmerman, 1971).

Daily, spontaneous singing to a child and with a child within the family (clapping songs, counting rhymes, finger games, counting-out rhymes, folk songs, etc.), are almost always accompanied by movement of the body (clapping, rocking, moving up and down on one's lap, etc.),

and thus adults allow their children to spontaneously equally develop a rhythmic pulse/beat to a certain tempo. This unconscious and spontaneous development in the home is transferred and continues when the child is at play with other children its own age (when choosing who will hide or seek by means of a counting-out rhymes, playing hopscotch, playing jump rope, etc.), dancing at everyday festivities (children can usually be found at the end of each *kolo*) and organized educational work done in preschools (through improvised movement in tune to the music that is being listened to, the performance of traditional and folk games to music). The rhythm to clapping songs, counting rhymes, finger games and songs is built upon the rhythm of spoken language¹¹, and so children, with its performance, unconsciously acquire the accents and rhythmic patterns/clichés based on which we can note rhythmic types, and later the meter.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MUSIC MEMORY

In the opinion of music psychologists, the contours of a melody represent the baseline for remembering entire music wholes (especially long ones), since a contour enables the recognition of repetition, variations or transpositions of parts. In addition to the contours of the melody, in order to memorize a melody, it is very important to note the tone by perceiving the presence of intervals typical for that tonality (Radoš, 1996). That is where folk songs originated from, since the contour of the melody with frequent repetitions of motives and phrases, as well as characteristics intervals based on which we can note the tone in it, enables the individual to memorize songs more easily, or, as Vasiljević points out:

The more of them we learned and the more frequently so [in this case he is referring to folk songs, comment added by N. N.], the easier it was to remember and sing songs, and we can no longer remember: how many songs we know how to sing and which of them was the first one we learned (Vasiljević, M., 1941: VI, author's translation).

THE ROLE OF NATIVE MUSICAL IDIOM IN ACQUIRING NEW MUSIC MATERIAL

Research in the field of musico-linguistics indicates that the musical experience which a child possesses when it starts school is "very trustworthy", is preserved in our system of long-term memory, and is of special importance when it comes to learning new music material

¹¹ Speech rhythm is a natural rhythm of various kinds of spoken languages and language groups, of various dialects, and rhythmic idiosyncrasies of individuals (Vasiljević, Z., 1985: 46).

(Levitin, 2011: 184). When learning new material, the tonal, harmonious, melodic relations in it are evaluated¹² and compared to the “models which the hearer has as a part of his experience, and which originate from his culture, that is, musical idiom” (Antović, 2004: 57, author’s translation) and so we, in accordance with our existing musical experience, tend to contextualize new material and create memory links (Levitin, 2011). The native musical idiom is an important musical experience because children, as Gané points out, learn in a cumulative manner, which means that previous knowledge is a precondition for acquiring new, more complex knowledge (according to: Vilotijević, 2000). Furthermore, findings in the field of didactics indicate that in education, new material should be introduced in accordance with the following principles: starting with the familiar and moving towards the unfamiliar, and from what is close to what is more distant, which means that the selection of material at the very beginning of one’s music education should necessarily consist of material from the child’s native musical idiom, with the gradual introduction of other material.

CONCLUSION

By expressing the attitudes of music psychologists, neuro-musicians and musico-linguists we can note that the abilities to perceive tones, melodies, harmonies and rhythm develop under the influence of unconsciously internalized sounds of a culture, and a genetically-based and culturally-shaped mechanism of expectation. The assimilation of sound patterns of folk songs into the existing mental structures leads to incessant changes to these structures and the development of the ability to acquire new songs as a predisposition for learning new ones. The ability to maintain balanced rhythmic pulse, without which it would not even be possible to consider any discussions of the issues of rhythm as they pertain to music literacy, is developed by performing clapping songs, counting rhymes, finger games, counting-out rhymes, playing traditional child games and the folk dance *kolo* within the family, peer group and during everyday festivities, while the characteristic intervals, as well as the frequent repetition of motives and phrases in folk songs enable easier memorization of songs. We also pointed out that when acquiring new music material, tonal, harmonious, melodious and rhythmic relations within it are recalibrated and are compared to the melodic-harmonious movement within a certain culture (Vasiljević, Z., 2006; Farnsworth, 1969; Lundin, 1967,

¹² Cognitivists assume that during the acquisition of new musical material, a computation of the perceptual attributes takes place, that is, a recalibration of the attributes of individual tones – the strength, height and timbre, as well as of the attributes of musical flows – the melodic contour, intervals and rhythmic structures (Antović, 2004).

Radoš, 1996), the speech rhythm and accent (Vasiljević, Z., 1999, Dobszay, 1992), as well as in the structure of music thinking (Miletić, 2011). In other words, the musical behavior of children within the family, and outside of it, is to a great extent determined by cultural factors, that is, “all the aspects of musical behavior can be linked to the features of the culture to which an individual belongs” (Nešić, Milićević, Todorović, 2006: 138-139, author's translation). We can therefore conclude that music education for younger elementary school children should include material that is a part of the native musical idiom of the environment in which the child is being raised, which is only methodically justifiable and in accordance with the didactic principle of procedure and systematicity, that is, the rules of moving from the familiar to the unknown and from what is closer to what is more distant¹³. Therefore, over the past few years there has been an increase in the number of studies on folk songs of various parts of Serbia from the aspect of their methodological function in music education (Kodela & Nikolić, 2016; Nikšić, 2018). The enrichment of classwork with material from the environment in which the child is being raised should be accompanied by the constant improvement and strengthening of the competencies of the teacher, but also the preschool teacher, since they are the first individuals who work in a planned manner to develop a child's musical abilities¹⁴.

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¹³ Stošić, in his pedagogical implications of the study of the choice of music education coursebooks from the aspect of vocal development, points out that the selection of music material from the curriculum must be based on an additional choice of songs which would differ based on region, just as they differ in their musical features (Stošić, 2016).

¹⁴ During preschool, the preschool teacher is the first individual whose skills, knowledge and relationship towards music could contribute to the child's musical development and learning, as well as help nurture its relationship with music. Therefore, the need for the constant support of preschool teachers in their attempt to develop their methodological competencies should be emphasized (Đurđanović, Stošić, 2017; Grujić, Ignjačević 2018).

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УЛОГА МУЗИЧКОГ МАТЕРЊЕГ ЈЕЗИКА У РАЗВОЈУ МУЗИЧКИХ СПОСОБНОСТИ И УСВАЈАЊУ НОВИХ САДРЖАЈА

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Резиме

Једно од основних методичких полазишта истакнутог музичког педагога Кодаља (Kodaly) јесте да у настави Музичке културе треба поћи од музичког матерњег језика дечи. Овај принцип рада, који су Кодаљеви ученици и следбеници увели у наставни процес основних и музичких школа у Мађарској још пре више од шездесет година, одакле се веома брзо пренео на земље европског, америчког и аустралијског континента, и данас је основно полазиште бројних афирмисаних метода и школа у свету.

О значају музичког матерњег језика за музички развој и сазнање детета често је писано у домаћој и страниј методичкој литератури. Међутим, нигде не наилазимо на јасно одређење овог појма, као ни на мултидисциплинарни приступ сагледавању његове улоге у развоју музичких способности и усвајању нових музичких садржаја. Отуда смо у овом раду, теоријском анализом доступне литературе, прво дефинисали појам „музички матерњи језик“. Потом смо, кроз изношење ставова психолога музике, неуромузичара и музиколлингвиста, истакли да се способност опажања тонова, мелодије, хармоније и ритма развијају под утицајем несвесно интернализованих звукова културе и генетски заснованом и културом обликованом механизму ишчекивања. У раду смо нагласили да асимиловање звучних образаца народних песама у постојеће менталне структуре води непрестаном мењању тих структура и развијању способности усвајања песме као предиспозиције за учење нових песама. Указали смо и на то да се способност одржавања равномерне ритмичке пулсације, без које је незамислива поставка ритмичке проблематике музичке писмености, развија извођењем тапшалица, цупкалица, игара прстима, бројалица, играњем традиционалних дечијих игара и народних кола у оквиру породице, вршњачких група и славља из свакодневног живота, те да карактеристични ин-

тервали, као и често понављање мотива и фраза у народним песмама, омогућавају лакше памћење песама. Такође смо истакли и да се при учењу новог музичког садржаја тонални, хармонски, мелодијски и ритмички односи из њега прерачунавају и пореде са мелодијско-хармонским кретањима у оквиру одређене културе, говорним ритмом и акцентима, као и структуром музичког мишљења.

Зато смо става да се настава Музичке културе у млађим разредима основне школе мора изводити на садржајима музичког матерњег језика средине у којој дете одраста, што је једино методички оправдано и у складу са дидактичким принципом поступности и систематичности, односно правилима од познатог ка непознатом и од ближег ка даљем.

CO-OPERATION AND PARTNER RELATIONSHIPS IN PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND UPBRINGING – PARENTAL SATISFACTION ^a

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Abstract

From the standpoint of a systemic approach, the paper considers the co-operation between families and pre-school institutions. It indicates the relevance and topicality of this issue in a time of reform which aims to build a quality pre-school education. The paper advocates the process supportive model of partnership between parents and pre-school teachers that places focus on the quality of their interrelations.

The research aim was to examine parental satisfaction with the co-operation with pre-school teachers. Research results have shown a high degree of respondents' agreement with the assertions relating to parental satisfaction with the co-operation with a pre-school institution. The research data obtained on a sample of parents with college and university degrees are indicative because they expressed the lowest level of satisfaction with such co-operation. However, respondents within this category have highly assessed the assertions relating to parental involvement in the work of a pre-school institution and pre-school teachers' acknowledgment of parental recommendations, which is encouraging from the standpoint of developing a partnership between parents and pre-school teachers. Pedagogical implications of the research can be observed from a theoretical standpoint in terms of inspiring other researchers to further delve into relationships between family and the system of pre-school education and upbringing, especially from a standpoint of numerous determinants which shape those relations. Implications for the pedagogical practice are reflected in perceiving that the category of highly educated parents comprises a significant force that can initiate changes concerning the co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers in terms of establishing and developing partner relationships and other topical changes in the field of pre-school education and upbringing.

Key words: pre-school teachers, parents, pre-school institution, co-operation, partnership.

^a The paper is a part of the *Enhancing professional competencies of prospective pedagogues within the framework of undergraduate academic studies of pedagogy* project (360/1-16-5-01), carried out at the University of Niš, Faculty of Philosophy. This study was sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the RS.

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САРАДЊА И ПАРТНЕРСКИ ОДНОСИ У ПРЕДШКОЛСКОМ ВАСПИТАЊУ – ЗАДОВОЉСТВО РОДИТЕЉА

Апстракт

Рад са позиције системског приступа разматра тему сарадње породице и предшколских установа. Указује на значај и актуелност теме у време реформских промена које теже да изграде квалитет у систему предшколског васпитања и образовања. Наглашава се значај процесно-подражавајућег модела партнерства родитеља и васпитача, који потенцира квалитет односа родитеља и васпитача.

Циљ истраживања је испитивање задовољства родитеља сарадњом са васпитачима предшколских установа. Резултати истраживања су показали висок степен сагласности испитаника са свим тврдњама које указују на задовољство сарадњом са предшколском установом. Индикативни подаци истраживања добијени су на узорку родитеља са вишим и високим образовањем који су исказали најнижи степен задовољства сарадњом. Међутим, испитаници у оквиру ове категорије високо су вредновали тврдње које се односе на укључивање родитеља у рад установе и уважавање предлога од стране васпитача, што је охрабрује са аспекта развоја партнерских односа на релацији родитељ–васпитач. Педагошке импликације истраживања могу се сагледати на теоријском нивоу у смислу инспирације истраживачима за дубље проучавање односа породичног и система предшколског васпитања и образовања, посебно са аспеката бројних детерминаната које обликују ове односе. Импликације за педагошку праксу односе се на стицање увида у то да категорија високообразованих родитеља представља значајну снагу која може покренути промене у делу сарадње родитеља и васпитача у правцу успостављања и развоја партнерских односа и другим актуелним променама у области предшколског васпитања и образовања.

Кључне речи: васпитачи, родитељи, предшколска установа, сарадња, партнерски однос.

INTRODUCTION

The quality of the relations in pre-school education is determined by various factors, including the co-operation between a pre-school institution and family. The value of such co-operation has been recognized in various official documents such as those issued by the European Commission stating that family is one of the key quality determinants and the principal partner of educational institutions in children's education (ECEC, 2014). Article 6 of The Law on Fundamentals of Education System (2017) indicates that the co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers is one of the key elements of quality education. The Rulebook on Work Permits for Class Teachers, Pre-school Teachers and Professional Assistants (2005), in the part relating to the co-operation between colleagues, families and local communities, states that pre-school teachers need to understand the importance of fostering a partnership with families. The New Pre-school Curriculum Framework *Years of Ascent* (2018) advocates partnerships with families by building mutual trust, respect and constant open communication and dialogue.

In the current reform of the pre-school education system in our country co-operation with parents is a prerequisite for quality building (Krnjaja & Pavlović Breneselović, 2013; Pavlović Breneselović, 2015; Krnjaja, 2016). In our region, the co-operation between pre-school institutions and families has advanced from parental exclusion over co-operation and inclusion according to a previously defined form to the current partnership with parents and their active inclusion in the life and work of pre-school institutions (Jelić, Stojković, & Markov, 2018). In that context, the current practice is oriented towards the development of a partnership and it could be described as a transition period from a paradigm of parallel systems (whereby family and a pre-school institution are observed as two separate systems of different scope and functions) towards a paradigm of support whereby those two systems are observed through overlapping spheres of functions and influences, which results in education and upbringing based on a partner relationship (Pavlović Breneselović, 2014).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The recent relevant literature stresses the importance of co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers (Murray, McFarland-Piazza & Harrison, 2015; O'Connor et al, 2017; Vuorinen, 2020; Winder & Corter, 2016). Research by Jeon and associates (Jeon, McCartney, Richard, & Johnson, 2020) points to the existence of a connection between the co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers and the development of socio-emotional competences in children, which means that positive relationships contribute to better socio-emotional functioning of a child. Similarly, various study results show that there are multivariate relationships between the dimensions of parental involvement in the work of kindergartens and social and academic competences in children. Specifically, a study by McWayne and associates (2004) confirmed that children whose parents dedicate due attention to learning and maintain regular contacts with the kindergarten exhibit positive behavior in their contacts with adults and peers (McWayne, Hampton, Fantuzzo, Cohen, & Sekino, 2004). According to assertions encountered in a study by Powell and associates (2010) active positioning of parents in the process of co-operation with a pre-school institution results in positive impacts on children's social skills and knowledge in the field of mathematics and it can prevent behavioral issues (Powell, Son, File, & San Juan, 2010). Various authors indicate that a more intense engagement of parents and their good communication with the kindergarten constitute important predictors of better results and higher academic achievements in children, especially with regards to reading skills and mathematics (Galindo & Sheldon, 2012). Greater involvement of one's family in pre-school institution's ac-

tivities, according to Van Voorhis and associates (2013) significantly contributes to the development of literacy and mathematical abilities in children. The findings of this particular research confirm the stance that it is necessary to plan and strengthen the ties between family and a pre-school institution (Van Voorhis, Maier, Epstein, & Lloyd, 2013). Thus, the co-operation between families and pre-school institutions becomes increasingly relevant and it requires more extensive research.

The theoretical ground for this paper is Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecosystemic approach. According to this theory, open systems are delineated by a wealth of relations with the environment, the exchange of information in both directions which helps harmonize the relationship between the system and the environment, and vice versa. In that context, pre-school institutions as open systems permanently build relations with local and wider social contexts and families, as the most immediate partners. In the process of partnership development, the role of pre-school teachers can hardly be exaggerated. They need continual professional improvement which enables one to gain critical insight into one's implicit pedagogy and practice (Pavlović Breneselović, Pavlovski, 2000). Pre-school teachers who display independence and creativity and undertake initiative in their work can establish relationships for an active positioning of parents and building qualitatively different relationships and true partnership and collaboration (Pavlović Breneselović, Pavlovski, 2012).

A more detailed definition of the ecosystemic approach in the domain of partnership development is found in Pavlović Breneselović (2010) who suggests two models of partnership development: utilitarian and process-oriented. According to the author, the first approach is more dominant in practice. It is based on complementary interests and concurrent goals which result in sharing common import prompting a process of joint activities. On the other hand, in the process-oriented model the abovementioned interests and goals form the basis for developing a partnership, while joint activities are necessary to build trust and common import resulting in a partnership as mutual support (Pavlović Breneselović, 2010). All through the pursuit of this model, a partnership is determined by the nature and character of the relationship itself. In that context, the partnership between a pre-school institution and family is seen as a process resulting in mutual support realized through mutual interaction. The second model, a process supportive partnership model, is especially significant from the standpoint of our research since the largest number of items, i.e. assertions stated in the instrument, is based on examining the relationships in the process of co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers. Interaction of the abovementioned subsystems is achieved through different forms: written and direct communication, direct participation of parents, parental activities (Pavlović Breneselović & Krnjaja, 2017). Various forms of co-operation between families and pre-

school institutions aim at securing a constant information flow to satisfy the needs of parents and pre-school teachers. Hence, it is important that parents and pre-school teachers are satisfied with the mutual co-operation.

Research studies dealing with the co-operation between parents and pre-school institutions examine different aspects, and numerous papers are oriented towards examining parental satisfaction with the co-operation (Edwards, 2018). Research is focused on parental satisfaction with pre-school education and education in general, or on examining specific topics such as parental expectations (Sollars, 2017), satisfaction with the curricula (McNaughton, 1994), the correlations between certain variables, such as the parents' education level and their satisfaction with pre-school education (Kelesidou et al, 2017) or parental satisfaction in rural or urban areas (Teleki & Buck-Gomez, 2002).

To establish a functional co-operation between family and a pre-school institution, pre-school teachers should be aware of parental expectations and parents should know how pre-school institutions work. Solaris Research (Solaris, 2017) showed that parents are often insufficiently introduced to pre-school education and that they mostly rely on the advice and previous experiences of close friends and relatives when opting for a kindergarten. Research studies show that parents have certain expectations from pre-school professionals: they want someone who cares about their children; they want to be appreciated and observed as active agents in their children's education; they wish to participate in planning activities and have their ideas recognized and used in shaping the quality environment for children; they expect that pre-school teachers are competent professionals who provide adequate services and satisfy their needs; they wish to have a close relationship with pre-school teachers (Swick, 2004). Based on established expectations it is possible to build strategies to successfully involve parents: pre-school teachers should build meaningful relations with all parents, mind the first contacts with parents, and resourcefully maintain permanent communication (Knopf & Swick, 2007).

Parental satisfaction is undoubtedly based on expectations that pre-school institutions/teachers will provide good care, education, and supervision of their children. To support this assertion, we provide data obtained from the research conducted in Finland which confirms that parents expect from practitioners to assume their obligations and responsibilities while children are in the kindergarten (Vuorinen, 2018). Parents are primarily focused on the wellbeing and safety of their children, and education outcomes become secondary if the former has not been provided. Research results obtained on a sample of 10 interviewed parents show that parents strive for continuity. They are satisfied if they have regular communication with pre-school teachers who are not frequently substituted. Parents perceive co-operation as a partnership and they are ready to

work with pre-school teachers to create favorable conditions for a child's growth and development (Vuorinen, 2018, p. 208-209).

Research performed during the 2000s (Fantuzzo, Perry & Childs, 2006; Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs, 2000), showed that families are included in their children's education in a manifold and complex manner and that, accordingly, one needs to move past one-dimensional estimates of family involvement and develop sets of instruments to examine multidimensional nature of family inclusion in pre-school education. In that context, there is a significant study that describes the development and assessment of a questionnaire regarding family inclusion in pre-school education (Fantuzzo et al, 2000). This study included a sample of 641 parents of children who attend kindergartens and schools, and the findings indicate three constructs of parental inclusion: a mutual exchange of information between parents and experts, parental inclusion in kindergarten and school activities and children's education at home. The findings indicate that there are correlations and statistically significant differences in parental attitudes towards the family structure and parents' education level. In that context, one should mention the research by Fantuzzo and associates (Fantuzzo et al., 2006) which resulted in developing an empirically tested scale of parental satisfaction with children's education. The research included a sample of 648 parents of children who attend kindergartens and initial grades of urban primary schools. Factor analysis indicated three significant dimensions: parental satisfaction with an educational experience in communication with pre-school teachers; satisfaction with communication in the classroom and satisfaction with the communication with the educational institution as a whole. The results of this research indicate that there are statistically significant differences concerning the demographic variables regarding marital status and parents' working status.

The scale by Fantuzzo and associates (Fantuzzo et al, 2006) was also applied in a research study (Hong, Zhu, Wu, & Li, 2020) on a sample of pre-school children and those attending the initial grades of primary schools (by 27515 parents in 12 Chinese cities). The data obtained through descriptive statistics indicate that parents in China are the most satisfied with experiences relating to communication in a pre-school group; this is followed by satisfaction with communication with pre-school teachers and class teachers and lastly, they are satisfied with the respective school or kindergarten.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research aims to examine parental satisfaction regarding their co-operation with a pre-school institution. Following the established goals we have defined research tasks: 1) To examine parental attitudes regarding their satisfaction with the co-operation with a pre-school institution,

as well as with space arrangement, parental meetings, daily regime, and forms of informing parents about the work of the respective institution; 2) To examine the impact of independent variables (sex, age, education, pedagogical group, and parents' workplace) on parental satisfaction with a pre-school institution.

The general research hypothesis assumes that parents are satisfied with the co-operation with pre-school institutions. Specific hypotheses have been formulated in the following manner: 1) It is assumed that parents are satisfied with the co-operation with employees in pre-school institutions, space arrangement, parental meetings, work regime, and manners of informing parents about the work in the institution; 2) It is assumed that independent variables (sex, age, education, pedagogical group, and parents' workplace) influence parental satisfaction with their co-operation with a pre-school institution in a statistically significant degree.

The research resorted to a descriptive method which was selected following the nature of the research subject. The sample comprises 763 parents on the territory of Serbia (Leskovac, Zaječar, Svrlijig, Kraljevo, Smederevo, and Pirot) whose attitudes have been analyzed from the position of sex (female and male), age (under 35 and over 35), an education level (secondary school, college and university) and a pre-school group (nursery, kindergarten, preparatory).

The research study resorted to a five-point assessment scale ZRSPU (a Serbian acronym for Parents' satisfaction regarding the co-operation with a pre-school institution) which is a part of a larger instrument used to research into the quality of relationships in the pre-school education and upbringing (KOPVO). The assessment subscale comprises 16 items intentionally constructed for this research. The assessment scale ranges from number 1 (complete disagreement) to number 5 (complete agreement). To ascertain the reliability of the scale the authors resorted to Cronbach's α coefficient which indicates high reliability and internal consistency for this sample (0.92). The research was conducted in the course of 2019, i.e. from January to the end of November. The course of research unfolded in three phases. In the first phase, principals and pre-school teachers were introduced to the research, its goals, and implementation methodology. In this phase all principals accepted that the research be conducted in their institution. In the second phase, pre-school teachers were provided with instruments and they were given instructions on how to guide parents in the process of filling out the scale. Afterward, pre-school teachers provided the parents whose children attend the respective pre-school institution with the instruments. After providing their responses the parents were obliged to return the scales to pre-school teachers. In the third phase, the instruments were gathered from pre-school teachers, and they were prepared for data processing.

Statistical data processing was performed in the SPSS program. The results obtained through the research were entered into a universal database, which was followed by measurements of the arithmetic mean (M), standard deviation (SD), T-test, and F-test.

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Based on the analysis of research results showed in Table 1 one can conclude that as much as 84.4% of parents are completely satisfied, while 14.5% of parents are partly satisfied with pre-school teachers' attitudes towards children. The number of parents who believe that the child-pre-school teacher relationship is not satisfactory (completely: M-0.1 and partly: M-0.3), or are indecisive regarding the estimate (M-0.7) is considerable. The starting point is the assumption that parental awareness of pre-school teachers' attitude towards children can be acquired directly (by observing their relationships when they arrive or leave the kindergarten, when visiting the group that a child attends, etc.) or indirectly (when talking with their children or pre-school teachers). The obtained results indicate that parents are generally satisfied with the relationship between pre-school teachers and children, which is a significant piece of information from the standpoint of pedagogical theory and even more from a standpoint of practice in pre-school institutions. On the one hand, the information indicates that the state of practice is satisfactory. However, from the obtained data one cannot make a deduction about the nature of relationships between parents and pre-school teachers, or about potential issues that can occur in their relationships. Accordingly, this information can be significant for future research studies which may focus on the nature of relationships between parents and pre-school teachers.

Research results indicate that parents have positive attitudes towards space arrangement in the kindergarten (M-4.76). Partial or complete agreement is observed in the assertion that parents (98.8%) perceive pre-school teachers as available and co-operative. A large majority of respondents (95.1%) believe that their suggestions are adopted by pre-school teachers. A high degree of agreement (M-4.47%) is expressed regarding parental meetings and adequate attitude of pre-school teachers towards children. A large percentage of parents (95.6%) find themselves included in the work of a pre-school institution, satisfied with the work regime (M-4.70), and with the information flow regarding the work of the pre-school institution (M-4.63). They consider themselves partners (M-4.67) who are introduced to the goals and activities in the pre-school institution (M-4.58). It is reassuring that pre-school teachers are interested in parents' educational approach in the family setting and their pedagogical education (M-4.33), and in introducing parents to the developmental characteristics and potentials of pre-school children (M-4.56). Significantly,

Table 1. Parental satisfaction regarding the co-operation with a pre-school institution

Assumption	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am satisfied with pre-school teacher's attitude towards children	4.82	0.43	0.1	0.3	0.7	14.5	84.4
2. I am satisfied with space arrangement in the kindergarten	4.76	0.50	0.1	0.7	1.3	18.0	79.9
3. Pre-school teachers are easily available and ready to co-operate	4.78	0.45	0.1	/	1.0	18.7	80.1
4. Pre-school teachers always adopt parental suggestions	4.58	0.60	0.1	0.4	4.3	30.9	64.2
5. Pre-school teachers are ready to provide professional advice regarding education	4.77	0.48	0.1	0.1	2.0	17.2	80.6
6. At parental meetings in a pre-school institution current topics are regularly discussed	4.74	0.49	/	0.4	1.8	20.3	77.5
7. Relationships between pre-school teachers and parents are characterized by kindness, understanding and support	4.74	0.46	/	/	1.2	23.3	75.5
8. Pre-school teachers include parents in the work of pre-school institution	4.65	0.57	/	0.4	4.1	25.6	70.0
9. I am satisfied with the work regime in the pre-school institution	4.70	0.53	/	0.5	2.1	23.7	73.7
10. I am satisfied with the manner of informing parents about the work in the pre-school institution	4.63	0.59	0.1	0.4	4.1	26.2	69.2
11. Pre-school teachers foster partnership with parents	4.67	0.52	/	0.3	2.2	26.9	70.6
12. Pre-school teachers introduce parents to goals and activities in the pre-school institution	4.58	0.60	0.3	0.3	3.5	32.5	63.4
13. Pre-school teachers are interested in parents' educational approach and their pedagogical education	4.33	0.81	0.1	1.8	15.5	30.0	52.6
14. Pre-school teachers introduce us to the children's developmental characteristics and potentials	4.56	0.66	0.1	1.7	4.2	29.4	64.6
15. I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	4.52	0.75	0.5	2.5	5.5	26.6	64.9
16. I am satisfied with the co-operation with pre-school teachers, professional services and principals.	4.61	0.59	0.1	0.5	3.1	30.5	65.7

as much as 91.5% of parents would not introduce changes to co-operation with pre-school teachers while 96.2% of them give positively assess the quality of relationship and co-operation with pre-school teachers, professional service, and institution principals. The data obtained through the research indicate that, from the parents' standpoint, the co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers is on a high level. Especially significant appears to be the fact that parents perceive themselves as partners which implies that parents are involved in solving all important issues relating to the work organization in a pre-school institution, especially in all those activities relating to children's well-being. It is indicative, however, that the largest number of respondents would not change anything about their co-operation with pre-school teachers. In that context, one can rightly pose the question of whether one truly deals with full co-operation based on the principles of partnership, or perhaps the respondents tend to provide socially desirable answers, which can constitute a weakness in this type of research.

Table 2 shows a statistically significant difference in respondents' replies from the standpoint of their sex. Average response analysis indicates a high degree of agreement with assertions examining parental satisfaction regarding their co-operation with pre-school institution employees.

Table 2. Statistically significant differences in parental attitudes in relation to their sex

Assertion	Sex	M	SD	T	df	p																																				
Pre-school teachers are easily available and ready to co-operate	Female	4.81	0.44	2.34	420	0.02																																				
	Male	4.72	0.46				Pre-school teachers always adopt parental suggestions	Female	4.63	0.58	3.11	406	0.00	Male	4.48	0.63	Relationships between parents and pre-school teachers are characterized by kindness, understanding and support	Female	4.76	0.44	2.21	393	0.02	Male	4.68	0.50	I am satisfied with the manner of informing parents about the work in the pre-school institution	Female	4.60	0.62	-2.79	536	0.00	Male	4.72	0.50	I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Female	4.49	0.79	-2.15	537
Pre-school teachers always adopt parental suggestions	Female	4.63	0.58	3.11	406	0.00																																				
	Male	4.48	0.63				Relationships between parents and pre-school teachers are characterized by kindness, understanding and support	Female	4.76	0.44	2.21	393	0.02	Male	4.68	0.50	I am satisfied with the manner of informing parents about the work in the pre-school institution	Female	4.60	0.62	-2.79	536	0.00	Male	4.72	0.50	I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Female	4.49	0.79	-2.15	537	0.03	Male	4.61	0.64						
Relationships between parents and pre-school teachers are characterized by kindness, understanding and support	Female	4.76	0.44	2.21	393	0.02																																				
	Male	4.68	0.50				I am satisfied with the manner of informing parents about the work in the pre-school institution	Female	4.60	0.62	-2.79	536	0.00	Male	4.72	0.50	I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Female	4.49	0.79	-2.15	537	0.03	Male	4.61	0.64																
I am satisfied with the manner of informing parents about the work in the pre-school institution	Female	4.60	0.62	-2.79	536	0.00																																				
	Male	4.72	0.50				I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Female	4.49	0.79	-2.15	537	0.03	Male	4.61	0.64																										
I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Female	4.49	0.79	-2.15	537	0.03																																				
	Male	4.61	0.64																																							

Research data show that mothers mostly assess pre-school teachers as available, ready to co-operate (M-4.81) and adopt parental suggestions (M-4.63), that they share a relationship characterized by kindness, understanding and support (M-4.76), unlike fathers, who have expressed a lower level of agreement with the aforementioned assertions. In contrast, research results show that fathers (M-4.72) are more satisfied with how parents are informed about the work in pre-school institutions and they

have less desire than mothers to change the manner of co-operation with pre-school teachers (M-4.61).

The obtained data relating to statistical differences in respondents' attitudes in terms of their sex can be considered expected, primarily because mothers of pre-school children are more engaged in all aspects of children's lives, including the aspect of co-operation with pre-school institutions. Female respondents highly assessed their relations with pre-school teachers characterized by politeness, understanding, and support, which is also expected because in some earlier research studies it had been shown that subtle aspects of trust play extremely important role in the co-operation between parents and pre-school teachers (Kikas et al. 2011). In contrast, fathers assessed more positively the assertions relating to the forms of informing parents of the work in pre-school institutions. Accordingly, one can assert that fathers are more oriented towards obtaining information from the institution and less towards their personal engagement, which is confirmed by the data that are more or less concurrent with the assertion that they would not introduce any changes in the process of co-operation.

Data presented in Table 3 show that younger parents (under 35 years of age) assess more positively the co-operation with pre-school institutions.

Table 3. Statistically significant differences in parental attitudes in relation to respondents' age

Assertion	Age	M	SD	T	df	p
Pre-school teachers always adopt parental suggestions	Under 35	4.63	0.57	2.38	611	0.01
	Over 35	4.52	0.64			
At parental meetings in the pre-school institution current topics are regularly discussed	Under 35	4.78	0.48	2.48	627	0.01
	Over 35	4.69	0.52			
Pre-school teachers are interested in parents' educational approach and their pedagogical education	Under 35	4.41	0.76	3.60	761	0.00
	Over 35	4.20	0.85			
Pre-school teachers introduce us to the children's developmental characteristics and potentials	Under 35	4.61	0.63	2.54	615	0.01
	Over 35	4.49	0.70			

Younger parents more readily agree with the assertion stating that pre-school teachers adopt parental suggestions (M-4.63), that they are interested in parents' educational approach and their pedagogical education (M-4.41) and that they introduce them to the developmental characteristics and potentials of pre-school children (M-4.61), unlike parents who are older than 35. Average response analysis indicates that parents younger

than 35 assess the quality of parental meetings at the pre-school institution more positively (M-4.78) than parents over the age of 35 (M-4.69). One can safely assert that respondents who belong to the category of parents younger than 35 more readily agree on the co-operation with parents, which is also an expected piece of information. The reasons could be traced to the fact that many of them enroll their children for the first time for a pre-school institution, that they do not have enough parental experience in co-operating with a pre-school institution or sufficiently developed parental competences in terms of recognizing the characteristics and potentials of children of a certain age. In that context, a child's age and order of birth play an important role. The younger the child, the parents show a bigger interest in his/her advancement in the kindergarten, which is especially noticeable when one deals with the first child in the family. It is important for the parents who belong to this category that pre-school teachers hear them, that their suggestions are acknowledged, and that they are introduced to developmental characteristics and potentials of children of a certain age, as well as to obtain specific pedagogical education. In contrast, those who belong to the category of parents older than 35 mostly have larger parental and life experiences, or they have their second child in the kindergarten, so they are well acquainted with the topics in the field of parental competences.

The data presented in Table 4 show that respondents with a college degree assess more positively the co-operation with pre-school institutions regarding the following aspects: adopting suggestions (M-4.67), providing professional advice about education (M-4.82) and including parents in the work of the institution (M-4.73). A somewhat lower level of agreement was expressed by parents with the lowest level of education, while the lowest level of agreement is expressed by parents with a university diploma.

The results show that parents with a lower level of education (secondary education: M-4.58 and college: M-4.63) would change nothing in co-operation with employees of the pre-school institution. They are, accordingly, largely satisfied with their communication with pre-school teachers, professional services and pre-school institution principals. The readiness to improve co-operation with pre-school institution employees is mostly dominant in parents with a university diploma.

However, despite stated differences, all three categories of respondents expressed a partial agreement with the presented assertion.

However, it is rather indicative that parents with the highest level of education, i.e. those who have university and college degrees, exhibit the lowest degree of agreement with the offered items. The reasons for this are different. One of them is most certainly reflected in high expectations of this category of parents concerning the pre-school institution and the offer related to development, upbringing and education of pre-school children. Namely, from the standpoint of their education level, these parents can exhibit a high level of aspirations towards their children's

achievements. Another reason, not less significant, lies in the fact that these parents are more educated both in general terms and in the domain of pedagogical competences, that they have more knowledge in comparison to other parents regarding the upbringing and development of children or regarding information about the manners in which parents can be involved in the work of a pre-school institution. Furthermore, one can assume that highly educated parents are more familiar with their rights and the rights of their children and they are ready to criticize and publicly show their dissatisfaction. From that standpoint, it is significant that parents with college and university degrees provided the most positive assessment of the co-operation with pre-school institutions with regards to the number of acknowledged suggestions given to pre-school teachers and obtained professional advice regarding pre-school education by pre-school teachers and professional associates. Likewise, it is especially important that parents from this category gave positive assessments to the involvement of parents in the work of a pre-school institution, which implies the development of the partnership, i.e. the positioning of parents as partners in education. This is corroborated by the research result indicating that parents who belong to this category showed readiness to improve their co-operation with a pre-school institution.

Table 4. Statistically significant differences in parental attitudes in relation to parents' education level

Assertion	Education level	M	SD	F	df	p
Pre-school teachers always adopt parental suggestions	Secondary school	4.59	0.60			
	College	4.67	0.49	5.42	762	0.00
	University	4.47	0.71			
Pre-school teachers are ready to provide professional advice about education	Secondary school	4.79	0.43			
	College	4.82	0.44	5.24	762	0.00
	University	4.67	0.60			
Pre-school teachers include parents in the work of their institution	Secondary school	4.62	0.59			
	College	4.73	0.48	3.19	762	0.04
	University	4.59	0.64			
Pre-school teachers are interested in parents' educational approach and their pedagogical education	Secondary school	4.43	0.74			
	College	4.32	0.77	8.83	762	0.00
	University	4.12	0.93			
Pre-school teachers introduce us to the children's developmental characteristics and potentials	Secondary school	4.63	0.61			
	College	4.56	0.57	5.67	762	0.00
	University	4.42	0.85			
I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Secondary school	4.58	0.68			
	College	4.63	0.63	13.7	762	0.00
	University	4.27	0.96			
I am satisfied with the co-operation with pre-school teachers, professional service and principals.	Secondary school	4.65	0.59			
	College	4.62	0.52	5.08	762	0.00
	University	4.48	0.65			

Data presented in Table 5 show that the quality of parental meetings is most positively assessed by the parents of children in the preparatory group (M-4.71). Parents of children in the nursery group express a lower level of agreement (M-4.71), while the parents of children in the kindergarten group express the lowest level of agreement (M-4.69).

Table 5. Statistically significant differences in parental attitudes in relation to the pre-school group attended by children

Assertion	Pre-school group	M	SD	F	df	p
At parental meetings in the pre-school institution current topics are regularly discussed	Nursery	4.71	0.49	3.61	762	0.02
	Kindergarten	4.69	0.53			
	Preparatory	4.79	0.47			
I would change nothing regarding the co-operation with pre-school institution employees	Nursery	4.34	0.84	6.73	762	0.00
	Kindergarten	4.58	0.65			
	Preparatory	4.57	0.75			

Parents of children in different pre-school groups would not change anything in the co-operation with pre-school employees, considering that their answers have a numerical range interpreted as a high level of partial agreement leaning towards the complete agreement. Parents of children in the kindergarten group (M-4.58) and preparatory group (M-4.57) show less tendency and desire to change something in the co-operation with the pre-school employees, unlike parents of children in the nursery group (M-4.34).

One can assess as expected the presence of statistically significant differences in parents' responses with regards to the pedagogical group that a child attends. Parents of children who attend preparatory pre-school groups expressed the highest level of agreement with the organization and the quality of parental meetings. The obtained results can primarily be interpreted from the standpoint of a child's age and topics of parental meetings. Namely, parents of children who attend the preparatory pre-school program, find parental meetings significant primarily because of the topics which they impose (issues connected with preparing children for school) because they believe that they can obtain useful information regarding the child's enrolment for primary school, though it is well known that children are being prepared for primary school throughout their pre-school period. In that context, it is interesting that parents of children in preparatory groups, as well as in the kindergarten, show more tendency towards changes in their co-operation with the institution, unlike parents of children in nursery groups. Namely, these data confirm that with the increase in children's age parents tend to become more involved in the work of pre-school institutions because the range of children's interests becomes wider and their focus is moved from basic issues related to health and hygienic habits towards the issues of children's growth, education and upbringing.

CONCLUSION

Based on research data one can conclude that both specific research hypotheses have been confirmed. Namely, it has been established that there is a high level of parental agreement with all assertions indicating satisfaction with the co-operation with the pre-school institution, which confirms the first research hypothesis. Likewise, independent research variables show that there are statistically significant differences, which confirms the second hypothesis.

Although the obtained results point to satisfaction of parents with the cooperation with a pre-school institution, one rightfully faces the dilemma regarding the quality of the current relationship with a pre-school institution, especially if one bears in mind that satisfaction with the cooperation does not imply the partnership whose importance is emphasized in modern theoretical approaches and the current legislation. In that context, one is encouraged by the research results showing that parents with college and university degrees most positively assess the co-operation with pre-school institutions regarding the acknowledgment of suggestions that they share with pre-school teachers, professional advice about children's education offered by pre-school teachers and professional associates, as assertions which relate to the involvement of parents in the work of the pre-school institution, which indicates a possible presence and development of partner relationships, i.e. positioning of parents as partners in education. In favor of partner relationships whose significance is emphasized in modern theoretical concepts, one can provide research results stating that parents who have the highest education showed great readiness to improve the co-operation with a pre-school institution.

Research results can have significant implications for the field of pedagogical theory and practice. In the field of pedagogical theory, the results can be inspirational for future research studies in the domain of co-operation with parents and development of partner relationships, especially from the standpoint of a larger number of variables which determine the relationships between parents and pre-school teachers, as well as from a standpoint relating to the structure of a family and interrelations and relationships within a family system. In the domain of pedagogical practice significant implications of the research results can relate to the examined parental categories, especially concerning the parents' education level. In that context, it is important to know that highly educated parents constitute a significant force and potential for changes in the field of co-operation with parents and even beyond that, in the field of changes in the pre-school education as a whole. Bearing in mind that parents' education is a significant determinant for parental partnership, it is possible to organize different training sessions with parents at the level of practice to strengthen parental competences for responsible parenthood, as well as for active involvement in the work of pre-school institutions. From that

standpoint, in the process of developing relationships between parents and pre-school institutions one can expect positive changes regarding the development of partnerships in education.

This paper provides insight into the parental perception of the co-operation with pre-school institutions in terms of their satisfaction with the quality of relationships with pre-school teachers, professional services and principals. The research also indicates the significance of independent variables which offer insight into how different categories of parents perceive the co-operation with pre-school institutions and the extent to which they are satisfied with it. The limitations of the conducted research are in its exclusive quantitative methodology and the fact that the respondents are parents alone. It is well-known that an objective assessment should also consider pre-school teachers' perspectives, which can be a recommendation for future research. Considering the importance of the co-operation with parents for improving the quality of pre-school education, and the knowledge that points to the correlation between the co-operation and the development of children's competencies, one can assume that the research into this topic shall become more intensive in the future.

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САРАДЊА И ПАРТНЕРСКИ ОДНОСИ У ПРЕДШКОЛСКОМ ВАСПИТАЊУ – ЗАДОВОЉСТВО РОДИТЕЉА

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Резиме

У првом делу рада указује се на значај сарадње породице и предшколске установе, разматрају се теоријска полазишта и релевантна истраживања. У методолошком делу рада приказани су резултати истраживања о задовољству родитеља квалитетом односа са васпитачима, стручном службом и директорима. Узорак истраживања чини 763 родитеља са територије Србије чија деца похађају државне предшколске установе. Ставови родитеља анализирани су у односу на независне варијабле истраживања: пол, године старости, степен образовања и васпитну групу. Општа хипотеза истраживања: родитељи су задовољни сарадњом са предшколском установом, а посебне хипотезе су: 1) родитељи су задовољни сарадњом са васпитачима и другим запосленима у предшколској установи; 2) независне варијабле (пол, године старости, степен образовања, васпитна група деце и место рада родитеља) статистички значајно утичу на ставове родитеља о задовољству сарадњом са предшколском установом. У анализи резултата истраживања коришћена је дескриптивна статистика (т-тест и ф-тест).

На основу података добијених истраживањем, установљен је висок степен сагласности испитаних родитеља са свим тврдњама које указују на задовољство сарадњом са предшколском установом. Утврђене су статистички значајне разлике у одговорима испитаних родитеља у односу на независне варијабле, при чему је утврђено да мајке позитивније процењују квалитет односа са васпитачима у односу на очеве, да су родитељи до 35 године живота задовољнији сарадњом у односу на старије; да су родитељи са факултетским образовањем мање задовољни сарадњом у односу на родитеље са нижим степеном образовања, као и да су родитељи деце која похађају припремне предшколске групе задовољнији сарадњом са предшколском установом у односу на родитеље чија деца похађају млађе и средње групе. Сматра се да добијени резултати могу да представљају полазиште за будућа истраживања сарадње породице и предшколске установе и њихових корелата ради унапређивања квалитета рада.

DEVELOPMENT OF CREATIVE ABILITIES THROUGH ARTS EDUCATION

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Abstract

The paper examines possibilities for enhancing creativity in primary school children through Arts education. Specifically, this study investigates the impact of visual, auditory and tactile stimuli (VAT stimuli)¹ on the development of creative thinking in children when these aids are carefully selected and suitable for use for a particular teaching topic within the Arts education curriculum. The study was conducted in Serbia, through an experimental two-term programme called The Development of Creativity by Employing VAT Stimuli, which included 270 first and second-year primary school pupils (7-8 year-olds). The impact of the experimental programme was assessed according to the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) – figural form A. This study found that the use of VAT stimuli in Arts education contributed significantly to developing and cultivating pupils' creative abilities, and that the effect of the programme had a stronger impact on the 2nd year pupils.

Key words: creativity, creative abilities, VAT stimuli, Arts Education.

РАЗВИЈАЊЕ КРЕАТИВНИХ СПОСОБНОСТИ У НАСТАВИ ЛИКОВНЕ КУЛТУРЕ

Апстракт

У раду се разматрају могућности подстицања креативности деце кроз наставу Ликовне културе у млађим разредима основне школе. Основни циљ истраживања јесте да се утврди да ли визуелни, аудитивни и тактилни подстицаји (VAT подстицаји)² могу утицати на развијање креативног мишљења деце када

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¹ Visual stimulus – discussion and observation of an artwork as a stimulus for artistic expression; Auditory aid – instrumental composition as a stimulus for artistic expression; Tactile stimulus – finger painting.

² VAT подстицаји – посматрање и разговор о уметничким делима као подстицај на ликовни израз; Аудитивни подстицај – инструментална композиција као подстицај на ликовни израз; Тактилни подстицај – сликање прстима.

су пажљиво одабрани у односу на наставну тему и компатибилни са наставном јединицом у оквиру теме. Истраживање је спроведено у Србији на узорку од 270 испитаника (ученика првог и другог разреда основних школа). Експериментални програм под називом *Развијање креативности деловањем ВАТ подстицаја* трајао је једну школску годину. За мерење креативних способности деце коришћен је Торансов тест креативног мишљења, фигурална форма А. Резултати до којих се дошло истраживањем показују да се деловањем ВАТ подстицаја у настави Ликовне културе може значајно утицати на развијање креативних способности деце и да је експериментални програм имао бољи учинак код ученика другог разреда.

Кључне речи: креативност, креативне способности, ВАТ подстицаји, Ликовна култура.

INTRODUCTION

The original semantic range of the term “creation” (lat. *creatio*): 1. creating, the process of creating; 2. accomplishment, discovering something new and original (*Veliki rečnik stranih reči i izraza*, 2010) – has been expanded and refined by theoretical discussions. Most broadly, creativity can be defined as searching for solutions from different perspectives and choosing from multiple possibilities; creativity is about creating something new, original and useful (Mumford, 2003). Ever since the term “creativity” was first used (Guilford, 1950), researchers have been proposing a range of theories and conclusions regarding the importance of enhancing creative abilities and creative behaviour (Amabile, 1989, 1992, 1996; Gardner, 1983, 1993; Guilford, 1967; Isaksen, Stead-Dorval and Treffinger, 2000; Kaufman and Beghetto, 2009; Robinson, 2011; Sternberg and Lubart, 1991, 1992; Sternberg, 2006; Campbell and Campbell, 1999; Torrance, 1965, 1972, 1987), both in the classroom and outside it.

As Torrance pointed out, the definitions of creativity range from those concerned with the final result, a product (an invention or a discovery), to definitions which refer to the process (Torrance, 1965, 1972; Sternberg and Lubart, 1991; Robinson, 2009), personality traits (Guilford, 1950; Maslow, 1976), or the importance of motivation for creative behaviour (Runco and Chand, 1995; Lowenfeld and Brittain, 1964; Torrance, 1999; Amabile, 1996; Eisenberger and Armeli, 1997). Torrance held his definition of survival as his most concise and accurate definition of creativity: when a person does not have a familiar, practiced approach and solution to a problem, and a new situation requires a certain amount of creativity (as cited in Shaughnessy, 1998: 443). For Lucas (2001), creativity is a state of mind in which our various intelligences operate jointly and simultaneously, because:

Creative people question the assumptions they are given. They see the world differently, are happy to experiment, to take risks and to make mistakes. They make unique connections often unseen by others (p. 38).

In *The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, Gardner likewise discusses seven basic types of correlated intelligences, mutually complementary as people develop abilities or solve problems (Gardner, 1983). He argues that different intelligences indicate various individual potentials. Robinson similarly sees creative thinking as a collaboration of different processes: alongside finding new ideas and considering alternatives, the creative process requires developing these ideas and estimating their efficiency. These processes work together (Robinson, 2009: 122). For Sternberg (2006), creativity is a way of life which an individual activates spontaneously and effortlessly, while Baron's perspective of creativity refers exactly to what could be defined as genius, namely, established artists and scientists (as cited in Montuori, 2003: 17). According to the Investment theory, "Creativity requires a confluence of six distinct, but interrelated, resources: intellectual abilities, knowledge, styles of thinking, personality, motivation, and environment" (Sternberg, 2012: 5).

Some researchers think that motivation (Amabile, 1990; Hennessey, 1994; Shulberg, 1994) and "knowledge base" (Simon, 1988) are crucial for creative thinking (as cited in Runco and Chand, 1995: 246). As Amabile states, people are the most creative when they are motivated, primarily by their interests, pleasure and the challenge that the work provides (Amabile, 2012). However, although people tend to be most motivated when they are engaged in something they are good at, due to the nature of creativity and its social perception, there may sometimes be just negligible correspondence between creative abilities and motivation, and the skills which are necessary to activate these abilities and accomplish a creative achievement (Torrance, 1999).

Some of the most significant researches conducted in Serbia, regarding the importance of developing creative abilities, showed the following results:

- Studies with older primary school children (11 to 15 year-olds) concluded that fostering visual creativity through specifically planned activities in the classroom contributed to the development of creative thinking in general (Karlavaris and Kraguljac, 1981). New research in this area has been long overdue.
- Kopas Vukasinović's study (2005) suggests that creative abilities in children tend to decrease during the transition from a pre-school to a school environment, so she recommends the following: a) More time allotted to hosting college pupil interns working on creative processes in education; b) Elective advanced level courses for future educators focusing on stimulating creativity in children; c) Designing options for different courses of study, and specialized programmes in this area.
- The research conducted by Šefer, with primary school children, followed the development of creative thinking and cooperative behaviour among children who were stimulated by creative activities. According to the author, a thematic interdisciplinary approach led to

positive results; although the centre of attention were the teaching methods, rather than the organization of the content of the subject matter, the author emphasized the importance of integrative learning, which required flexibility and original thinking as important components of creative behaviour (Šefer, 2005).

- In the paper titled “The Work of Art Aimed at Stimulating the Development of Artistic Abilities of Junior School Pupils” discussing the importance of observation of works of art in Arts education, Selaković (2015) concludes, “An artwork as a visual stimulus in Arts education is an invaluable teaching resource for acquiring knowledge, stimulating creativity, and for awakening imagination towards the abstract and unreal” (p. 51).

CURRENT STUDY

Our study addresses the need to view and organize Arts education much more comprehensively than it traditionally has been. As Robinson points out, school systems as such have a tendency to limit the definition of intelligence and abilities and disproportionately favour certain talents and skills at the expense of others (Robinson, 2009).

This study, therefore, investigates whether the use of appropriate visual, auditory or tactile stimuli in first- and second-year primary school Arts education can help develop creative abilities in children.

Visual stimulus refers to the use of observation of artworks in introducing a particular topic in Arts education. According to Karlavaris (1987), regarding the motives, artworks with figures in motion appeal to younger primary school children, while they do not show much interest for portraits, still life and landscapes; regarding the form, the children like naive art, realism and expressionism. Postmodern works of art were also used for the purpose of this research. Observation of a work of art was accompanied by the following questions: 1. What do you see on the painting? 2. Do you like what you see, why? 3. What are the colours like (can you notice different shades of red)? 4. What else can you discover on the painting, does it appeal to you? 5. What name would you give to this painting? Observation of artworks and discussion about them had educational purpose: through the ‘communication’ with the work of art, children gained knowledge about different art styles and art techniques, and had the opportunity to hear some interesting anecdotes from the lives of artists. One cognitive function of various art forms is to help us learn how to perceive and feel the world (Eisner, 2002: 21).

Auditory aid in approaching visual content means using music to stimulate the creative search for a visual solution (the correlation between music and visual art). The sound of music can generate a strong impulse for visual expression, provided that the music is purposefully selected with an Arts education topic in mind. The music chosen for this research

was classical music, jazz, various percussion compositions on drums and tambourines, and traditional African music. Musical and visual expression are aesthetically analogous through association of melody with lines, and tone with colours; furthermore, both music and visual art use specific signs in their expression (line, colour, form, texture, contrast, rhythm, melodic lines, harmony, gradation), as their universal language (Tanevski, 2008). A visual interpretation of an instrumental composition can offer a much more satisfying experience of the composition itself. At the same time, with the teaching goals being: expanding creative fantasy, developing creative ways of thinking, and expressing individual emotional and aesthetic experience, experiencing music in this way informs the pupils' skills in visual expression (Stojanović Stošić and Stojadinović, 2016). Our own selection of auditory aids in visual creativity is to some extent indebted to the reflections of Kandinsky, who "built" his painting on music, which fascinated and inspired him (Kandinsky, 1911/2004). Auditory aid was used when the topic referred to visual representation of emotions or moods (e.g. *I'll draw what I feel while I'm listening to this music*), or natural phenomena (e.g. *Storm*). An auditory aid was used on its own or combined with visual and tactile stimuli.

Tactile aid, in this study, mostly refers to finger painting, instead of traditional painting techniques. Additionally, visual expression is stimulated through contact with and combining non-artistic objects and materials, such as scrap paper, fruits. By using tactile aids in Arts education, children participate in a series of complex activities, such as acquiring sensory and tactile experience, exercising visual memory, processing and recombining sensory impressions, which ultimately leads to the development of divergent thinking. Lowenfeld thinks that art begins, always and everywhere, as a reflection of haptic perception (as cited in Arnheim, 1986/2003: 256). A summary of the selected artworks, music and tactile aids is provided in the "Appendix".

METHOD

Participants

The sample for this study consisted of 119 first-year and 151 second-year pupils in three elementary schools in the city of Vranje, "Dositej Obradović", "Vuk Karadžić" and "Radoje Domanović", Serbia. The total of 270 pupils were divided into experimental group (E) and control group (C), counting 134 and 136 subjects, respectively. The groups were formed to be equivalents, namely, the pupils were evenly distributed in both groups according to their diagnostic test score, number of subjects, sex and age. Each group was assigned 7 supervising teachers (14 total) all with the same academic qualification, a bachelor's degree.

Measures

For assessing creative abilities, we used – following Cropley (2001) – The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) – figural form A (Thinking creatively with pictures – Figural response booklet A) consisting of three tasks, each focusing on different aspects of the creative process. The research dealt with measuring creativity according to two parameters, criterion and norm-referenced indicators of creativity. The norm-referenced measures include: 1. Fluency; 2. Originality; 3. Elaboration; 4. Resistance to Premature Closure; 5. Abstractness of Title (Torrance, Ball and Safter, 1992). The list of creative strengths³ provides a set of thirteen criterion-referenced measures: 1. Emotional Expressiveness; 2. Storytelling Articulateness; 3. Movement or Action; 4. Expressiveness of Title; 5. Synthesis of Incomplete Figures; 6. Synthesis of Lines; 7. Unusual Visualization; 8. Internal Visualization; 9. Extending or Breaking of Boundaries; 10. Humour; 11. Colourfulness of Imagery; 12. Richness of Imagery; 13. Fantasy.

Procedure

In order to design the programme for the experimental group, we thoroughly analysed the current 1st and 2nd year Visual Arts Education annual curriculum. Each lesson during the school year was paired with one chosen stimulus, a combination of two, or all three stimuli. The teachers from the experimental group were actively involved in the preparation of the experimental programme and familiar with the goal of the research. They received basic training in theories of creativity and a comprehensive and detailed introduction to the methods of the experimental VAT stimuli programme. The research was carried out over the course of two semesters (one school year) in 2014/15.

Data Analysis

The results of the research were analysed with the appropriate statistical methods (the arithmetic mean with the standard deviation, minimum and maximum values, frequencies and percentages). The differences between the groups were determined with the t-test for dependent samples and variance analysis. Mixed analysis of variance (SPANOVA) was used to assess the impact of independent variable – year on the changes in achievement before and after the experimental programme. Statistical significance was defined on the probability level of null hypothesis $p \leq 0.05$ do $p < 0.01$. For the statistical analysis and data processing we used SPSS ver. 20 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

³ Can also be referred as *Special creative strengths* – a rating of + is given for some evidence of strength, and the rating of ++ is given for repeated evidence of strength, 3 or more occurrences

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We present the results of the research by comparing scores from the initial and final measuring in the control and experimental group, before and after our experimental programme, *The Development of Creativity by Employing VAT Stimuli*.

Table 1. The comparative review of the final measuring in the experimental and control group

	Group	n	M	SD	t	p
Fluency	E	134	22,9776	5,29926	6,554	,000
	C	136	18,7059	5,40934		
Originality	E	134	11,9925	4,41204	15,237	,000
	C	136	5,2426	2,66804		
Elaboration	E	134	5,3134	2,16749	8,639	,000
	C	136	3,5515	,97236		
Abstractness of Titles	E	134	5,5224	3,38443	9,306	,000
	C	136	2,2794	2,23339		
Resistance to Premature Closure	E	134	3,7985	2,29344	13,556	,000
	C	136	,8897	,99385		
Creative Strengths	E	134	19,0746	7,50301	15,221	,000
	C	136	7,9485	4,01722		
Creativity Index	E	134	105,8075	17,62379	17,312	,000
	C	136	71,7647	14,56475		

E – experimental group; C – control group; n – the number of the examinees; M – arithmetic mean (average value of the sample variable); SD – standard deviation (average deviation of individual variable values from the sample average); t – test; p – statistical significance

Table 2. The comparative review of the initial and final measuring in the control group

	n	M	SD	t	p
Fluency (i)	136	16,5074	5,06842	-4,241	,000
Fluency (f)	136	18,7059	5,40934		
Originality (i)	136	6,5074	3,05747	4,831	,000
Originality (f)	136	5,2426	2,66804		
Elaboration (i)	136	3,6397	,85784	1,115	,267
Elaboration (f)	136	3,5515	,97236		
Abstractness of Titles (i)	136	2,2353	2,23519	-,204	,838
Abstractness of Titles (f)	136	2,2794	2,23339		
Resistance to Premature Closure (i)	136	1,4853	1,51039	4,578	,000
Resistance to Premature Closure (f)	136	,8897	,99385		
Creative Strengths (i)	136	10,3456	4,80799	6,252	,000
Creative Strengths (f)	136	7,9485	4,01722		
Creativity Index (i)	136	75,5765	15,96261	3,357	,001
Creativity Index (f)	136	71,7647	14,56475		

E – experimental group; C – control group; n – the number of the examinees; M – arithmetic mean (average value of the sample variable); SD – standard deviation (average deviation of individual variable values from the sample average); t – test; p – statistical significance; i – initial measuring; f – final measuring

Table 3. Year and the measured indicators of creativity in the experimental group

	Year	n	M	SD	t	p
Fluency (i)	I	57	14,1053	4,29985	-,927	,356
	II	77	14,8052	4,34087		
Fluency (f)	I	57	22,7193	5,20904	-,484	,629
	II	77	23,1688	5,39103		
Originality (i)	I	57	4,2281	2,55663	-3,492	,001
	II	77	6,2987	3,89691		
Originality (f)	I	57	11,5965	4,34601	-,893	,373
	II	77	12,2857	4,46583		
Elaboration (i)	I	57	3,1930	,47953	-3,472	,001
	II	77	4,0519	1,82018		
Elaboration (f)	I	57	4,7368	1,57578	-2,712	,008
	II	77	5,7403	2,44089		
Abstractness of Titles (i)	I	57	1,9298	2,20276	1,329	,186
	II	77	1,4675	1,81793		
Abstractness of Titles (f)	I	57	4,9649	3,54544	-1,651	,101
	II	77	5,9351	3,22138		
Resistance to Premature Closure (i)	I	57	,5263	,75841	-3,933	,000
	II	77	1,5974	1,94841		
Resistance to Premature Closure (f)	I	57	4,0351	2,33731	1,028	,306
	II	77	3,6234	2,25971		
Creative Strengths (i)	I	57	7,6491	3,58315	1,022	,309
	II	77	9,8052	7,04878		
Creative Strengths (f)	I	57	18,3684	7,27184	-,937	,350
	II	77	19,5974	7,67474		
Creativity Index (i)	I	57	65,0246	14,81221	-1,713	,089
	II	77	69,8234	16,87424		
Creativity Index (f)	I	57	105,2351	17,04562	-,322	,748
	II	77	106,2312	18,13911		

n – the number of the examinees; M – arithmetic mean (average value of the sample variable); SD – standard deviation (average deviation of individual variable values from the sample average); t – test; p – statistical significance; i – initial measuring; f – final measuring

Table 4. The influence of the independent variable–year on the change in the test result before and after the experimental programme - experimental group

Effect		F	p
Experimental programme * Year	Pillai's Trace	3,167	,001
	Wilks' Lambda	3,167	,001
	Hotelling's Trace	3,167	,001
	Roy's Largest Root	3,167	,001

F - ANOVA; p – statistical significance

Through the implementation of VAT stimuli in Arts education, children gain auditory and tactile experience, process auditory and tactile impressions and then form new ones, develop visual memory, and establish

a dialogue with an artwork. According to Škorc (2012), it is imperative to experience a work of art actively, establish a dialogue with it, find one's own interpretation. The first few months of the programme already showed that the use of stimuli for motivating pupils and inspiring their visual expression are directly correlated to the enrichment of children's drawings, enhancing their original, authentic expression. The comparison of the final test results in the experimental and control group showed that the visual solutions in the final tests in the experimental group were much more successful according to all measured indicators of creativity and the total creativity index (Table 1). According to Amabile (1992), cultivating a creative environment can enhance children's abstract and analytical thinking and they can become more receptive to 'out of the box' thinking. Therefore, we can conclude that using the VAT stimuli in Arts education influenced the creativity development in children. All of the measured indicators of creativity in the experimental group showed statistically significant increase when compared to the control group in the final measuring (Fluency: $M(E)=22,97$; $M(C)=18,70$; Originality: $M(E)=11,99$; $M(C)=5,24$; Elaboration: $M(E)=5,31$; $M(C)=3,55$; Abstractness of Titles: $M(E)=5,52$; $M(C)=2,27$; Resistance to Premature Closure: $M(E)=3,79$; $M(C)=0,88$; Creative Strengths: $M(E)=19,07$; $M(C)=7,94$; Creativity Index: $M(E)=105,80$; $M(C)=71,76$) (table 1).

When we compared midterm works from pupils of both group, we noticed that the control group pupils produced, with rare exceptions, predictable visual expressions on a particular teaching topic. These pupils rarely considered alternative possibilities in order to produce a more original perspective. Fluency was the only measured parameter where the pupils from the control group demonstrated a statistically significant difference between the initial and the final test results, in that there was an increase in the measured parameter in the final test results ($M(i)=16,50$; $M(f)=18,70$). In all the other measured parameters where there was a statistically significant difference (Originality: $M(i)=6,50$; $M(f)=5,24$, Resistance to Premature Closure: $M(i)=1,48$; $M(f)=0,88$, Creative Strengths: $M(i)=10,34$; $M(f)=7,94$ and Creativity Index: $M(i)=75,57$; $M(f)=71,76$) there was a decrease in the measured parameter in the final test results (table 2).

We wanted to examine whether the experimental programme had a better effect on the 2nd year pupils. The independent samples t-test was used to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the first and the second year primary school children in the experimental group regarding the measured indicators of creativity (Table 3). When we analyse the arithmetic means (M) of the measured indicators of creativity with the statistically significant difference in the table 3, it can be seen that they are higher in the 2nd year pupils, when compared to the 1st year pupils. In the final test results, the average values of the

measured indicator of creativity – Elaboration are statistically significantly higher in the 2nd year pupils, when compared to the 1st year pupils ($5,74 \pm 2,44$ vs. $4,73 \pm 1,57$, $p < 0,01$).

We used a mixed analysis of variance (SPANOVA) to assess the impact of independent variables on the change in the test result, measured in the experimental group before and after the experimental programme. The year is the only factor which increases the impact of the experimental programme (Table 4).

Therefore, we can conclude that the effect of the programme had a stronger impact on the 2nd year pupils (Tables 3 and 4). To offer a possible reason for this difference, it may be that the programme made less impact on the 1st year pupils because they are still adapting to school activities as such, traditional or otherwise, and are plausibly less confident in expressing their ideas in an unknown context.

CONCLUSION

While creative instruction is necessary throughout the school curricula, for Arts education it is essential and indispensable. Creativity is a complex phenomenon and requires an innovative approach to Arts education, lifelong learning, commitment to rethinking and adaptation, flexibility and open-mindedness, cultivating creative and unconventional thinking.

The aim of the research conducted by Tomljenović and Novaković (2014) was to investigate the teachers' opinion about the importance, the purpose and the teaching methods in Arts Education. The results of the research showed that the most important segment of Arts Education is the enhancement of imagination and creative thinking. Therefore, it is extremely important for teachers to continually learn and perfect their teaching skills so that they could be able to adequately respond to their students' demand for a more dynamic and creative learning process and classroom atmosphere (Robinson, 2015). Robinson (2015) emphasized the importance of teachers and their ability to inspire and motivate students to learn.

This study was preceded by years of observing the approach to Arts education in lower years in primary school.

The experimental programme *The Development of Creativity by Applying VAT Stimuli* is based on the idea that children, especially younger learners, need to be able to explore, experiment, ask questions and offer solutions through their work in Arts education. The results obtained from this research confirmed that “small” changes, such as the use of tactile, visual and auditory stimuli in Arts education, can have an important impact on the development of creativity in children. Through contact with the works of art, children plan and ponder over their artworks, which results in a more creative output. Cognition is more permanent and functional. Therefore, we think that, from an early age, children will benefit

from direct experience and communication with works of visual art, with various musical genres, and by practicing finger painting rather than using traditional painting instruments. Arts education classes organized in this way offer pupils the possibility to explore through creative play. Such classes both reach their curricular requirements in that pupils are familiarized with the content, and enable pupils to develop critical thinking and learn empirically. To conclude, this study argues that it is important to modernize Arts education through teaching methods which stimulate the development of pupils' creative potentials (and, at the same time, require constant teacher training (Bodroža, Maksić and Pavlović, 2013; Maksić and Pavlović, 2014)) which, as a result, creates better conditions for creative output. Creative learning through education is the foundation of every society, as well as the need of every individual.

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РАЗВИЈАЊЕ КРЕАТИВНИХ СПОСОБНОСТИ У НАСТАВИ ЛИКОВНЕ КУЛТУРЕ

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Резиме

Како се циљем васпитнообразовног рада у настави Ликовне културе сматра подстицање и развијање креативности ученика, основни циљ истраживања јесте да се утврди да ли визуелни, аудитивни и тактилни подстицаји у настави Ликовне културе, названи ВАТ подстицаји, могу утицати на развој креативних способности деце. Резултати приказани у овом раду јесу део истраживања спроведеног за потребе докторске дисертације. У истраживању је примењен експеримент са паралелним групама на узорку од 270 испитаника, ученика првог и другог разреда основних школа (119 ученика првог и 151 ученика другог разреда). Истраживање је спроведено у три основне школе у Врању, а експериментални програм под називом Развијање креативности деловањем ВАТ подстицаја трајао је једну школску годину (два полугодиста). За потребе истраживања коришћен је Торансов тест креативног мишљења, фигурална форма А, који обухвата три задатка конструисана по принципу „цртежом доврши започето”: Конструкција слике, Довршавање слике и Линије. Тест мери: оригиналност, флуентност, елаборативност, апстрактност наслова, отпор превременом закључивању и групу креативних способности (емоционална експресивност, јасноћа израза, акција (покрет), експресивност наслова, синтеза непотпуних фигура, синтеза линија, необична визуелизација, унутрашња визуелизација, проширивање граница, хумор, живописност ликова, богатство приказа и фантазија). Резултати до којих се дошло истраживањем показали су да се применом ВАТ подстицаја у настави Ликовне културе може утица-

ти на развијање креативног мишљења: резултати ученика експерименталне групе показали су статистички значајну разлику у висини свих мерених параметара креативности након завршеног експерименталног програма, у односу на испитанике контролне групе. Истраживање је ставило у први план важност посматрања уметничких дела, слушање музике и тактилних подстицаја као могућих начина за развијање и неговање креативности деце кроз наставу Ликовне културе.

SEXUAL FUNCTIONING OF WOMEN IN SERBIA: RELATIONS WITH ATTACHMENT

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Abstract

Attachment style is an important element of partnership dynamics and can be related to different indicators of relationship quality, including sexual relationship. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between female sexual functioning (FSF) and characteristics of partner attachment. In this paper, female sexual functioning will be examined through the following dimensions: the intensity of sexual desire, arousal, lubrication, orgasm, sexual life satisfaction, and pain during intercourse. In case of existing issues, these categories of functioning are considered to be indicators of female sexual dysfunction. The research was conducted on a convenience sample of 284 female participants aged 18 to 65, from Serbia, all having partner relations longer than 6 months. Female sexual dysfunction (FSD) was present in 24.6% of the sample, while 75.4% had no symptoms. Looking at dimensions of sexual functioning separately, the most common issues were related to sexual desire and the least commonly reported problems were related to lubrication and pain. There were moderate correlations between the total measure of FSF and dimensions of attachment. Canonical correlation analysis indicated that attachment is highly correlated with subjective experience of sexual life satisfaction. Research results are in accordance with the results of foreign studies and, despite many limitations, they represent a significant starting point for future studies in our region relating attachment to sexual behaviour or dysfunctions.

Key words: female sexual functioning, Serbia, attachment, anxiety, avoidance.

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СЕСУАЛНО ФУНКЦИОНИСАЊЕ ЖЕНА У СРБИЈИ: РЕЛАЦИЈЕ СА АФЕКТИВНОМ ВЕЗАНОШЋУ

Апстракт

Обрасци партнерске афективне везаности представљају значајан елемент динамике партнерске релације и могу бити повезани са различитим индикаторима квалитета везе, па тако и са сексуалним односима. У истраживању је анализирана повезаност сексуалног функционисања жена са карактеристикама партнерске афективне везаности. Сексуално функционисање жена у овом раду биће посматрано кроз следеће димензије: израженост сексуалне жеље, постизање узбуђења, овлаживање, постизање оргазма, задовољство сексуалним животом и бол приликом односа. Ове категорије функционисања, уколико у њима постоје проблеми, сматрају се индикаторима сексуалне дисфункције. Истраживање је спроведено на пригодном узорку сачињеном од 284 испитанице, узраста од 18 до 65 година, из Србије, које су у партнерској вези дужи од шест месеци. Значајно присуство симптома сексуалне дисфункције забележено је код 24,6% испитаница, док је 75,4% без присуства симптома. Када су у питању појединачне димензије сексуалног функционисања, највише је проблема са сексуалном жељом, а најмање са овлаживањем и болом. Између укупног броја симптома и димензија афективног везивања добијене су умерене корелације. Каноничка корелациона анализа указала је на то да су димензије афективне везаности повезане у највећој мери са субјективним доживљајем задовољства сексуалним животом. Резултати спроведеног истраживања су у складу са резултатима иностраних студија и, поред многобројних ограничења, они представљају значајну полазну тачку за будућа истраживања релација афективног везивања и сексуалног понашања или дисфункција на нашим просторима.

Кључне речи: сексуално функционисање жена, Србија, афективна везаност, анксиозност, избегавање.

INTRODUCTION

Attachment theory and research suggest that adult attachment processes are related to numerous behaviors in romantic/love relationships. Adult romantic relationships include the integration of three behavioral systems: attachment, caregiving, and sexual mating (Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988). In adulthood, attachment has a status of disposition and it relies on experiences in early relations with caregivers in which relatively stable internal working models are formed, which define a person's understanding of closeness, intimacy, trust, and close relationships in general (Feeney, 2008). Sexual behavior is a defining feature of most love relationships. Therefore, it could be expected that adult attachment is relevant to this behavior as well as to sexual problems and dysfunctions.

In this paper, female sexual functioning will be examined through the following dimensions: the intensity of sexual desire, arousal, lubrication, orgasm, sexual life satisfaction, and pain during intercourse. In case of existing issues, these categories of functioning are considered to be indicators of sexual dysfunction. Hence, in this paper, they are also referred

to as symptoms of female sexual dysfunction. In the literature, most information about sexual functioning is found in papers on sexual dysfunction. Therefore, this approach offers a broader framework within which the results could be understood and interpreted. Female sexual dysfunction (FSD) includes four major categories of dysfunction: desire disorders, arousal disorder, orgasmic disorder, and sexual pain disorders, as described in the DSM-V (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Diagnostic criteria in the past gave importance to physiological components of the disorder, such as vaginal moisture and lubrication, which correlate with desire and arousal. The newer diagnostic criteria (B in DSM-IV, C in DSM-V) are that aforementioned symptoms provoke difficulties in functioning and distress.

In the last two decades, studies on female sexual functioning have questioned former attitudes, definitions, and diagnostic categories and there are still vivid discussions about the suitability of even the most recent descriptions of FSD (Damjanović, Duišin, & Barišić, 2013; IsHak & Tobia, 2013; Sungur & Gündüz, 2014). Although the "interpersonal difficulty" determinant, which was a diagnostic criteria in DSM-IV-TR, has been replaced with "clinically significant distress in the individual" in order to take into account the possibility that people without partners could also suffer FSD, it is necessary to bear in mind that in sexual functioning of women, as well as dysfunctions, there is an important role of psychosocial variables such as partner relationship satisfaction, self-image, previous sexual experiences, etc. The new revised and extended definitions of female sexual dysfunctions should be in accordance with latest information about the nature of female sexuality, with the aim of improving the efficiency of clinical treatment of dysfunctions (Damjanović, Duišin, & Barišić, 2013).

The study of the highest volume on the topic of FSD so far is *The Global Study of Sexual Attitudes and Behaviours*. The study was performed to estimate the prevalence and correlates of sexual problems in more than 25,000 women and men from 29 countries, aged 40–80 years. Different types of FSD were present in women in Europe ranging from 9% (pain during sexual intercourse) to 29.6% (lack of sexual interest). For women, lack of interest in sex and inability to reach orgasm were the most common sexual problems across the world (Laumann et al., 2005). In all samples, the frequency of the problems increases with age.

The most frequently cited study on FSD prevalence until now is the one by Laumann, Paik, and Rosen (1999), who investigated 1,749 women aged 18–59 years living throughout the USA. In this landmark investigation, 43% of women reported on FSD. Individual studies in different countries provide similar results. Castelo-Branco et al. assessed FSD in 534 healthy women (52 ± 6 years) living in Chile and the prevalence of FSD increased from 22% in the younger age group to 66% in the

over-60 years of age group. Kadri et al. investigated 728 women (37 ± 13 years) living in Morocco using the same questionnaire as Castelo-Branco. FSD was present in 27% of women. Abdo et al. analysed 1,219 women (36 ± 12 years) living in Brazil and found that FSD was present in 49% of women (Ponholzer, Roehlich, Racz, Temml, & Madersbacher, 2005). Researchers in Japan found the prevalence of different FSD symptoms on a sample of 2,095 women to be 15-28% in women older than 30 and 32-58% in women older than 60 (Hisasue et al., 2005).

There are not many studies that have assessed the prevalence of FSD in apparently healthy women, conducted in Europe. Cayan et al. studied the issue in 179 Turkish women aged 18–66 years using the Female Sexual Function Index. The prevalence of FSD increased from 22% in those aged 18–27 years to 66% in those aged 48–57 years (Ponholzer et al., 2005). A study in Austria was conducted on a sample of 703 women aged 43 ± 15 years, where 22% reported on desire disorders, 35% on arousal disorders, and 39% on orgasmic problems, all increasing significantly with age (Ponholzer et al., 2005).

The characteristics of partner attachment are recognized as one of the key correlates of the functionality of partner relations. The predominant view of adulthood attachment describes this construct through dimensions of anxiety and avoidance that represent the readiness of a person to enter close relationships and his or her capacities to maintain them (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). The effects of attachment on the sexual aspect of relationship functioning are recognized as key factors for partner relation dynamics in those couples that attend partner therapy for dyadic as well as individual problems (Brassard, Peloquin, Dupuy, Wright, & Shaver, 2012). On the individual level, higher anxiety and avoidance scores are related to lower sexual satisfaction. Higher attachment-related anxiety strengthens the relationship between sexual relation satisfaction and overall satisfaction with partner relationship (Butzer & Campbell, 2008; Birnaum, 2007) by direct effects, as well as mediated by lower sexual self-esteem and higher sexual anxiety (Brassard, Dupuy, Bergeron, & Shaver, 2013). Avoidance is an important determinant of couple dynamics characterized by the restriction of intimacy in sexual intercourse, while anxiety is related to avoiding sex and the experience of discomfort in sex-related intimacy (Brassard et al., 2013).

A 2012 meta-analysis, which included 73 previous studies with 118 independent samples, explored the relations between attachment and partner relationship quality (Li & Chan, 2012). The meta-analysis that explored relations of attachment with sexual relations was done on only 15 studies that satisfied the criteria for inclusion. The results showed that both anxious and avoidant attachment were consistently associated with less satisfying sexual experiences in married, dating, and homosexual couples. Additionally, avoidant attachment is generally associated with

lower intercourse frequency in both males and females (Stefanou & McCabe, 2012).

In our region (Serbian speaking area), there have been few studies of FSF, mainly the ones that explored the effects of pharmacotherapy or mental health problems on sexual functioning. There have been no studies that bring into relation attachment and sexual behaviour.

The research problem in this study was exploring relations between sexual functioning of women in stable partner relations and the characteristics of partner attachment. In accordance with the problem, the following research aims were set:

1. To explore the prevalence and distribution of FSD symptoms and attachment styles on a sample of women from Serbia, including the prevalence of symptoms and styles in women that differ according to various socio-demographic variables. Within this aim, data were gathered on sexual intercourse frequency and the frequency of avoiding sex.

2. To explore the relations of FSD symptoms and attachment. Within this aim, it was assessed whether different categories of the symptoms of FSD, as well as total measure of FSD, correlated with attachment dimensions, anxiety and avoidance.

METHOD

Sample

The research was conducted on a convenience sample of 284 female participants, aged 18 to 65, from Serbia. All participants had partner relations longer than 6 months at the moment of data collection. Three quarters of women were married (74.3%), and one quarter had regular partners but were not married. The majority of women had children (68.3%). Other demographic data are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

Age	%	Residence	%	Education	%	Employment status	%	Economic status	%	Family structure	%
18-29	23.4	city	69.4	secondary	20.8	employed	72.2	bad	4.2	alone	11.9
30-39	38.7	town	20.4	college	7.0	periodically	7.0	average	66.2	with partner	23.0
40-49	26.1	village	10.2	graduates	72.2	unemployed	13.1	very good	29.6	partner, children	57.9
50-65	8.4					student	7.7			partner, children and someone...	7.2

Participation in the study was voluntary. The questionnaires were disseminated online, and the procedure guaranteed anonymity. Participants were informed of the aim of the study and by accepting to fill the questionnaire they gave consent to participate in the research.

Instruments

Apart from the socio-demographic questionnaire, the following instruments were applied:

The Female Sexual Function Index (FSFI, Rosen et al., 2000). Brief, multidimensional self-report instrument for assessing key dimensions of sexual function in women. The scale consists of 19 items that assess sexual functioning over the past 4 weeks and yield domain scores in six areas: sexual desire, arousal, lubrication, orgasm, satisfaction, and pain. Participants who did not have sexual relations during the previous four weeks were not included in the sample. The participants evaluate the intensity of each symptom on a 5-grade scale. In the original version, lower scores indicate a higher level of FSD symptoms. Considering the fact that the scale was applied for the first time on a sample of women from Serbia, its factor structure was checked. The obtained factor solution did not differ from the one reported by the scale authors. The six factors explained 82% of the variance. The scale reliability on our sample was satisfactory and for individual scales it ranged from $\alpha = .85$ to $\alpha = .92$, while for the whole instrument it was $\alpha = .86$.

Modified Brennan Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Kamenov & Jelić, 2003). A short version of the scale was applied (Brennan et al., 1998). Factor structure of the modified scale was the same as the original, meaning that partner relations in adulthood are operationalized through dimensions of anxiety and avoidance. The scale consists of 18 items with a 7-grade Likert-type response scale. The scale provides two separate scores for dimensions of anxiety and avoidance. Higher scores indicate higher avoidance or anxiety, respectively. The attachment style is determined based on the combination of the two scores. Four attachment styles can be distinguished: secure attachment and three insecure attachment types: preoccupied, dismissive and fearful-avoidant. Scale reliability on our sample was satisfactory; for the dimension of Anxiety $\alpha = .84$, and for Avoidance $\alpha = .80$.

RESULTS

Prevalence and Distribution of FSD Symptoms and Attachment Styles on a Sample of Women from Serbia

For this research goal, descriptive statistical methods were applied. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistical parameters of the FSFI and ECR questionnaires

	Min	Max	M	SD	Sk	Ku
FSFI Total score	11.20	36.00	28.74	4.77	-1.119	.809
Desire subscore	1.20	6.00	3.63	.98	-.195	.208
Arousal subscore	1.20	6.00	4.85	.98	-1.010	.655
Lubrication subscore	1.20	6.00	5.28	.99	-1.689	2.601
Orgasm subscore	1.20	6.00	4.63	1.41	-1.066	.169
Satisfaction subscore	1.20	6.00	4.95	1.12	-1.257	1.176
Pain subscore	1.20	6.00	5.40	1.02	-2.234	5.301
ECR Anxiety	9.00	58.00	18.52	8.19	1.369	2.096
ECR Avoidance	9.00	55.00	23.10	11.02	.920	.302

Legend: Min-minimal value, Max-maximal value, M-mean, SD-standard deviation, Sk-skewness, Ku-kurtosis

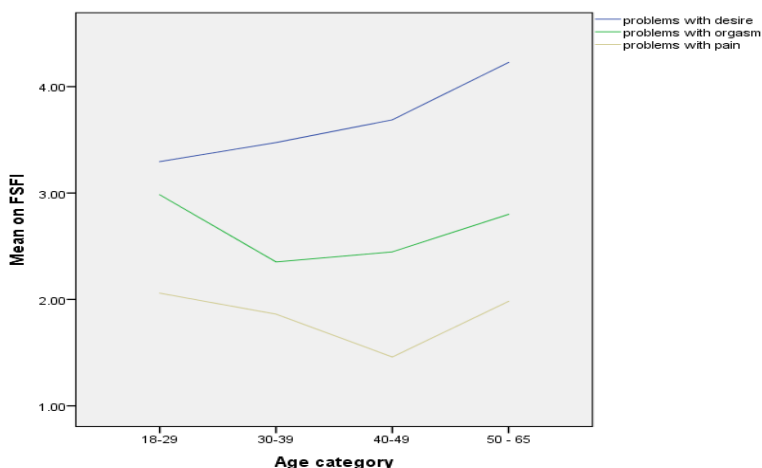
The review of Table 2 indicates that skewness and kurtosis values do not deviate from normal distribution, if by deviation a value greater than ± 2.58 (Field, 2013) is considered, with the exception of kurtosis of the pain subscale, which indicates more distinct grouping of results around the mean.

Levels of sexual dysfunction. An extensive validation study suggests using the total scale score of 26 or less as the cut-off score for diagnostic classification purposes, which indicates the presence of FSD (Wiegel, Meston, & Rosen, 2005). In our research, the score of 26 or less was attained by 70, or 24.6% of participants, while 214, or 75.4% had a score higher than 26, which indicates the absence of sexual dysfunctions. Looking at dimensions separately, the most common issues were related to sexual desire (the lowest average score) and the least commonly reported problems were related to lubrication and pain (the highest average scores).

Dimensions of sexual functioning and socio-demographic variables. There were no differences in total measure of FSF between groups of participants with different socio-demographic characteristics, including women's age. The differences were registered only regarding the economic status. The group of women that described their economic status as very good had a score that indicated higher presence of problems or FSD symptoms ($M = 27.41$), compared to women that described their economic status as average or worse than average ($M = 29.30$; $t = -3.087$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$).

Participants with FSD (total scale score of 26 or less) did not differ significantly in the frequency of sexual intercourse from participants without FSD symptoms (a score higher than 26). However, participants with symptoms of FSD reported higher frequency of avoiding sexual intercourse (69.1% with FSD compared to 24.3% without FSD, $\chi^2 = 43.553$, $p < .01$). The described regularity was observed in participants with FSD, regardless of their attachment style.

When it comes to specific dimensions of sexual functioning, differences between participant groups with different socio-demographic characteristics were examined by employing the multivariate analysis of variance method (MANOVA). The variables included age, parenthood (whether they had children), place of residence, education level, employment status, and economic status. Statistically significant differences were obtained for the age variable (Wilks' Lambda = .819, $F = 2.893$, $p < .01$). The values of F-tests for each dimension of sexual functioning revealed differences in subdimensions of sexual desire ($F = 5.618$, $df = 3$, $p < .01$) pain ($F = 4.242$, $df = 3$, $p < .01$), and orgasm ($F = 3.011$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$). The obtained arithmetic mean values for the abovementioned variables are shown in Graph 1, with data recoded so that higher scores indicate higher presence of FSD symptoms.



Graph 1. Age differences in dimensions of FSF

The graph clearly shows that more advanced participant age was related to greater problems with sexual desire (which was the dimension with the highest number of reported problems). Conversely, younger participants had more difficulties reaching orgasm. The issue of pain was least common in participants in the fourth decade of their lives (pain was the dimension with the lowest number of reported problems).

The prevalence of attachment styles. The frequency of attachment styles is shown in Table 3 and it indicates the theoretically expected domination of securely attached women. The result is expected, considering the fact that the women in our sample were in partner relationships that were described as stable.

Table 3. The prevalence of attachment styles in our sample

Style	Frequency	Percent	Percentage of women with secure and insecure attachment
secure	234	82.4	82.4
preoccupied	36	12.7	
fearful-avoidant	5	1.8	17.6
dismissive	9	3.2	
Total	284	100.0	

Regarding attachment dimensions, there were no differences between groups of women by any socio-demographic variable, nor were there significant correlations with the frequency of sexual intercourse or the frequency of avoiding sex.

The relationship between FSD symptoms and attachment dimensions

Between the total score of FSFI and attachment dimensions, moderate correlations were obtained, with the avoidance dimension $r = .404$ and the anxiety dimension $r = .303$, significant at the 0.01 level. These correlations, with data recoded so that higher scores indicate higher presence of FSD symptoms, indicate that problems with sexual functioning were more common in individuals with higher scores on the avoidance and anxiety dimensions.

The structure of relations between FSD symptoms and attachment dimensions was explored via the canonical correlation analysis. The results are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. The parameters of isolated canonical functions

	Correlation	Eigenvalue	Wilks Statistic	F statistic	Degrees of Freedom	Significance
1	.506	.345	.726	7.971	12.000	.000
2	.152	.024	.977	1.313	5.000	.259

Table 5. The structure of canonical function

Subdimension (FSFI* and ECR scales)	Standardized Canonical Correlation Coefficients	
	Set 1	Set 2
Sexual desire (FSFI)	-.115	
Arousal (FSFI)	.256	
Lubrication (FSFI)	-.020	
Orgasm (FSFI)	.149	
Satisfaction (FSFI)	.704	
Pain (FSFI)	.158	
Avoidance (ECR)		.719
Anxiety (ECR)		.546

* - recoded so that higher scores indicate higher presence of problems/symptoms

Canonical correlation analysis that included dimensions of sexual functioning showed that perceived problems with experiencing *sexual life satisfaction* has the highest correlation with the canonical function. Both dimensions of attachment are highly correlated with the canonical function.

DISCUSSION

In our region (Serbian speaking area), there had been no studies about sexual functioning of women, nor about the prevalence of FSD symptoms and its correlates. Compared to studies in other countries, it could be concluded that our results, according to which 25% of the participants had significant level of FSD symptoms, do not deviate significantly from the data obtained by other researchers.

Several studies discussed in the introductory segment of this paper reported the following percentages: 22 (the Chilean study), 27 (the Moroccan study; Ponholzer et al., 2005) 15-28 (the Japanese study; Hisasue et al., 2005). The study conducted in Turkey used the same instrument that was employed in the present research and reported 22% (Ponholzer et al., 2005). Some papers reported higher percentages of women with symptoms of FSD. This is the case with the study of Laumann, Paik, and Rosen (1999), in which 43% of women living in the USA reported FSD, while Abdo et al. reported that FSD was present in 49% of women living in Brazil (Ponholzer et al., 2005). In all samples, the frequency of the problems increased with age. The age variable emerged as relevant in our research as well.

In our sample of women from Serbia, the most common problems were related to sexual desire, while problems with lubrication and pain were least common. Several other authors reported similar results. Within The Global Study of Sexual Attitudes and Behaviours, the issue of pain during sexual intercourse was least common (9% of women) and the most commonly reported problem was a lack of sexual interest (29.6%). A study involving participants from 29 countries showed that for women, a lack of interest in sex and the inability to reach orgasm were the most common sexual problems (Laumann et al., 2005). In the present research, problems with sexual desire were related to the age of the participants, with the incidence increasing with age. On the other hand, problems with reaching orgasm were less common with increasing age. The age was not related to the overall incidence of problems with sexual functioning, while the relationship between overall incidence and the pain dimension was not entirely clear. Therefore, future studies are needed to explore this relation in greater detail.

As far as other socio-demographic variables are concerned, differences were registered only when the variable of economic status was correlated with the total score on FSFI scale. The group of women that de-

scribed their economic status as very good had a score that pointed to a higher number of FSD symptoms, compared to other groups of women. It is necessary to explore this relation more thoroughly, in order to find an adequate interpretation for it, especially having in mind that the direction of correlation is not expected. It is well known that good economic status is a protective factor and a resource for coping with stress, and that in research it is most commonly correlated with better family and partner functioning (Šakotić-Kurbalija, 2016).

Some authors indicate that the prevalence estimates of FSD vary substantially across instruments, study populations, methods of assessment and definitions of FSD, and that a direct comparison between studies is hampered by the lack of a uniform, validated FSD questionnaire (Hayes, Dennerstein, Bennett, & Fairley, 2008). One interesting result is that changing the request for recalling symptoms from the previous month to a longer time period produced different estimates for all disorders in question.

Although the Female Sexual Function Index (FSFI) is currently the most frequently used FSD questionnaire, it has not been formerly validated in other languages (Hayes et al., 2008). Besides that, it is important to emphasize that the instrument has been in use since the year 2000 and it assesses sexual life during the previous four weeks, while in the latest diagnostic classification, the length of symptoms of at least 6 months is taken as a diagnostic criterion (B). In this sense, all previous results should be taken into account with caution, if we consider them as indicative of the prevalence of the FSD disorder.

The frequency of attachment styles indicates the theoretically expected domination of securely attached women. The result is expected, considering the fact that the women in our sample were in partner relationships that were described as stable. There were no differences in distribution of attachment styles among the groups of participants with different socio-demographic characteristics.

When it comes to relations between FSD symptoms and attachment, there are moderate correlations between the total measure of FSD and attachment dimensions, significant at the 0.01 level. Previous research has also registered the correlation between the symptoms of FSD and attachment, so that the prevalence of FSD is higher in people with higher anxiety and/or avoidance, as a meta-analysis by Stefanou and McCabe (2012) reports. A more recent study conducted on a big sample of student population (mean age 20 years) showed that attachment style of women accounted for a significant amount of the variance in the FSFI total scores and subscales (Dunkley, Dang, Chang, & Gorzalka, 2016). In another study (Brassard et al., 2013), the authors found that higher levels of anxious and avoidant attachment predicted poorer overall sexual functioning and lower sexual satisfaction. The authors of a paper published in

2014 report on correlations of FSD and attachment, more with avoidance, less with anxiety, as well as with the degree of differentiation of self (Buri, Schweitzer, & O'Brien, 2014). By comparing groups of women with sexual problems and healthy women, the authors report differences in three of the four scales referring to insecure attachment (Ciocca et al., 2015).

Canonical correlation analysis indicated that dimensions of attachment correlated highly with subjective experience of satisfaction with sexual life, indicating that women with higher scores on the avoidance and anxiety dimensions reported more problems with experiencing sexual pleasure. Other dimensions had low or absent correlations with the canonical function. In a research conducted in Dutch female students, in which the same instruments were applied, the variables of body appreciation and romantic attachment dimensions explained the highest percentage of variance (28.5%) exactly for the dimension of sexual life satisfaction (Van den Brink, Smeets, Hessen, & Woertman, 2016).

The results of this study are important for the discussion that has been led about the adequacy of the definition of FSD in diagnostic classifications DSM-IV and ICD 10. The aforementioned definition includes four categories of disorders that the diagnosis of FSD includes: desire, arousal, orgasmic, and sexual pain disorders. A work group made of leading European and North American investigators met in 2000 with the aim of determining the appropriateness of each category and definition. The group suggested expanding the definition in order to include psychological aspects of the disorder. Therefore, the diagnostic criteria included "marked distress or interpersonal difficulty" in DSM-IV-TR. The group even suggested including a new diagnostic category of *sexual satisfaction disorder* into the diagnostic classification, but consensus was not achieved and the suggestion was not accepted (Basson et al., 2000). The DSM-V classification excluded the criterion of personal distress that was replaced with the determinant "clinically significant distress in the individual" (IsHak & Tobia, 2013; Sungur & Gündüz, 2014). In our study, the dimension of sex life satisfaction was singled out as an aspect of FSD that contributes the most to the registered relationship between FSD and attachment.

The exclusion of psychological factors that represent potential causes or correlates of FSD from research, diagnostics, and therapy necessarily leads to the medicalization of the disorder. The medicalization of FSD implies focusing on the genital response as the essence of the disorder, and neglecting dissatisfaction with other aspects such as emotional and relational aspects of sexual experience (Tiefer, 2002). Some authors (Tiefer, 2002) believe that the main barrier to understanding women's sexuality is the medical classification scheme in current use, developed by the American Psychiatric Association (APA) in 1980 and revised later. "The DSM's reduction of 'normal sexual function' to physiology implies, incorrectly, that one can measure and treat genital and physical difficulties without regard to the relationship in which sex occurs" (p. 133). This

orientation could affect the approach fostered within sex education programs, where quick solutions with medical means could be promoted. It could also affect motivation of women to engage in psychotherapy and prognosis for further functioning. Based on their own studies, there are authors that claim that it is fundamental to identify attachment and relational styles in patients receiving counselling and psychological treatments focused on sexual problems (Ciocca et al., 2015), especially for sexual desire and orgasm difficulties in women (Brotto et al., 2016).

The presence of FSD symptoms did not correlate significantly with the frequency of sexual intercourse in our sample. However, it was found that participants with FSD avoided sex significantly more often compared to participants without symptoms. This result is not surprising, given that adequate sexual functioning is an important condition for motivation for sexual intercourse. This assumption was confirmed in some other studies (Hisasue et al., 2005). The relation between FSD and avoiding sexual intercourse should be investigated more thoroughly, considering the fact that there is most likely a circular connection of the two variables in question, with the basis in the wide context of the overall partnership dynamics.

CONCLUSION

In our study, FSD symptoms was registered in 24.6% of participants, while 75.4% had no symptoms of sexual dysfunctions. The most prominent problems were related to sexual desire. Physiological problems related to lubrication and pain during sexual intercourse were least common. Foreign studies report similar results. Theoretically expected distribution of attachment styles was found, with securely attached women as predominant.

Between the total measure of FSF/FSD and attachment dimensions, moderate correlations were registered. Canonical correlation analysis showed that the dimensions of attachment are most strongly related to subjective experience of satisfaction with sex life.

Limitations of the study are numerous. The sample was convenient, gathered by online dissemination. For this reason, data about women with a high education level were prevalent (70% of the sample). This makes it difficult to generalize the significant results to the population. The sample exclusively included women and it relied on individual perspectives to describe the dynamic nature of their sexual relationships. In the future, it is expected from dyadic research to provide special contribution, as there are multiple combinations of attachment styles that can impact the experience of sex between dyads. However, since there are no previous studies about the prevalence of FSD symptoms in women in our region (Serbian speaking area), nor the correlates of the disorder, the results of this study are an important starting point for future research, as well as for recording and tracking sexual health of women, with the aim of improving the efficiency of clinical treatment of dysfunctions.

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СЕСУАЛНО ФУНКЦИОНИСАЊЕ ЖЕНА У СРБИЈИ: РЕЛАЦИЈЕ СА АФЕКТИВНОМ ВЕЗАНОШЋУ

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Резиме

На нашим просторима су ретка истраживања сексуалног функционисања ван релације са ефектима фармакотерапија неких других болести или проблема у менталном здрављу. Не постоје истраживања која доводе у везу афективну везаност са сексуалним понашањем или са сексуалним дисфункцијама, иако се сама афективна везаност доводи у везу са другим карактеристикама партнерског функционисања. Обрасци партнерске афективне везаности представљају значајан елемент динамике партнерске релације и могу бити повезани са различитим индикаторима квалитета везе, па тако и са сексуалним односима. Ефекти афективне везаности на сексуални аспект функционисања у вези препознају се као кључни чинилац динамике односа у паровима који се јављају на брачну терапију због дијадних, као и индивидуалних, проблема. У овом истраживању је анализирана повезаност сексуалног функционисања жена са карактеристикама партнерске афективне везаности. Сексуално функционисање жена у овом раду посматрано је кроз следеће димензије: израженост сексуалне жеље, постизање узбуђења, овлаживање, постизање оргазма, задовољство сексуалним животом и бол приликом односа. Ове категорије функционисања, уколико у њима постоје проблеми, сматрају се индикаторима сексуалне дисфункције. Истраживање је спроведено на пригодном узорку сачињеном од 284 испитанице, узраста од 18 до 65 година, из Србије, које су у стабилној партнерској вези дужи од шест месеци. Значајно присуство симптома сексуалне дисфункције забележено је код 24,6% испитаница, док је 75,4% без присуства симптома. Када су у питању појединачне димензије сексуалног функционисања, највише је проблема са сексуалном жељом, а најмање са овлаживањем и болом. Између укупног броја симптома и димензија афективног везивања добијене су умерене корелације. Каноничка корелациона анализа указала је на то да су димензије афективне везаности повезане у највећој мери са субјективним доживљајем задовољства сексуалним животом. Ограничења студије су вишеструка. Узорак је прикупљен путем онлајн-дисеминације. Из тог разлога доминирају подаци о женама високог образовања (70% узорка), чиме је отежана генерализација значаја резултата. Узорак је укључивао искључиво жене и ослањао се на индивидуалну перспективу приликом описа динамике природе њиховог сексуалног живота. У будућности се може очекивати да „дијадичка истраживања” пруже специфични допринос, узимајући у обзир то да постоје вишеструке комбинације стилова везивања који могу утицати на сексуално искуство између дијада. Поред наведених ограничења, потребно је истаћи да су резултати спроведеног истраживања у складу са резултатима иностраних студија и представљају значајну полазну тачку за будућа истраживања релација афективног везивања и сексуалног понашања или дисфункција на нашим просторима.

ЕКОНОМИЈА
ECONOMICS

INFRASTRUCTURE AS A FACTOR OF COMPETITIVENESS OF THE SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

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Abstract

The paper examines the intensity of the infrastructure impact (roads, port infrastructure, air transport, electricity supply) on improving competitiveness quantified by Gross Domestic Product per capita (GDP pc) of twelve Emerging and Developing European countries according to the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) of the World Economic Forum (WEF) and the methodology for the period 2007 - 2017. The impact of infrastructure as one of the basic factors of competitiveness on GDP growth per capita was seen through single (linear and exponential) and panel data linear regression analyses. The results of the research showed that the development of the infrastructure has a very positive impact on GDP growth per capita. Positive interdependence is far more evident in six economically less developed Emerging and developing European countries that were (Croatia) or are the current members of CEFTA (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia) in comparison to the six remaining Emerging and developing European countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Turkey) in the observed period. Taking into consideration the fact that all CEFTA countries analyzed are at some stage of their accession to the European Union, the conclusion is that they must pay special attention to the development of infrastructure.

Key words: infrastructure, competitiveness, economic growth, Emerging and Developing Europe, CEFTA.

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ИНФРАСТРУКТУРА КАО ФАКТОР КОНКУРЕНТНОСТИ ОДАБРАНИХ ЗЕМАЉА ЕВРОПЕ

Апстракт

У раду је испитиван интензитет утицаја развоја инфраструктуре (путева, лучке инфраструктуре, авио-транспортног саобраћаја, снабдевања електричном енергијом) на унапређење конкурентности дванаест европских земаља у развоју (Emerging and Developing European, EDE, по методологији Међународног монетарног фонда), у периоду 2012–2017. Притом су анализиране европске земље у развоју разврстане у две групе од по шест земаља: земље актуелне чланице СЕФТА групације (Албанија, Босна и Херцеговина, Хрватска – која је до 1. 7. 2013. била чланица СЕФТА, Македонија, Црна Гора и Србија) и шест осталих европских земаља у развоју (Бугарска, Мађарска, Литванија, Пољска, Румунија и Турска). Утицај инфраструктуре, као једног од базичних фактора конкурентности на раст бруто домаћег производа по становнику, истраживан је путем једноструке (линеарне и експоненцијалне) и помоћу панел-дата линеарне регресионе анализе. Резултати истраживања показали су да је ниво развијености инфраструктуре у периоду 2007–2012. имао изразито позитиван утицај на раст бруто домаћег производа по становнику у раду свих дванаест анализираних европских земаља. Позитивна међузависност је далеко израженија код шест земаља које су некад биле чланице СЕФТА групације или су њене актуелне чланице. Узевши у обзир чињеницу да се све анализиране земље СЕФТА налазе у некој фази свог придруживања Европској унији, закључак је да би оне посебну пажњу у наредном периоду морале да посвете развоју инфраструктуре.

Кључне речи: инфраструктура, конкурентност, економски раст, европске земље у развоју, СЕФТА.

INTRODUCTION

The level of competitiveness of the country shows its ability to produce goods whose realization increases the level of well-being of the population in conditions of free competition. Therefore, considerable attention is paid to testing and improving competitiveness as one of the key strategic tasks of each country.

There is no generally accepted definition of the country's competitiveness. Moreover, the authors' views on the nature of the concept itself differ greatly in economic science. For instance, a number of economic theorists believe that the category of competitiveness has the status of the "natural law of a modern market economy" (Kitson et al., 2004). As evidence of such claims, these authors cite the fact that the policy of improving competitiveness has become one of the most important levers of economic development in recent years in many countries (USA, UK, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, and Japan). On the contrary, the number of economic analysts that consider the concept of competitiveness of the country as absolutely wrong and that it simply comes down to productivity, cannot be neglected (Krugman, 1994).

According to the definition of the World Economic Forum, competitiveness is a set of institutions, policies and factors that determine the

level of productivity of a country (Schwab & Porter, 2007; 2008) The country's competitiveness is theoretically more controversial in terms of competitiveness of enterprises (Commission of the European Communities, 2003) despite the fact that its promotion is often regarded as the main goal of economic policy. It is a general view that progress in the economic performance of the country does not have to be dependent on others and that factor productivity is a key element of competitiveness seen at a macro level (Cvetanović et al., 2015).

Since the country's competitiveness category is complex and comprehensive, the process of quantifying it is also very complex. The quantification of the increasing influence of non-price factors of international competitiveness, mainly of a qualitative nature, is one of the basic conceptual difficulties in showing the achieved level of competitiveness of countries.

Leaving aside the discussion on how to quantify the country's competitiveness, the view that the least controversial way of measuring the competitiveness of a country, which boils down to productivity, seems to be acceptable. This is due to the fact that the most important goal of a country is to provide its citizens with a high standard of living and its continued growth. The ability to do this depends on the productivity with which a working country and capital are used in a given country. Productivity is the main determinant of long-term living standards in one country, and the main determinant of gross domestic product per capita (GDP pc). "Productivity of human resources determines earnings of employees; the productivity of capital use determines the yield that it brings to its owners " (Porter, 2008, p. 165).

A particularly sensitive issue in theory relates to the drivers of the competitiveness of countries. Numerous factors influence the growth of economic prosperity, that is, the competitiveness of countries. The Institute for Management Development (IMD), the World Competitiveness Center from Switzerland, gives a list of even 200 factors (<https://worldcompetitiveness.imd.org/>). It is clear that competitiveness factors can be grouped according to different criteria. Among other things, it is possible to distinguish the inherited, on one hand, and created factors of competitiveness of the country, on the other (Ketels, 2006). For the competitiveness of the country, the factors that trigger activities that create value for customers are crucial. In principle, these are the created factors of competitiveness (Cvetanović & Mladenović, 2018).

All factors of competitiveness of the countries, according to the methodology of the World Economic Forum, can be grouped into twelve groups (Institutions, Infrastructure, Macroeconomic Environment, Health and Primary Education, Higher Education and Training, Goods Market Efficiency, Labor Market Efficiency, Financial Market Development, Technological Readiness, Market Size, Business Sophistication and Innovation). These pillars include microeconomic and macroeconomic factors

that, together with the institutions, determine the competitiveness of the country.

An important factor of the country's competitiveness is the infrastructure (Palei, 2015; Farhadi, 2015). Developed infrastructure reduces the effects of distance between individual regions, resulting in the integration of national markets and linkages with other countries with relatively low costs. Developed transport and communication infrastructure network is the prerequisite for connecting companies from less developed communities with economic entities of economically developed countries.

The subject of this work is infrastructure as a factor of competitiveness. There seems to be an attempt to see its significance for improving the competitiveness of countries measured by the growth of national productivity determined by GDP pc. (Estache & Garsous, 2012; Frone & Frone, 2014; Pradhan & Bagchi, 2013; Song & Geenhuizen, 2014; Cvetanović, Zlatković & Cvetanović, 2011). The aim of the research is to analyze the importance of infrastructure as a factor of competitiveness measured by GDP pc of twelve European countries belonging to the Emerging market and developing economies according to the methodology of the International Monetary Fund. This group includes the Republic of Serbia and all border countries. In addition to this group of countries, IMF World Economic Outlook also distinguishes Advanced economies (World Economic Outlook Database April 2017 -- WEO Groups and Aggregates Information, n.d.). This classification is not based on strict economic or other criteria, but it has evolved over time to facilitate the organization and analysis of significant economic data. The underlying hypothesis of work is that the development of the infrastructure has a positive impact on the improvement of the country's competitiveness.

The work is structured in seven sections. The first section is an introduction explaining the object and objectives of the research. The second section presents an overview of the theoretical empirical literature observing infrastructure and economic growth. In the third section, infrastructure is considered as the basic factor of competitiveness of countries. The fourth section describes the research methodology. The results of the research and discussion are given in the fifth section of the paper. The most important conclusions are systematized in the sixth section. Finally, in the seventh section, a list of the literature used is presented.

INFRASTRUCTURE AND ECONOMIC GROWTH: AN OVERVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The contribution of the infrastructure to the growth of the competitiveness of countries was studied in much of the theoretical literature. There are numerous models in which the place of individual forms of infrastructure, and especially public infrastructure, is explored, to improve

the competitiveness of countries quantified by productivity growth at the national level, i.e. the rate of economic growth (Barro, 1990; Glomm & Ravikumar, 1997; Ghosh & Roy, 2004). In a number of papers, the location of infrastructure as a component of physical capital in models of economic growth was examined (Cvetanovic et al, 2011) or the contribution of infrastructure to the developmental convergence of countries was studied (Cvetanovic et al, 2012).

Starting with the publication of Aschauer's works (1989a; 1989b), there has been an increasing number of empirical studies of the relationship between infrastructure and economic growth (Canning & Pedroni, 1999; Bougheas et al., 2000; Roller & Waverman, 2001; Calderón, C., & Servén, 2004; Calderón et al., 2015). In spite of the different methodological approaches and the use of different datasets, most empirical studies have confirmed the positive impact of infrastructure development on national productivity (Munnell, 1990; Fernald, 1999; Calderón, C., & Servén, 2004; Fedderke et al., 2006; Torrisi, 2010).

Hall and Jones (1999) tried to measure how many differences in the amount of physical capital contribute to the difference in output per worker between countries. Penn World Tables used data on physical capital. They compiled their results by comparing the five richest and the five poorest countries in their sample. The average product per worker in the group of rich countries was 31.7 times higher than the one in the group of poor countries. Even one sixth of the gap in the size of production per worker between the two groups of the observed countries was the result of differences in the amount of physical capital. Easterly and Levine (2002) also found that part of the differences in growth rates and GDP pc levels between countries can be explained by differences in the amount of capital.

There is a widespread consensus that infrastructure is necessary for economic growth and improving the competitiveness of countries. It is visible that infrastructure increases productivity and attracts business by reducing transport costs (Cvetanović et al, 2012) and production, as well as facilitating access to the market. Banerjee et al. (2012), Boopen (2006), kao i Torero et al. (2002) confirmed in their researches a positive causal link between the development of telecommunication infrastructure and economic growth in developing countries. Canning & Pedroni (2004) have proven that infrastructure has a positive impact on the long-term growth rate of GDP per capita. Also, they found great differences in the intensity of the infrastructure's impact on GDP growth in some countries. Duggal et al. (2007) conclude that public infrastructure has the potential to generate effects of economies of scale, which *ceteris paribus* leads to a continuous intensification of economic growth. Apart from being one of the most important drivers of economic growth, efficient public infrastructure improves quality of life and is crucial for national security

(Baldwin & Dixon, 2008). Therefore, it is logical that the improvement of the quality of infrastructure is an increasingly important goal of sustainable development policies for most countries.

Egert, Kozluk & Sutherland (2009) have identified the positive impact of investment in infrastructure on economic growth, indicating that this effect varies across OECD countries. Palei (2015) argues that infrastructure such as roads, electricity, telecommunication networks, water supply and waste management provides services that are crucial for the functioning of a modern economy.

Furthermore, in the works related to India and China (Sahoo & Dash, 2009; Sahoo, Dash & Nataraj, 2010), the analysis of the impact of investments in infrastructure on economic growth shows that there is a causal link between the development of infrastructure and economic growth. The authors conclude that from a policy perspective, more emphasis should be placed on infrastructure development in order to maintain the high economic growth that the Indian economy had in the years of the first decade of this century. In this context, the authors cite an example of China's aggressive investment (about 15% of GDP) in infrastructure explaining the maintenance of extremely high economic growth rates in China and minimizing the impact of the global financial crisis on its economy.

However, the authors of the paper which has a greater relevance for the research in this paper (Crescenzi & Rodríguez-Pose, 2012), as far as the EU is concerned, through panel analysis, come up with results showing that investments in transport infrastructure hardly predict the economic growth of some of the EU region. This is particularly worrying because of the fact that it has a significant role in EU regional development strategies.

On the other hand, the authors explore the impact of the three infrastructure components on economic growth (IT, energy infrastructure and roads and railways) in the case of the EU as a whole, in the paper *The Effects of Infrastructure Determinants on Economic Growth: European Union Sample* (Sahin, Can & Demirbas, 2014) 27, and especially the EU 15 and the EU 12. It is shown that investments in IT infrastructure have positive effects on economic growth in all groups, investments in energy infrastructure have positive effects in EU 15 and EU 27, and investments in rail and road infrastructure have positive effects only for the totally observed group of EU-27 countries.

The meta-analysis of the *Infrastructure Impact Study on Economic Growth* (Elburz, Nijkamp, & Pels, 2017) shows that the type of infrastructure, the research methodology, the time period, the type of infrastructure measures and the geographical extent of the research, affect the results of the primary studies that were processed. Studies suggesting interregional and inter-state relations have shown greater chances of finding

even the statistically negative effects of infrastructure on economic growth, giving authors an incentive for ideas about the effects of spillover of these infrastructure investments (Spillover Effect). Also, this meta-analysis shows that the choice of only some of the infrastructure characteristics, i.e. indicators from the exogenous side, as well as the selection of a particular economic sector from an endogenous foreign model most often does not have an effect on obtaining statistically positive, negative or irrelevant findings. These studies offer new findings on variations in empirical results in relation to modeling and analyzing the relationship between infrastructure and economic growth, which assumes a recommendation for the parallel application of several statistical techniques and tools for the credibility of the results obtained.

INFRASTRUCTURE AS THE BASIC FACTOR OF COMPETITIVENESS

It can be said that there is no consensus among researchers concerning which indicators characterize infrastructures in a sufficiently representative way as one of the factors for improving the competitiveness of countries. Most often, infrastructure is viewed as a coherent and unique set of interconnected elements, e.g. passenger and freight transport, water supply and sewerage, information and communication technologies (ICT) and energy transport (electricity, gas pipeline network) (Agenor & Moreno-Dodson, 2006). It is possible to observe the influence of each part of the infrastructure on economic growth, or improving the competitiveness of individual countries (Canning & Pedroni, 1999).

When selecting indicators that represent the achieved level of infrastructure development, most commonly used physical indicators (kilometers of paved roads, length of railroads, number of airports, number of telephone lines, number of mobile subscribers, number of broadband Internet users), or, rarely, financial indicators (investment in development of infrastructure, investment in maintenance of infrastructure). It should be noted that the use of financial parameters must take into account: very complex estimates of the value of the existing infrastructure as a type of acquired social capital; differences in the life cycle of different types of infrastructure, as well as the specificity of investment and current costs, depending on the type of infrastructure. Due to the complexity of the monitoring of the effectuation of infrastructure investments, we believe that the use of physical indicators better reflects investments in infrastructure than financial parameters.

The most widely used method of measuring competitiveness of countries is the Global Competitiveness Index of the World Economic Forum. It is structured through 12 major drivers of competitiveness. (Figure 1).

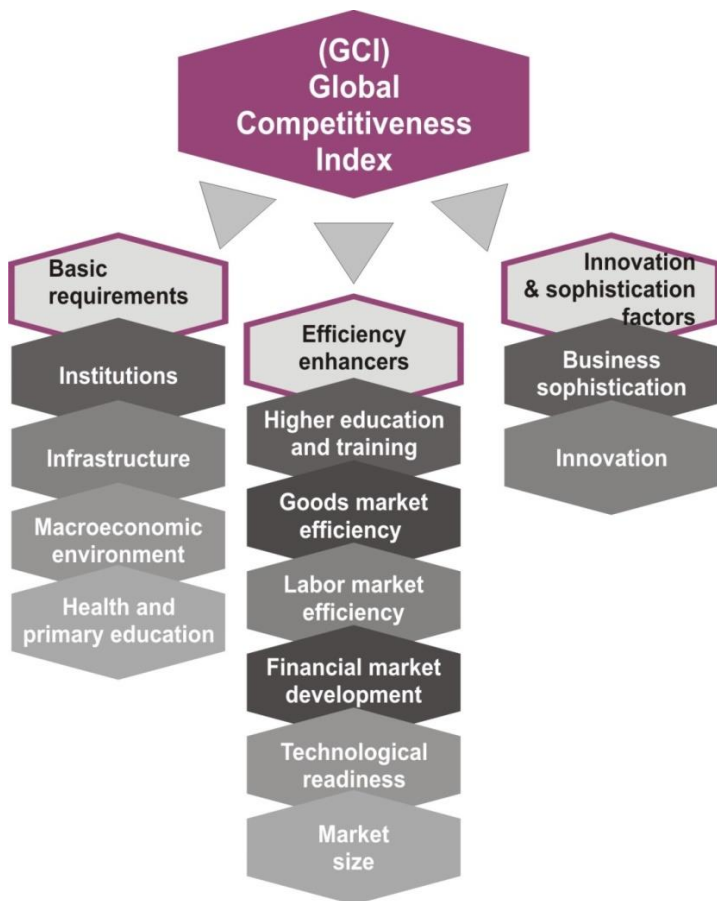


Figure 1. Structure of the Global Competitiveness Index according to the GCI v3.0 methodology

Source: Despotovic, Filipović & Ilić, 2016, p.10 modified by WEF, 2018, p.9

The Global Competitiveness Index looks at the competitiveness of countries by factors determining the productivity category, which is considered the most important of its illustrations. The causal link between the category of competitiveness of the country and productivity is firmly grounded in theoretical and empirical research.

Each of the mentioned drivers (pillars) is in itself a composite index that is formed as a weighted average of the indicators. The pillar composition Infrastructure consists of the nine components presented in Figure 2.

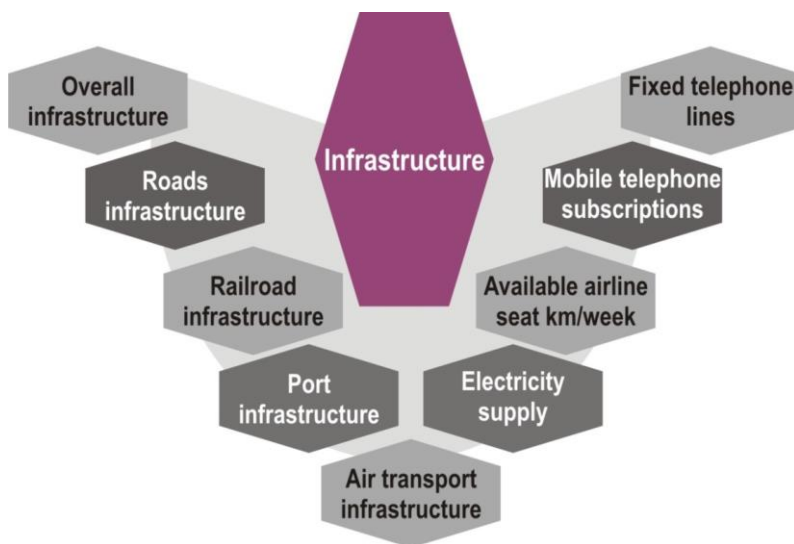


Figure 2. Components of Infrastructure as a GCI column

Developed and efficient infrastructure is the basis of competitiveness. Quality infrastructure promotes economic growth, and at the same time it reduces inequality in the distribution of created income and wealth. An efficient way of transporting goods, people and services, such as good roads, railways, ports, air transport, enables entrepreneurs to place their goods and services on the market. Economies greatly depend on good electricity supply as well as on the telecommunication network.

METHODOLOGY

In accordance with the research subject, in order to perceive the importance of well-developed infrastructure as one of the basic factors of competitiveness (according to the IGK methodology v3.0), productivity growth was measured at the level of GDP pc (which is considered the most important determinant of long-term economic growth) and the impact of Infrastructure pillar on the economic growth of the EDE countries (emerging and developing Europe country according to the IMF methodology) was analyzed.

The choice of the EDE (a group of fast growing European economies in development) is in line with the fact that it is a group of economies with similar economic and historical backgrounds that, at least in a part of the observed period, based their economic competitiveness on basic economic factors (*Basic Economic Requirements*) including infrastructure (WEF, 2018, p. 12).

Additionally, the division of *Emerging and developing Europe (EDE)*¹ countries into two subgroups according to the CEFTA (Central European Free Trade Agreement) countries during the survey period (2007-2017) was carried out.

- CEFTA² countries (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Kosovo as UMNİK, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia) and
- the remaining European countries of the non-CEFTA EDE (Bulgaria, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Turkey).

CEFTA membership is a mechanism for incubating potential EU members (except in the case of Turkey that is not a member of CEFTA but is a potential EU member) for full accession. The author's assumption is that the significance of the infrastructure's impact on growth in this group of countries can substantially bounce off the rest of the EDE countries (EDE non-CEFTA).

Based on GCI *data base* the development of the infra structure *is observed*, with one, and the GDP pc of the observed groups of countries, on the other hand, for the selected time period from 2007 to 2017 (that is, the maximum available time series according to World Development Indicators. n.d). The following two hypotheses are set:

- H1** – The level of infrastructure development has a positive impact on the improvement of the competitiveness of countries expressed in GDP pc.
- H2** – The significance of the positive impact of infrastructure development is inversely proportional to the achieved GDP pc of some countries.

H1 hypothesis is based on the assumption that raising the achieved level of infrastructure development promotes economic activities both internally within the economy and external with external economic entities within the region and the global economy. Therefore, it is expected that the change in the level of infrastructure development at the national level has a positive impact on the GDP pc, that is, the growth of the country's competitiveness. Additional support for the hypothesis H1 is given through the monitoring of data of achieved infrastructure level over time in relation to GDP pc, which is the incubation period for activating the observed impact of the hypothetically independent variable *Infrastructure* on the dependent variable *GDP pc*.

¹ Lithuania was taken because it belonged to the EDE group by the end of 2014 according to the Select Aggregates IMF WEO. (ND), which coincides with the end of the observed time series (since 2015, Lithuania does not belong to the EDE group)

² CEFTA agreement: Croatia (2003-2013), Macedonia (2006-), Albania (2007-), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2007-), Montenegro (2007-), Serbia (2007-). Kosovo as UMNİK (2007-).** Croatia has not been a member of CEFTA since 2013, but it has been a major part of the observed time series; *** Kosovo as UMNİK is not included due to inaccessible data for most of the observed time series.

The H2 hypothesis is based on the fact that Infrastructure is one of the basic factors of competitiveness of countries and its direct positive impact decreases in proportion to GDP growth pc. The high level of infrastructure development is an immanent characteristic of economically developed economies that base their economic development on the innovative performances of market entities as the global paradigm of future economic progress.

The starting methodological assumptions in this research are as follows:

1. In addition to descriptive statistics, the methodology of the research implies the application of single regression analysis and panel data regression analysis, which checks the level of credibility of the obtained results (since previous research of these phenomena resulted in contradictory results).
2. The assumed research model has a simple structure with as few variables as possible and with the maximum available time series of data. Variables in the model are the abstracted scalar values of multidimensional phenomena: a) Pillar Infrastructure GCI and b) Economic Growth. In this way, on the one hand, the granulation of the model is lost, but, on the other hand, it is easier to interpret the obtained results and define general recommendations.
3. The observed population in the model is defined and observed: a) at the level of the selected 12 EDE countries; and b) at the level of groups of six countries (EDE CEFTA and EDE non CEFTA countries) assuming the different potential of the impact of infrastructure on the economic growth of the countries measured by GDP pc. This is directed towards reducing the impact of the spillover effect (which exists between the countries that make up these two groups) on the obtained results of the research.

The process of data preparation and statistical analysis in the research was carried out in three steps.

- i) analyzing the database of the reference GCI reference frame for identifying the tested variables, as well as downloading, filtering and structuring available data (Competitiveness rankings, n.d.),
- ii) a statistical check of the time series of data in order to determine their degree of homogeneity and consistency (descriptive statistics) that are graphically represented in the box plot diagrams
- iii) application of statistical tools: a) simple (linear and exponential) correlation and regression analysis; b) panel linear regression analysis (with fixed and random effects) for exploring interdependence of infrastructure and economic growth according to the assumed hypothetical model.

RESULT RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION

Infrastructure Impacts on the Competitiveness of Countries Valued for GDP pc were examined on a sample of 12 EDE countries, which were observed:

- as a unique EDE group that encompasses all 12 countries and as two subgroups in line with CEFTA membership during the observed period (2007-2017);
- EDE CEFTA subgroup consists of 6 countries that have been CEFTA members for most of the observed period
- EDE non-CEFTA subgroup consists of 6 non-CEFTA countries during the observed period.

Descriptive Statistics

Figure 2 shows the average values: a) Pillar GCI - Infrastructure and b) GDP per capita and current US dollars for each of the analyzed countries in the observed period. The diagram at the level of average values shows that there is a potential positive relationship between the observed variables that we will examine in detail in the following part of the work.

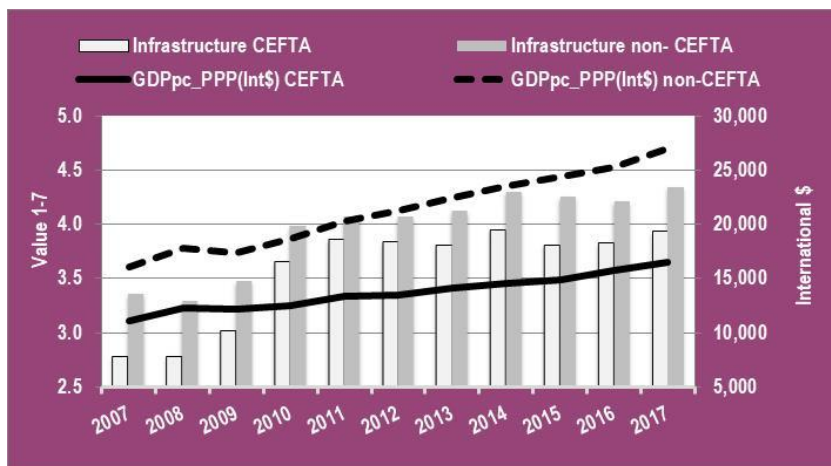


Figure 3. Average values of analyzed variables in the period 2007-2017.
Source: Downloads GCI dataset in Excel. (n.d.); World Development Indicators. (n.d.)

Figure 3 illustrates infrastructure trends and GDP per capita in the period 2007-2017. CEFTA countries, as well as other non-CEFTA EDE countries, are viewed as unique entities, allowing for a simple comparison of the level of infrastructure development in them as well as the achieved GDP pc level. Observed characteristics by selected groups of countries are shown aggregately as the average of the results achieved by the ob-

served countries in the domain of infrastructure development (according to GCI) and by competitiveness quantified by GDP pc.

Based on Figure 3, it is noticed that there is a constant improvement in the achieved level of infrastructure in both observed EDE countries, but with the fact that the evident advantage of the non-CEFTA group has significantly decreased since 2010. GDP per capita in both groups of countries shows the obvious effects of the economic downturn with double bottom.

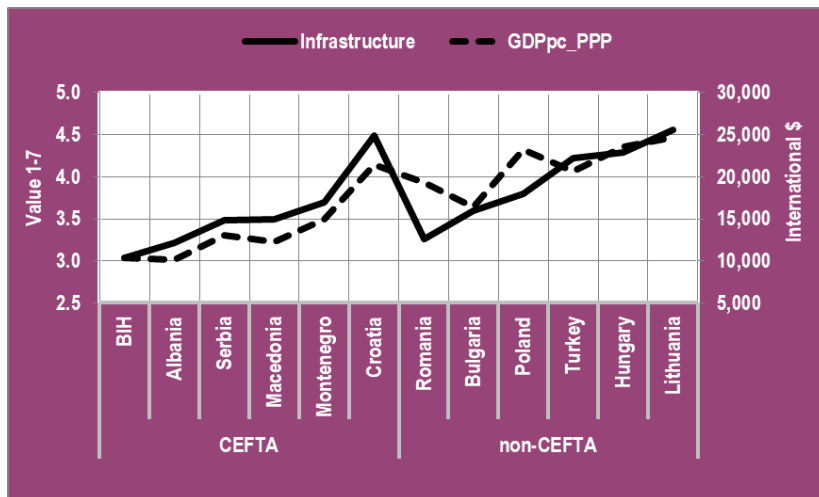


Figure 4. Infrastructure movement and GDP pc for CEFTA and non-CEFTA countries

Source: Downloads GCI dataset in Excel. (n.d.); World Development Indicators. (n.d.)

In Figure 4, it can be seen that Croatia, according to the average values of both indicators, is most developed within CEFTA, and Lithuania within the non-CEFTA group of countries.

In Figure 5, mean values, standard deviations, and variation coefficients of analyzed variables in the model (x and y) for all three population sets are given. Also, the box plot diagram of the observed variables is shown.

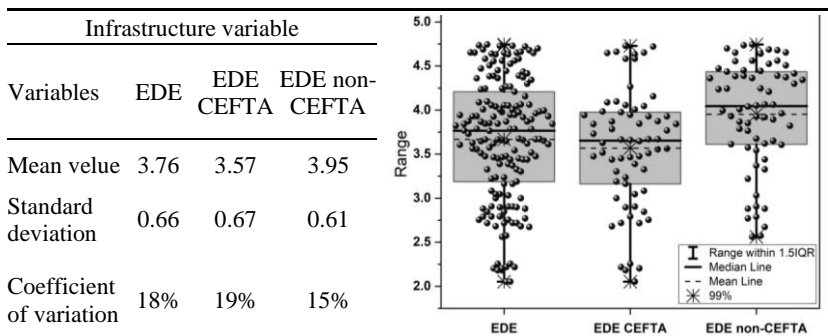


Figure 5. Summary statistics of Infrastructure variable for the period 2007 to 2017

Source: Downloads GCI dataset in Excel. (n.d.)

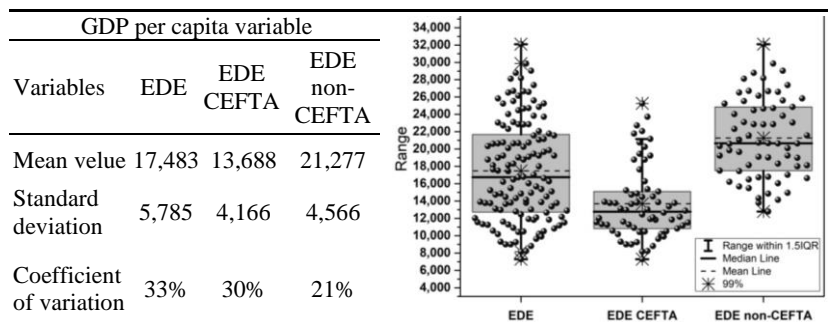


Figure 6. Summary statistics of GDP per capita variable for the period 2007 – 2017

Source: World Development Indicators. (n.d.)

Based on Figures 5 and 6, it is possible to formulate the following conclusions:

- the presence of atypical values is noticed due to the highly positive or negative deviation of the elements relative to the rest of the population with the exception of the GDP per capita variable for the CEFTA population, where data for Croatia show atypical high values,
- the average values as well as the quartile and median values of the observed variables included in the analysis show that the data are comparable and relatively homogeneous in all observed population aggregates.

The relatively low variation coefficients of an independent variable (x - infrastructure) in the model indicate that this is a variable where the share of the forest is statistically low, which confirms the accuracy of the behavior prediction in the initial model. The significantly higher coefficient of variation shows the dependent variable (y - GDP per capita), which is expected due to its complex character.

Because of the fact that the research is based on regression analysis, it is also necessary to prove the absence of a unit root, that is, the temporal stationarity of the observed variables in the model. If this condition is not met, false regression can occur and the estimated parameters could be biased (Levin, Lin, & Chu, 2002). As the independent variable Infrastructure in the model represents the aggregated value of the 2nd pillar GCI, it is assumed that this variable is inherently relative and time stationary. The dependent variable GDP pc as well as most of the standard econometric indicators may tend to be unstable. To test the stationarity of the data panel in the model, a Levin-Lin-Chu unit-root test was applied, and the results were given in Table 1.

Table 1. Unit-root test for variables in model

Number of panels = 12		Number of periods = 11		
Variable	X1	Y	Y'	Ln(Y)
Levin-Lin-Chu unit-root test				
Ho: Panels contain unit roots				
Ha: Panels are stationary				
p-value	0.0000	0.6902	0.0024	0.0049
Unadjusted t statistic	-13.277	-0.671	-7.448	-3.345
Adjusted t* statistic	-11.829	0.497	-2.815	-2.582

X1 – Infrastructure; Y – GDP pc PPP (international \$)

Table 1 presents the results of the applied test of the existence of a single root of the analyzed data panels. As shown in Table 1, the null hypothesis of the existence of a unit root can be rejected for an independent Infrastructure variable (p-value <0.05), indicating its stationarity. On the other hand, the applied root test concludes that the dependent variables Y (GDP pc) show a statistically significant tendency of non-stationarity. Therefore, the additional step of checking the stationarity a) of the natural logarithm of the dependent function Ln (Y) and b) of the first derivative of the dependent function Y '. Both transformed values of the dependent variable according to the applied test do not show the expressed tendency of the unit root of the time series.

Consequently, single linear / exponential regression analysis and panel regression analysis can be continued.

Single Regression Analysis

For the time series in the period 2007-2017, a corresponding regression model (linear and exponential regression) was constructed, with the 2nd pillar GCI - Infrastructure, which includes 9 indicators (shown in Figure 2), as an independent variable. It is a composite indicator because it represents the aggregated value of the corresponding infrastructure indicators. The movement of economic growth, as dependent variables, is monitored through Gross domestic product per capita and current US dollars.

The degree of interdependence of *Infrastructure* and *GDP per capita* (in US \$) as a competitiveness indicator was examined through a single regression and correlation analysis using linear (1) and exponential (2) functional dependencies.

$$\text{Linear: } y(t) = A + B \cdot x(t-1) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Exponential: } y(t) = B \cdot e^{A \cdot x(t-1)} \text{ that is } \ln y(t) = B + A \cdot x(t-1) \quad (2)$$

where:

a, b – constants of the linear/exponential model;

x – independent (exogenous) variable (infrastructure);

y – dependent (endogenous) variable (GDP per capita international US\$);

t – time in years;

As shown in the equations, the design of the model took into account the time delay of the influence of the *infrastructure* on the *GDP per capita* movement, so that these two variables were taken with a time shift of one year ($t = 1$)

Based on the results of the conducted regression analysis presented in Tables 2 and 3, two models of linear and exponential form were obtained.

Table 2. Summary statistics of linear regression analysis

	Dependent variable: $y(t) - \text{GDPpc_ppp}$		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
$x(t-1)$ - Infrastructure	6,333*** (538.5)	5,002*** (454.1)	5,150*** (650.8)
Constant	-5,701*** (2,037)	-3,716** (1,632)	1,644 (2,578)
Observations	120	60	60
R ²	0.540	0.677	0.519
Adjusted R ²	0.536	0.671	0.511
Root mean square err	3942.1 (df = 118)	2355.5 (df = 58)	3073.8 (df = 58)
F Statistic	138.32	121.37	62.63

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

(1) Emerging and Developing Europe (EDE) group; (2) CEFTA subgroup; (3) Non CEFTA subgroup

Table 3. Summary statistics of exponential regression analysis

	Dependent variable: $\ln(y(t)) - \ln(\text{GDPpc_ppp})$		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
$x(t-1)$ - Infrastructure	0.372*** (0.0306)	0.342*** (0.0282)	0.243*** (0.0299)
Constant	8.352*** (0.116)	8.297*** (0.101)	9.018*** (0.119)
Observations	120	60	60
R ²	0.557	0.717	0.532
Adjusted R ²	0.553	0.712	0.524
Root mean square err	0.224 (df = 70)	0.146 (df = 58)	0.141
F Statistic	148.09	146.70	66.01

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

(1) Emerging and Developing Europe (EDE) group; (2) CEFTA subgroup; (3) NonCEFTA subgroup

Graphic interpretation of the linear and exponential regression model of infrastructure influence, not economic growth, is shown in Figures 7, 8 and 9.

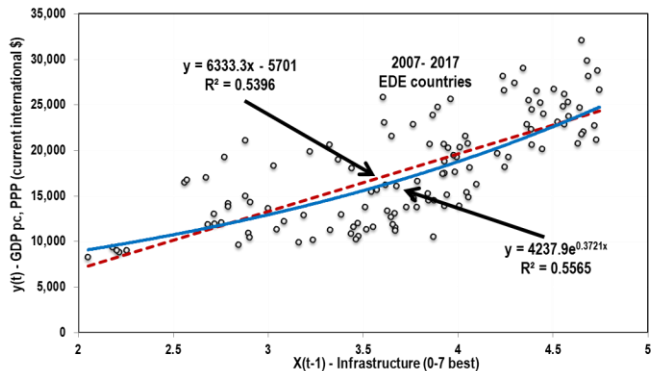


Figure 7. Dependence of GDP per capita from the level of infrastructure for all EDE countries

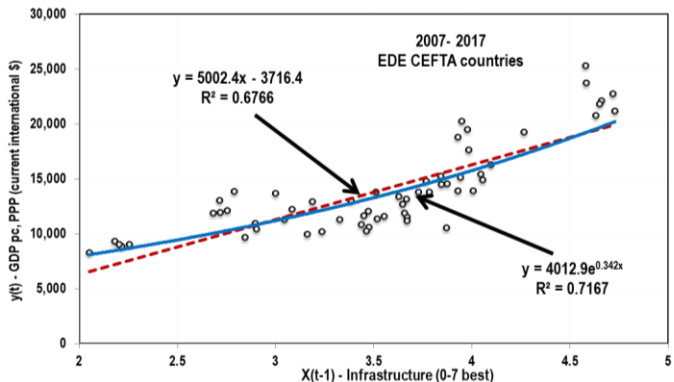


Figure 8. The dependence of GDP per capita on the level of infrastructure for EDE CEFTA subgroup of countries

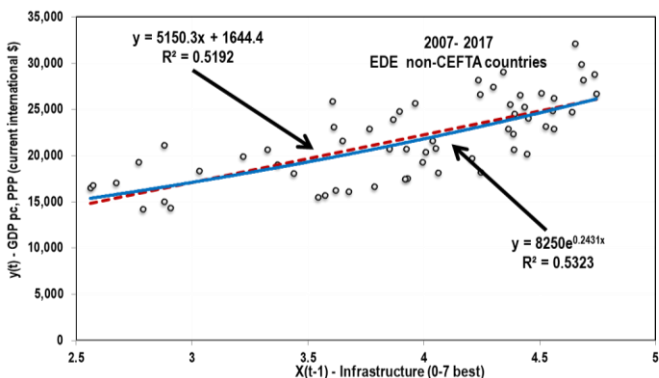


Figure 9. Dependence of GDP per capita from the level of infrastructure for EDE non-CEFTA subgroup of countries

- (1) The analysis of the relationship shown in Figure 7 (Hypothesis H1) determined the Pearson correlation coefficient $R = 0.746$, which is more than the limit value that is 0.380 for the number of degrees of freedom $n = 70$ and the significance level $p < 0.01$.
- (2) The analysis of the relationship shown in Figure 8 (Hypothesis H2) determined the Pearson correlation coefficient value $R = 0.847$, which is more than the limit value which is 0.525 for the number of degrees of freedom $n = 34$ and the significance level $p < 0.01$.
- (3) The analysis of the relationship shown in Figure 9 (Hypothesis H2) determined the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient $R = 0.730$, which is more than the limit value which is 0.525 for the number of degrees of freedom $n = 34$ and the significance level $p < 0.01$.

Correlation coefficients unambiguously show that there is a significant degree of interdependence of the observed variables in all three observed populations, and that it is most evident in the population of the EDA CEFTA group of countries.

The results obtained indicate that:

- (1) change in the achieved level of infrastructure development in the period 2007-2017 had a statistically significant impact on the competitiveness measured by the GDP pc of the countries of the EDE ($p < 0.01$) and variations of this variable explain about 55% (the coefficient of determination R^2 is 0.55 in the exponential and 0.54 in the linear model) of the total variations in the economic growth movement of the EDE countries in the period 2007-2017 on the assumption that the remaining 45% variation of GDP pc is under the influence of factors which are not covered by the model.

However, when further test iteration examines the results at the level of the two subgroups of countries within the EDE, it is shown that:

- (2) Variations of independent variables explain as much as 71% (the coefficient of determination R^2 is 0.71 in the exponential and 0.67 in the linear model) of the total variations in the economic growth movement of the countries of the EDA CEFTA in the period 2007-2017 assuming that the remaining 29% variation of GDP pc is under the influence of factors that are not covered by the model.
- (3) Variations of variable Infrastructure explain only 53% (the coefficient of determination R^2 is 0.53 in exponential and 0.51 in the linear model) of the total variations in the economic growth of non-CEFTA countries in the period 2007-2017 assuming that the remaining 47% of the GDP pc variation is under the influence of factors not covered by the model. This shows that for a group of non-CEFTA countries, the statistical significance of the impact of infrastructure on economic growth is considerably lower in both of the applied regression models.

This suggests that a certain potential of the connection between the default variables of the *Infrastructure* and the *GDP pc* exists, and that it is particularly evident in the EDE CEFTA group.

Panel Linear Regression Analysis

However, as far as the panel timeline is concerned, it is assumed that the obtained guidelines for the connection of the observed variables should be statistically analyzed by panel linear regression analysis. Panel analysis was done for each of the observed groups in particular (and not for the entire population of EDA countries) and a binary EU dummy variable was introduced, which has a value of one if the country was a full EU member in that year or zero in the opposite situation. The idea is that using this dummy variable will absorb the impact of EU membership on the GDP pc and thus isolate the impact inherent in the Infrastructure variables.

In general, Panel data linear regression analysis is performed as a statistical process for assessing the relationship between variables involving a time series aspect. This also involves the use of a predefined model and analysis of variables with a focus on the relationship between GDP pc, a representative of economic growth, and 1 independent variable *Infrastructure and one dummy variable*. Such Panel data multiple regression analysis helps us understand the process of change in the value of the dependent variable when the value of some of the independent variables varies, assuming *ceteris paribus*.

$$y_{it+n} = \alpha + x'_{it}\beta + c_i + u_{it} \quad (3)$$

Where: y_{it+n} is dependent variable, α is intercept, x'_{it} is a K-dimensional row vector of explanatory variables, β is K-dimensional column vector of parameters, c_i is country specific effect and u_{it} is error overall term.

The model is linear in parameters α , and β , individual effect c_i and overall error u_{it} .

In the random effect model, the individual-specific effect is a random variable that is uncorrelated with the explanatory variables. This assumption says that the individual-specific effect is a random variable that is uncorrelated with the explanatory variables of all past, current and future time periods of the same individual. At contrary, in the fixed effects model, the individual-specific effect is a random variable that is allowed to be correlated with the explanatory variables test. In order to decide between fixed or random effects we run a Hausman test where the null hypothesis is that the preferred model presents random effects vs. the alternative fixed effects (Torres-Reyna, 2007). It basically tests whether the unique errors u_{it} are correlated with the regressors, the null hypothesis is they are not.

By applying multiple regression analysis with the so- a) random and b) a fixed effect, as well as checks of their adequacy by the realization of the Hausman test, we obtained the results shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Results of Multiple regression using fixed & random effect model and Housman test

Hausman test hypothesis	Probability of H0			
H0: difference in coefficients not systematic	Prob>chi2 = 0.0000		Prob>chi2 = 0.8372	
Group of countries	EDA CEFTA countries		EDA non-CEFTA countries	
Type of regression model	Random-effects GLS regression	Fixed-effects (within) regression	Random-effects GLS regression	Fixed-effects (within) regression
Variables	L.GDPpc_ppp	L.GDPpc_ppp	L.GDPpc_ppp	L.GDPpc_ppp
Infrastructure	2,881*** (387.3)	2,109*** (318.9)	5,715*** (773.4)	5,770*** (825.0)
EUdummy	3,230*** (839.9)	2,320*** (662.1)	2,599 (2,657)	-
Constant	2,681* (1,471)	5,554*** (1,168)	-4,386 (4,095)	-2,440 (3,325)
Observations	60	60	60	60
Number of ID	6	6	6	6
R-squared: within	0.534	0.534	0.480	0.480
between	0.973	0.973	0.621	0.522
overall	0.776	0.776	0.541	0.493

GDP with lag of 1 year; Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Linear regression analysis over panel data, as well as the realized Hausman test, shows that the assumed multiplier regression model with a fixed effect best explains the impact of infrastructure on GDP pc at EDA CEFTA countries. Based on this, we can conclude that an adequate econometric model for this group of countries has a form:

$$\text{GDPpc_ppp}_{it} = (2,109 \cdot \text{Infrastructure}_{it-1}) + (2,320 \cdot \text{EUdummy}_{it-1}) + 5,554 + c_i + u_{it} \quad (4)$$

On the other hand, to explain the impact of infrastructure on GDP pc with the other observed group of so-called EDA non-CEFTA countries, the regression model with a random effect was shown to be more adequate and it has a form:

$$\text{GDPpc_ppp}_{it} = (5,715 \cdot \text{Infrastructure}_{it-1}) + (2,599 \cdot \text{EUdummy}_{it-1}) - 4,386 + c_i + u_{it} \quad (5)$$

The results presented are in line with the theoretical assertions and the H1 starting hypothesis that the level of development of the Infrastruc-

ture has a positive impact on the improvement of the competitiveness of the countries expressed in the GDP pc. Also, the importance of the model is significantly higher in the EDA CEFTA group of countries according to all three panel coefficients of determination R^2 (within panels, between panels, overall) which is in line with the H2 hypothesis according to which the significance of the positive influence of the infrastructure development is inversely proportional to the achieved GDP pc of certain countries.

We can say that the overall results of the survey of the models placed on the observed sample of European developing countries confirm the potential of H1 and H2 hypothesis on the impact of the independent variable x (infrastructure) on the dependent variable y (GDP per capita). Based on the obtained values in the applied regression models (linear, exponential and panel), the conclusion is that the statistically significant and systematic impact of the infrastructure on economic growth can be expected especially at the lower stages of economic development of countries (in our case EDA CEFTA countries).

It is unambiguous that according to the results obtained, the infrastructure has a significant positive impact on the improvement of competitiveness measured by the achieved GDP pc of the observed group comprised of 12 EDE countries. However, as in the previously analyzed papers (Crescenzi, & Rodríguez-Pose, 2012; Elburz, Nijkamp & Pels, 2017) our results also show that there is a threshold to which a stronger impact of infrastructure investment on economic growth is possible (that is, to what level infrastructure and new infrastructure investments can be a catalyst for sustainable economic growth). Consequently, the non-CEFTA countries of the EDA can count on the lower potential of infrastructure investment in relation to the EDE CEFTA countries, which in Europe are the furthest from that infrastructure threshold. Therefore, for EDE CEFTA countries it is very important that their national and regional development strategies and structural adjustment policies accelerate investment in infrastructure. In support of this, there is a very important role of infrastructure development implemented in the current EU regional development strategies (including the CEFTA region as a future integral part of this economic union), as well as the current mega project of China called Silk Road that plans to invest significant funds in the development of infrastructure in the CEFTA countries (Tonchev, 2017).

CONCLUSION

Based on the results obtained from the previously analyzed model of the impact of *infrastructure* on economic growth, it is shown that in the less developed countries of the EDE CEFTA countries, *infrastructure* represents a significant factor in the country's competitiveness, unlike

other EDE non-CEFTA countries. The reason for this may be the fact that in non-CEFTA countries, achieved by the level of infrastructure, its potential for direct impact on growth of competitiveness is exhausted.

In order to better understand the impact of *infrastructure* on improving competitiveness of countries, further research could go towards further granulation of the survey taking into account the impact of the achieved level of individual indicators of the composite pillar of infrastructure on improving competitiveness quantified by GDP pc.

All this leads to the imperative of EDE CEFTA countries that economic growth must largely be based on accelerated development and efficient use of infrastructure. The basic message is that they have to devote far greater attention to their own infrastructure development strategies. This is a necessary condition for the increasing economic growth to improve their competitiveness based primarily on the mutual economic cooperation of the countries in the region, as well as in the entire region with a European and global environment. On this path, the experience of other EDE countries can be of great benefit (Western Balkan Summit 2017, n.d.).

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ИНФРАСТРУКТУРА КАО ФАКТОР КОНКУРЕНТНОСТИ ОДАБРАНИХ ЗЕМАЉА ЕВРОПЕ

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Резиме

Предмет истраживања у овом раду јесте инфраструктура као фактор конкурентности дванаест европских земаља у развоју (Emerging and Developing European, EDE, по методологији Међународног монетарног фонда), у периоду 2007–2017. Притом су анализиране EDE земље разврстане у две групе од по шест земаља: земље актуелне чланице СЕФТА групације (Албанија, Босна и Херцеговина, Хрватска – која је до 1. 7. 2013. била чланица СЕФТА, Македонија, Црна Гора и Србија) и шест осталих европских земаља у развоју (Бугарска, Мађарска, Литванија, Пољска, Румунија и Турска). Циљ истраживања је указивање на значај инфраструктуре за унапређење конкурентности сагледаваних земаља. Уважавајући чињеницу да је категорија конкурентности земље крајње комплексног карактера и да је њено квантификовање веома сложен процес, у раду се, на основу података из Глобалног индекса конкурентности Светског економског форума, истражује утицај инфраструктуре као једног од дванаест стубова конкурентности (развој: путничког и теретног транспорта; информационе и комуникационе технологије; транспорта енергената) на раст БДП по становнику. За ту сврху конструисан је модел међузависности инфраструктуре и привредног раста који је испитиван на узорцима од дванаест европских земаља у развоју, при чему је шест земаља које су у посматраном периоду биле чланице СЕФТА и шест преосталих европских земаља у развоју. Поступак статистичке анализе овог утицаја спроведен је у три корака: а) анализом референтног фрејмворка Глобалног индекса конкурентности за идентификацију испитиваних варијабли, преузимањем, филтрирањем и структурирањем доступних података, б) статистичком провером временске серије података у циљу утврђивања њиховог степена хомогености и конзистентности, који су графички представљени бокс-плот дијаграмима и в) применом једнострукте (линеарне и експоненцијалне), као и панел-регресионе, анализе за истраживање међузависности инфраструктуре и привредног раста. Добијени резултати показују да код земаља чланица СЕФТА инфраструктура представља значајнији фактор унапређења конкурентности у односу на остале европске земље у развоју (EDA земље). Ово наводи на закључак да земље СЕФТА групације морају да усмере напоре у правцу убрзаног развоја инфраструктуре не би ли значајније унапредиле властиту конкурентност.

ELIMINATION OF NON-TARIFF BARRIERS IN REGIONAL TRADE INTEGRATIONS: THE CEFTA 2006 EXPERIENCE

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Abstract

For all the economies in the global world the question of trade is becoming more important by the day. But the possibility to export on the global market meets many impediments in the form of non-tariff barriers, rather than tariff these days. CEFTA 2006 regional trade integration is not an exception with more than 100 NTBs introduced during its existence. Our research found that Serbia and Albania are CEFTA 2006 signatories with the most NTBs introduced in the observed period. CEFTA has a very efficient institutional mechanism, Subcommittee on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT) and Non-Tariff Barriers (NTBs), for the removal of NTBs between signatories. We have researched three case studies of bilateral NTBs in Serbia's intra-CEFTA 2006 which demonstrate that our trade partner uses policy oriented NTBs. The removal of NTBs at the global, as well as regional levels is crucial for the development of trade flows after the world economic crisis.

Key words: Non-tariff barriers, Trade, Trade Facilitation, CEFTA 2006, Documentary compliance, Border compliance.

УКЛАЊАЊЕ НЕЦАРИНСКИХ БАРИЈЕРА У РЕГИОНАЛНИМ ТРГОВИНСКИМ ИНТЕГРАЦИЈАМА: ИСКУСТВО ЦЕФТА 2006

Апстракт

Питање трговине постаје све значајније за све економије у глобалном свету. Могућност извоза на глобално тржиште се у данашње време суочава са многим препрекама у форми нецаринских препрека трговини, уместо са царинама. ЦЕФТА 2006 регионална трговинска интеграција није изузетак са више од 100 нецаринских баријера које су уведене од ступања на снагу до данас. Наше истраживање је открило да су Србија и Албанија ЦЕФТА 2006 потписнице са највише уведених нецаринских баријера у посматраном периоду. ЦЕФТА 2006 има веома ефикасан

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институционални механизам, Поткомитет за техничке баријере трговини (ТБТ) и нецаринске баријере трговини (НЦБ), за уклањање међусобних баријера трговини. У овом раду смо анализирали и три случаја билатералних баријера према Србији. Уклањање нецаринских баријера трговини на глобалном и регионалном нивоу веома је значајно за развој трговинских токова након светске економске кризе.

Кључне речи: нецаринске баријере, трговина, олакшавање трговине, ЦЕФТА 2006, усклађеност докумената, усклађеност на граници.

INTRODUCTION

The non-tariff barriers are instruments of trade policy that became dominant in the second half of the 20th century. With the sharp decrease in tariff rates across the world and across the different sectors, the non-tariff barriers became predominant as protectionist measures. Even if tariff rates went down, countries were unwilling to lower its barriers toward foreign competition. Now the big effort is being made in reducing and removing different non-tariff measures in global, as well as regional trade.

Non-tariff barriers can take different forms but usually we can distinguish between three groups of non-tariff barriers:

- Traditional or core non-tariff barriers
- Technical barriers to trade, and
- Administrative barriers to trade (see more Bjelić, 2004).

Most of the traditional non-tariff barriers have been regulated during the existence of General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) while technical barriers to trade (TBT) have been regulated with the establishment of World Trade Organization in 1995 and the adoption of Technical barriers to trade agreement. The last remaining group, administrative barriers to trade, have been regulated with the adoption of WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement for WTO members which ratified it. However, many types of non-tariff barriers still remain unregulated. Many steps have been taken on the regional level to remove these barriers, since regional liberalization is always more advanced than the liberalization at the global level.

In Southeast Europe the regional integration process started in 2000. Finally, the Revised Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA 2006)¹ was signed on 19th December 2006 by Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia², Moldova, Montenegro, Romania, Serbia and the United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo on the behalf of Kosovo in accordance with United Nations

¹ The Agreement on Amendment of and Accession to the Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA)

² The country recently changed the name into North Macedonia.

Security Council Resolution 1244 (UNMIK/Kosovo)³. In the meantime, Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania left to join the European Union so CEFTA 2006 now has 7 Signatories. The empirical evidence suggests that CEFTA-2006 exerted positive, significant and large effect on trade between its signatories, and these effects are larger than the effect of the Stabilization and Association Agreements (SAA) that CEFTA 2006 signatories signed with the EU (Petreski, 2013, p. 43)

1. MEASUREMENT OF NON-TARIFF BARRIERS GLOBALLY

During the last two decades, many papers proved that the improvement and simplification of customs procedures have a positive impact on trade flows. (Engman, 2009, p. 81) It means that the improved procedures could facilitate trade. (Wilson, 2009, pp.67-68) The best results could be expected, concerning particularly countries with less efficient customs and administrative procedures. There is also an attitude that the linkage between TF and the ability of a country to attract Foreign direct investments is permanent (Engman, 2009, pp.105-106). Non-tariff barriers, especially, administrative barriers to trade, are currently the main barriers in international trade, related to market access, especially after tariff levels decline at less than 5% (De Melo, Nicita. 2018. p. 4).

Using the Doing Business data, especially the Trading Across Borders Methodology section, we can notice many obstacles still remaining in intra-regional trade, even if one of the main aims of many Regional Trade Agreements (RTAs) is the implementation of the Trade Facilitation (TF) measures. Among these RTAs is the CEFTA 2006, which includes important elements of the TF as well. Efforts for reducing trade costs by the implementation of the TF measures, at the regional level, shine the light on the fact that every region has its own steps. We cannot say that “one size fits all” (Hoekman, Nicita. 2018. p. 16). Measurement of all Non-tariff barriers, especially the administrative ones, is based at different methodologies, among which, the Trading across borders is very comprehensive.

The Trading across borders methodology measures the time and costs as a result of exporting and importing goods. Measurement is carried out in eight dimensions of the trading process, the time and costs for Documentary Compliance and time and costs necessary for the Border Compliance, for both exports and imports.

The time and costs are measured for Documentary compliance and for Border compliance. The time and costs for Domestic transport are not used in the calculation for Trading across borders although data about them exist. The time is measured in hours and the costs in USD. For the

³UNMIK/Kosovo is included as a separate customs territory.

purpose of collecting all necessary documents, traders need some time and that process produces costs as well. They are associated with the process of preparing, obtaining and submitting of all the required documents, by the government agencies of the country of origin and by the destination country, and also by transiting countries' agencies, if the merchandise is being transited over the territory of a certain third country. For the completion of export or import procedures, the traders need time and the process requires some costs, caused by the fulfilment of the criteria demanded by the customs administration and other border inspection agencies.

The Documentary Compliance measures one multidimensional process, consisting of a few different processes, with the same aim to enable the completion of one products' export or import. It consists of: obtaining the documents, preparing them, processing, presenting and submitting (more in: World Bank Group, 2019). Time and costs for mandatory documents are calculated primarily, but they are supplemented with the time and the costs for obtaining some documents, as, for example, the certificate of origin, with the aim of making it easier for traders to get a preferential treatment for their goods. Apart from this, there are packing lists included as well, which are not binding, but make it easier for customs officers to determine the value of goods and avoid mistakes, such as undervaluation, or misdescription of imports. It doesn't include documents which are obtained only once and used for all other exports or imports.

The Border Compliance implies the time and created costs, spent to get the compliance with the customs regulations and regulations of other agencies, mostly, inspections, whose duties are connected with the customs' clearance process, mostly and often, phytosanitary inspections. It also includes, the time and costs necessary for the port or border handling of goods. Both, the time and the costs for Border Compliance could be at level zero, for example, the trade between traders from the European Union, or other customs unions in the world.

The Trading Across Borders measures the time and costs caused by the exporting or importing goods in one economy and in some of them, after the implemented reforms, doing business, in those cases, trading, becomes easier. If the change in making it easier to trade, is more than 2%, measured by the rise of the score of one particular economy, that change becomes classified as a reform.

During 2016-2017, these reforms had Trading across borders, as the most common topic of the reforming processes that had been implemented in the Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America with the Caribbean. Other world regions, as the main reform issue had Paying taxes, as in the East Asia and Pacific, Registering property in Europe and Central Asia, Getting credit in the Middle East and North Africa, while in the most developed, OECD countries, the main topic was Paying taxes (World Bank Group, 2018, p.6). Among the 264 reforms, implemented during the peri-

od June 2016-June 2017, with the aim of doing business more easily and among 119 economies which have implemented at least one reform, three issues were set aside as issues with the highest incidence and Trading across borders is one of them.

Table 1. Economies in Europe and Central Asia recorded the highest share of reforms making it easier to do business in 2016-2017

Area of reform	Number of reforms 2016-2017	Region with the highest share of reformers in 2016/2017
Starting a business	38	South Asia
Dealing with construction permits	22	Sub-Saharan Africa
Getting electricity	20	Europe and Central Asia
Registering property	29	Europe and Central Asia
Getting credit	38	South Asia
Protecting minority investors	21	South Asia
Paying taxes	30	East Asia and Pacific
Trading across borders	33	South Asia
Enforcing contracts	20	South Asia
Resolving insolvency	13	South Asia

Source of data: World Bank Group, 2018, p. 23.

Europe and Central Asia as the Region of CEFTA 2006 signatories, represent the region with the highest share of economies, reforming in the scope of many fields during the same period. Almost all economies in the Region, exactly 79% of them, implemented at least one reform (World Bank Group, 2018, p. 23). Among CEFTA 2006 signatories, the level of TF instruments implementation is different, but the expectations for their unification in the future, are very high (Popović Petrović, Bjelić, 2017, p.351).

2. NON-TARIFF BARRIERS IN CEFTA 2006 INTRA-REGIONAL TRADE

Regional trade agreements (RTAs) formed during the last two decades deal with the TF issues, and the strong correlation between WTO and RTAs TF commitments was noticed by many UNCTAD experts. Historically, TF elements had been included in RTAs even before they became part of the Doha Development Agenda and the first WTO Draft Negotiating text about Trade Facilitation. (UNCTAD, 2011, p.6)

The result of certain research projects in this Region showed that many exporters, importers and stakeholders, as well as freight forwarders, producers, distributors, have a long list of complaints in intra-regional trade, insisting on their burdensome character. These complaints are connected with the TF field: customs procedure delays, complicated and double

documentary requirements, inconsistent application of rules, lack of transparency (Aggarwal, 2015, p. 3). The administrative barriers to trade are among the most important non-trade barriers that hinder the process of further trade liberalization within the region (Kikerkova, 2014, p. 87).

Signatories of the CEFTA 2006 have implemented many reforms during the last decade and that have made some improvements to their position at the Doing Business ranking, especially at the Trading across borders ranking. In some examples of CEFTA 2006 parties, the contribution of reforms initiated the increase at the Trading across borders ranking and it contributed to the overall improved position of the Doing Business ranking.

Table 2. CEFTA 2006 parties ranking in the Ease of doing business and Trading across borders, 2018

CEFTA 2006 signatories	Ease of doing business ranking (1-190 countries/territories)	Trading across borders ranking
Albania	65	24
Bosnia and Herzegovina	86	37
North Macedonia	11	27
Moldova	44	35
Montenegro	42	44
Serbia	43	23
UNMIK/Kosovo	40	48

Source of data: World Bank Group, 2018, pp. 142-190.

For some CEFTA 2006 signatories, their position at the Trading across borders ranking is more favorable than its overall position at the Doing Business ranking. For 2018, this was the case for Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova and Serbia. Deeper analysis, by decomposing the overall Trading across borders indicator, could point out excellent elements of the trading process in CEFTA 2006 signatories individually and could shine the light on elements which have to be improved.

If we assume that Trade Facilitation would be one of the main objectives of any Free Trade Agreement, including CEFTA 2006, following tables would lead us to conclusion that majority of the work is still ahead for CEFTA 2006 signatories. When we look at the time necessary for export (Table 3) and import (Table 4) we can conclude that there are huge differences among CEFTA2006 signatories.

If we assume that the Total Time to export (hours) is calculated by adding Time to exportBorder compliance and Time to exportDocumentary compliance, we can conclude that the fastest completion of export procedure is conducted in Serbia. It takes slightly longer in Bosnia and Herzegovina, followed by North Macedonia, Montenegro and Albania. Export procedure is the longest in Moldova and UNMIK/Kosovo. The main contributor to long export time in Moldova is the verification of

documentary compliance (48 hours) while in UNMIK/Kosovo it is distributed evenly. With the exception of these two, in all CEFTA 2006 parties, it takes more hours for border compliance than for document compliance verification. Looking at the CEFTA 2006 Region as a whole, the total export time is 24.4 hours, time for border compliance is 9.4 hours while the time for documentary compliance is 15 hours.

On the other hand, adding Time to importBorder compliance and Time to importDocumentary compliance would provide us with the Total time for import. In this category, Moldova is “the best” closely followed by Serbia as only two signatories with one-digit result. North Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Albania are in the range between 11 and 18 hours and in UNMIK/Kosovo it takes 22 hours. Import procedures last the longest in Montenegro, 33 hours. Only in Bosnia and Herzegovina it takes more time for documentary compliance than for border compliance verification. If we look at the CEFTA 2006 Region as a whole, the total import time is 15.9 hours, time for border compliance is 10.1 hours and time for documentary compliance is 5.8 hours.

Comparing Time for export and Time for import we can see that with the exception of Moldova and UNMIK/Kosovo, all other CEFTA 2006 parties recorded longer Total Time for import than Total Time for export. Regarding Border compliance, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova and Montenegro have higher values for import while North Macedonia and UNMIK/Kosovo have higher values for export. In Serbia the times are equal. As for the documentary compliance, only in Moldova and UNMIK/Kosovo it takes more time to complete these procedures for export than for import.

Table 3. Export time in CEFTA 2006 parties, countries in the Region and OECD high income countries

	Time to export Border compliance (hours)	Time to export documentary compliance (hours)	Time to export Total (hours)
Albania	9	6	15
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5	4	9
North Macedonia	9	2	11
Moldova	3	48	51
Montenegro	8	5	13
Serbia	4	2	6
UNMIK/Kosovo	28	38	66
CEFTA 2006 Average	9.4	15	24.4
Bulgaria	4	2	6
Croatia	0	1	1
Hungary	0	1	1
Romania	0	1	1
OECD high income	12.7	2.4	15.1

Source of data: World Bank Group, 2018

Looking at the export and import time for the CEFTA 2006 region, we can see that in all categories except Time to exportBorder compliance it takes more time to complete the procedure than in OECD high income countries.

When comparing individual Parties with the Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary and Romania which are countries from the region and former CEFTA parties, now EU Members, it is obvious that there is a lot of space for improvement in these categories.

Table 4. Import time in CEFTA 2006 parties, countries in the Region and OECD high income countries

	Time to import Border compliance (hours)	Time to import documentary compliance (hours)	Time to import Total (hours)
Albania	10	8	18
Bosnia and Herzegovina	6	8	14
North Macedonia	8	3	11
Moldova	4	2	6
Montenegro	23	10	33
Serbia	4	3	7
UNMIK/Kosovo	16	6	22
CEFTA 2006 Average	10.1	5.8	15.9
Bulgaria	1	1	2
Croatia	0	1	1
Hungary	0	1	1
Romania	0	1	1
OECD high income	8.7	3.5	12.2

Source: World Bank Group, 2018

3. ELIMINATION OF NON-TARIFF BARRIERS IN CEFTA 2006

To facilitate the process of identification and elimination of trade barriers CEFTA 2006 signatories established Subcommittee on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT) and Non-Tariff Barriers (NTBs) (CEFTA 2006, 2007). Its task was to identify and oversee the elimination of TBT through the harmonization of technical regulations, standards and mandatory conformity assessment procedures among parties. The basis for harmonization were rules and procedures of the World Trade Organization and European Union standards and procedures. The work was also focused on regular exchange of information regarding NTBs with the purpose of their elimination. One of the important tasks of the Subcommittee was also to create reporting systems for identification and elimination of NTBs (CEFTA 2006, 2007).

With the further strengthening of CEFTA 2006, the parties realized that the Subcommittee on TBT and NTBs was not able to cope with the

new challenges. The decision was made to replace the Subcommittee on TBT and NTBs with the Subcommittee on Non-Tariff Measures (NTMs). Its focus is on regular exchange of information through CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack tools, especially CEFTA 2006 Market Access Barriers Database, with an aim to identify and review potential NTMs and propose steps for the elimination of trade barriers. It is a forum for discussions regarding common problems and finding ways for their resolution, and if possible, the adoption of the measures at the regional level. At the same time, it should identify the most effective domestic measures and best practices for the elimination of NTBs in each Party. With identification of TBT, new tasks include identification and elimination of burdensome sanitary, phytosanitary and administrative measures. Subcommittee on NTMs directly reports to Committee on Trade Facilitation (CEFTA 2006, 2015).

The above mentioned CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack was established in 2014 to enhance transparency which is one of the main principles of World Trade Organization and CEFTA 2006. It consists of several databases which are interlinked and has a search engine incorporated in it. It contains all the necessary information related to trade within the region. The Transparency Pack comprises four databases, i.e. TBT Platform, Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) Database, Market Access Barriers Database (MABD) and Trade Portal (CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack, 2019).

Trade Portal contains general information about trade among CEFTA 2006 signatories. Information is divided into main categories such as customs regulations, licensing procedures, technical requirements, SPS and veterinary controls, trade regimes as well as the regulations for border/administrative line controls applied (CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack, 2019).

The SPS Database was established to increase the transparency of relevant laws and regulations regarding the trade in agricultural goods across the region. Most important laws and by-laws and specific measures in the sanitary, phytosanitary and veterinary field are available on-line in English and in local languages. It offers information on membership to the international organizations, list of accredited laboratories and the border/administrative line crossing contact details (CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack, 2019).

The TBT Platform contains information on technical requirements and quality infrastructure in the region. Main laws and bylaws, and lists of accredited laboratories, certification and inspection bodies can be found in it. Information about quality infrastructure in general, accreditation, standardization, conformity assessment, metrology and market surveillance is also on the platform.

The MABD contains all the reported trade barriers since 2006 based on the UNCTAD classification of non-tariff measures. The following table (Table 5) presents trade barriers by CEFTA Party applying

measures meaning the number of NTBs that were introduced by each CEFTA Party (CEFTA 2006 Transparency Pack, 2019).

Table 5. Trade barriers by Party applying measures (introduced NTBs) from 2006 to February 2020

Party	Total number of introduced NTBs	Share in total number of introduced NTBs	Number of unresolved NTBs	Share of removed NTBs in total number of introduced NTBs	Share in intra-CEFTA 2006 imports in 2017	Share of total number of introduced NTBs to share of intra-CEFTA 2006 imports in 2017 ratio
Albania	16	14.8	6	62.5	7.9	1.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	20	18.5	1	95	25.5	0.7
North Macedonia	13	12	5	61.5	14.1	0.9
Moldova	1	0.9	0	0	0.4	2.3
Montenegro	1	0.9	1	100	15.5	0.1
Serbia	37	34.3	4	89.2	18.2	1.9
UNMIK/Kosovo	14	13	7	50	18.4	0.7
ALL	6	5.6	0	100	/	/
Total	108	100	24	77.8	/	/

Source of data: CEFTA Transparency Pack, 2019

Since the creation of CEFTA 2006, a total of 108 NTBs have been reported in trade among signatories. The number could be referred as high or not having in mind that it is recorded for 11 years of implementation among 7 trading partners. Serbia introduced 37 NTBs (34.3% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), Bosnia and Herzegovina 20 (18.5% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), Albania 16 (14.8% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), North Macedonia 13 (12% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), UNMIK/Kosovo 14 (13% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs) and Moldova and Montenegro 1 each (0.9% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs each). At the same time Serbia complained about 32 NTBs (29.6% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), Bosnia and Herzegovina about 28 (25.9% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), UNMIK/Kosovo about 20 (18.5% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs), North Macedonia and Montenegro about 12 each (11.1% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs each) and Albania about 3 (2.8% of total CEFTA 2006 NTBs).

Table 6 gives an overview of trade barriers by reporting CEFTA Party affected by the measure, meaning the number of NTBs that each CEFTA Party was faced with.

*Table 6. Trade barriers by affected Party (faced NTBs)
from 2006 to February 2020*

Party	Total number of endured NTBs	Share in total number of endured NTBs	Number of unresolved NTBs	Share of removed NTBs in total number of endured NTBs	Share in intra-CEFTA 2006 exports in 2017	Share of total number of endured NTBs to share of intra-CEFTA 2006 exports in 2017 ratio
Albania	3	2.8	2	33.3	5.7	0.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	28	25.9	2	92.9	17.3	1.5
North Macedonia	12	11.1	6	50	11.2	1
Moldova	0	0	0	0	1.2	0
Montenegro	12	11.1	5	58.3	2.9	3.8
Serbia	32	29.6	7	78.1	58.2	0.5
UNMIK/Kosovo	20	18.5	2	90	3.5	5.3
ALL	1	0.9	0	100	/	/
Total	108	100	24	77.8	/	/

Source of data: CEFTA Transparency Pack, 2019

Except Montenegro and UNMIK/Kosovo other Parties recorded better results in removing NTBs introduced by them (Table 5, column 5) than NTBs introduced by their trading partners (Table 6, column 5). Bosnia and Herzegovina removed 95% of reported NTBs while other Parties removed 92.9% of NTBs introduced on imports from Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia resolved 89.2% of NTBs while NTBs on Serbia export was removed by 78.1%. Albania and North Macedonia removed about 62% of NTBs while other Parties resolved only 33.3% and 50% respectively of NTBs introduced to these two Parties. In the case of Montenegro and UNMIK/Kosovo, Parties removed 58.3% and 90% of NTBs respectively while Montenegro hasn't removed (one) introduced NTB and UNMIK/Kosovo removed 50% of NTBs on CEFTA 2006 trade.

How to evaluate the practice of identification and elimination of Non-Tariff Barriers in CEFTA 2006? At the Regional level, the approach would be to compare the number of introduced with the number of resolved NTBs. As previously mentioned, total number of introduced NTBs within CEFTA 2006 is 108 and total number of unresolved NTBs within CEFTA 2006 is 24. As shown in the Table 3 and Table 4, this means that 77.8% of all NTBs within CEFTA 2006 were successfully identified and removed. We could argue that this is relatively high percentage and that CEFTA 2006 has proven itself as a forum for resolving trade disputes among Parties and elimination of NTBs.

At Party level it is not enough to follow the same logic and compare the number of introduced and resolved NTBs due to the different

share of Parties in regional trade. It is not the same whether the NTB was introduced or endured by e.g. Moldova and Montenegro, or by Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia. Therefore, we would need to weigh the number of NTBs with share in trade.

When we compare the share in total number of introduced NTBs with the share of intra-CEFTA 2006 imports of the individual Parties (Table 3) interesting results emerge. Ratio higher than 1 means that the specific Party is participating in introduced NTBs in higher percentage than it is participating in the intra-CEFTA 2006 imports. The highest ratio is recorded by Moldova, although with a very small share in intra-CEFTA 2006 trade and only one NTB, followed by Albania and Serbia. On the other hand, ratio lower than 1 means that the specific Party is participating in introduced NTBs in lower percentage than it is participating in the intra-CEFTA 2006 imports. That is the case for the rest of the CEFTA 2006 signatories. If we exclude Moldova, we could conclude that Albania and Serbia are the biggest “introducers” of NTBs in CEFTA. North Macedonia would be at the third, UNMIK/Kosovo at fourth and Bosnia and Herzegovina at fifth place. It is worth mentioning that UNMIK/Kosovo has the highest number of unresolved NTBs. Montenegro would be “the best trading partner within CEFTA 2006” not just because it has the lowest ratio but because it introduced only one NTB.

The comparison of the share in total number of endured NTBs with the share of intra CEFTA 2006 exports of the individual Parties also leads to interesting conclusions. Ratio higher than 1 means that the specific Party is participating in endured NTBs in higher percentage than it is participating in the intra-CEFTA 2006 exports. This is the case for UNMIK/Kosovo, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina. On the other hand, ratio lower than 1 means that the specific Party is participating in endured NTBs in lower percentage than it is participating in the intra-CEFTA 2006 exports which is the case for Serbia and Albania. North Macedonia has the ratio of 1. We could conclude that UNMIK/Kosovo “suffered” the most from NTBs followed by Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Fourth place would be for North Macedonia, fifth for Serbia (because of seven unresolved NTBs) and sixth for Albania. Moldova is excluded since it hasn’t reported any NTB on its export.

It is interesting to notice that Albania is the biggest “introducer” of NTBs and at the same time the smallest “sufferer” from NTBs in CEFTA 2006.

To advance in elimination of NTBs, in November 2014, Parties launched negotiations on Trade Facilitation which lasted more than two years and in April 2017 the Parties adopted Additional Protocol 5 to CEFTA 2006 on Trade Facilitation. It is a comprehensive document whose main objectives are to enable the simplification of inspections related to all clearance procedures and reduction of formalities to the possi-

ble maximum extent; the exchange of data between customs authorities to the extent that each Party legislation allows; and the establishment of mutual recognition of the Authorised Economic Operators' Programmes in each CEFTA Party, provided that both the legislation and implementation of each national programme is fully in line with the relevant EU *acquis* (CEFTA 2006, 2017).

Working further on the implementation of the Additional Protocol 5 on Trade Facilitation, in December 2019, Parties adopted the Decision on Establishing the validation procedure for the mutual recognition of CEFTA Parties' national Authorised Economic Operators' Programmes with regard to the safety and security (AEOS) whose main objective is to define detailed procedures for mutual recognition of AEOs (CEFTA 2006, 2019). In February 2020, Parties adopted Decision on Facilitating Trade for Fruit and Vegetables. The main objectives of the Decision are establishment of mechanisms, harmonized with EU legislation, for simplifying inspections related to all clearance procedures for trade in fruit and vegetables between the CEFTA Parties and the reduction of border formalities to the maximum possible extent - in particular, by use of risk-based inspection methods and through the mutual recognition of certificates issued by each CEFTA Party; establishing data and notification systems between the competent authorities of the CEFTA Parties involved in goods clearance to the extent that each CEFTA Party's legislation allows; establishing a Register of Professional Operators trading in Fruit and Vegetables in each CEFTA Party; mutual recognition of the professional operators registered in the Register of Professional Operators trading in Fruit and Vegetables of another CEFTA Party; establishing a common CEFTA List of Fruit and Vegetables for which Phytosanitary Certificates are mandatory (CEFTA 2006, 2020).

4. BILATERAL NON-TARIFF BARRIERS USED BETWEEN CEFTA 2006 SIGNATORIES AND ITS EFFECTS

After the CEFTA 2006 entered into force, the Agreement which replaced as many as 32 bilateral agreements, many advantages and new elements have emerged. Among these elements are: the diagonal cumulation of origin, gradual liberalization of trade in services, protection of intellectual property rights, equalization of investment conditions, with securing an equal treatment for local and regional investors, opening up the public procurement market, implementation of WTO rules for member and still non-member signatories and for every agreement and institution, an important element is the existence of the dispute settlement mechanism.

Soon after the start of the new-CEFTA, the rise of a dozen non-tariff barriers has been noticed. Their growth overlapped over time with the increase of their use at the international level. In the CEFTA 2006 re-

gion, for a very short period, of a few years, more than 100 non-tariff barriers have been registered.

During the last decade, Serbian Ministry of Trade, Tourism and Telecommunication, was directly and indirectly informed about the non-tariff barriers Serbian enterprises are faced within the export-import towards other CEFTA 2006 markets. It was also informed by the Serbian Chamber of Commerce, which is directly informed by companies, participants in intra-regional trade. Using these data and data of other CEFTA 2006 signatories, the CEFTA 2006 Secretariat has formed a regional database for non-tariff barriers recording. As the existence of the dispute settlement mechanism was one of the most important achievements of new Agreement and as recording and implementation of very numerous non-tariff barriers in this Region is still a great challenge, this discrepancy undermines the significance of the entire Agreement. That proves the fact of the imperfection of the system for protection trading partners' rights and indicates that this Agreement is not fully respected.

As the volume of intra-CEFTA trade and the share of intra-CEFTA trade in the structure of trade of all signatories, during last few years, has shown just modest increase and as the political problems have reinforced the apparent inability to prevent obstruction of the agreement itself by some signatories, the further improvements and development of intra-CEFTA 2006 trade, has been slowed. The obstruction of the implementation of the CEFTA Agreement could be continued since the decision making system, based upon a consensus system, is inefficient. Only one CEFTA Signatory could vote differently and, that way, could block the decision.

Although many of these non-tariff barriers, implemented in intra-CEFTA 2006 trade, could be grouped in traditional, technical and administrative trade barriers, more deeply analyzed they mostly belong to the administrative non-tariff barriers. The participants in intra-CEFTA 2006 trade are faced with complicated border procedures, corruption, the lack of accredited laboratories, problems with radiological, veterinary, sanitary and phytosanitary inspections whose working hours do not match the customs working hours, non-recognition of standards and certifications of quality. The regulation process for administrative non-tariff barriers has started recently, after the adoption of the Trade Facilitation Agreement in 2013 at the Bali Ministerial conference, which entered into force in February 2017. Besides them, as the most contemporary non-tariff barriers, in intra-CEFTA 2006 trade, some of traditional or technical trade barriers are very often implemented. The indicator that these problems are not the result of an accidental mistake, but of intentions for protecting its own economies, are the data showing the maintenance of same, reduced, volume of export of certain goods from Serbia to the parties concerned. About intra-CEFTA 2006 trade problems, Serbian enterprises are pointing out some individual problems, concerning the type of product and the importing Signatory.

The barriers in flour trade are one of the biggest problems in Serbia's trade with North Macedonia. Namely, North Macedonia introduced, every year, starting from 2009, measures to reduce its imports of flour from Serbia. If we observe Figure 1, we can see that Serbian export of flour to Macedonia, recorded a sharp increase, starting from 2007, when Serbia became a part of CEFTA 2006 and, at the contrary, sharp decrease, a few years after, starting from 2009. This decrease in 2009 corresponds to the effect of world economic crisis. Every year, from 2010, North Macedonia started introducing non-tariff measures, with the aim to maintain flour imports up to 12 mil. USD. That is significantly lower, compared to the value of Serbian flour exports to Northern Macedonia during the few previous years, when it was at a value of more than 17 mill. USD.

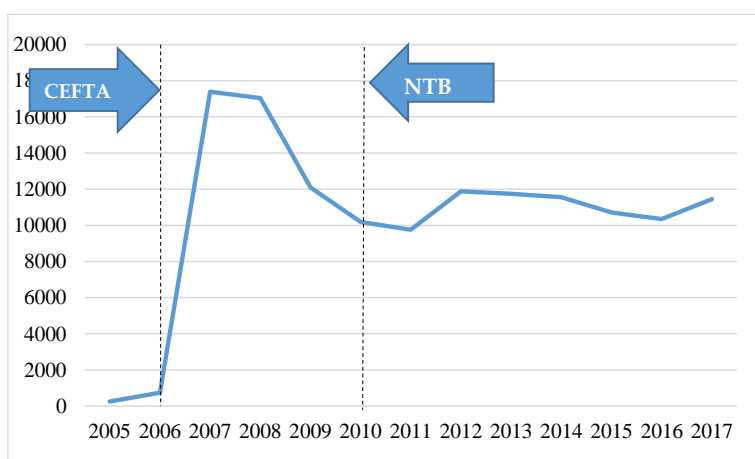


Figure 1. Exports of wheat flour from Serbia to North Macedonia, 2005-2017, in thousands of USD

Source: Bjelić, Dragutinović Mitrović, 2018, pg.58.

After the signing of the CEFTA 2006, the volume of malt beer exports from Serbia to Bosnia and Herzegovina has increased sharply from approximately 25 million USD in 2005 to more than 55 mill. USD in 2008 with the top level of more than 60 mill. USD in 2011. Starting from 2014 and the introduction of discriminatory excise tax, by Bosnia and Herzegovina, malt beer exports declined sharply in 2015 and especially in 2016, falling below the initial, 2004 and 2005, monitoring level. This introduction of excise duties is already a trade barrier itself, but it is accompanied with the fact that the level of these taxes is not the same for all beer producers, because it is a 0.20 KM for producers who produce the quantity lower than 400000 hectolitres and higher, 0.25 KM, for those who produce more (discriminating measure).

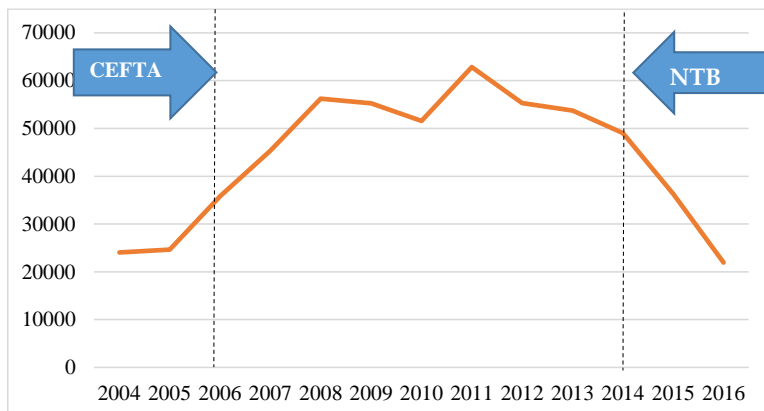


Figure 2. Malt beer export from Serbia to Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2004-2016 in thousands of USD

Source: Bjelić, Dragutinović Mitrović, 2018, pg.58.

Serbian export to UNMIK/Kosovo has also suffered because of the implementation of non-tariff barriers, even before 2018 introduction of 100% tariff rates. This is evident from the data on the implementation of barriers to the export of Serbian building, ceramics blocks, mostly blocks ceramic for floors and blocks brackets.⁴

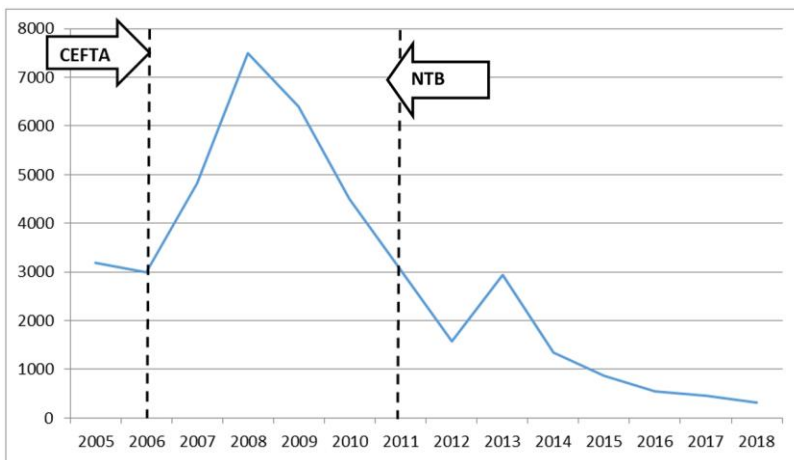


Figure 3. Serbian Export of ceramic blocks to UNMIK/Kosovo, 2005-2018, in 000 EUR

Source: Authors calculations based on Serbian Chamber of Commerce data for period 2005 to 2010 and Serbian Agency for Statistics data for period 2011 to 2018.

⁴ Blocks ceramic for floors and blocks brackets – HS 6094.90.0000

Disclaimer: Serbian Chamber of Commerce data in USD have been transferred to EUR using yearly average courses from <https://www.ofx.com/en-au/forex-news/historical-exchange-rates/yearly-average-rates/>.

In a more than a decade of the CEFTA 2006 implementation, non-tariff barriers, implemented in trade between trade partners from only two CEFTA 2006 signatories, have been resolved successfully in a bilateral trade negotiation. That is an example of trade between partners from Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbian and Bosnian traders complained about the problems in relation with a mutual export of chicken meat and meat products. The problem with other products are solved by signing the Protocol about the removal of barriers to trade between these two countries, in December 2017 (Ministry of Trade, Tourism and Telecommunications RS, 2019). At the time of signing the Protocol, there were 13 trade barriers noted, most of which were immediately removed. Beside the problem with Malt beer export from Serbia to Bosnia and Herzegovina, caused by the introduction of excise tax, by Bosnia and Herzegovina, one more barrier was noticed also. This is the problem with the lack of a trade infrastructure which is one of two main reasons (along with the intention to implement measures which have the duty to protect the domestic market) for the implementation of administrative non-tariff barriers in the world trade. The problem was noticed as a lack of trade capacity and a new task for Trade Capacity Building, at the border crossing Kotroman-Vardište and Ljubovija-Bratunac (RTS, 2019). These negotiations are one of many examples of the efforts made at the bilateral level for finding a way out from the slowing down and disabling normal intra-regional trade flows.

CONCLUSIONS

The contemporary world trade is faced with many obstacles that countries introduce to obstruct international trade. The proliferation of non-tariff barriers has cancelled the effects of tariff liberalization in the last two decades. But many countries have managed to further liberalize their trade with regional partners.

CEFTA 2006 regional trade Agreement is not the exception from this global trend. The revised CEFTA 2006 agreement has significantly liberalized the trade regime in intraregional trade, covering goods, including agricultural products, and even going into other areas such as services and investments. But CEFTA 2006 Signatories have made the biggest breakthrough with the additional protocol on trade facilitation. It is set to remove administrative barriers in intra-CEFA trade, going even further than WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement.

In our paper, we discussed three examples of NTBs, introduced in bilateral trade by CEFTA 2006 parties. We can clearly observe that the export of Serbian companies has been curtailed in three different products by different CEFTA trade partners. The partners have introduced policy barriers that restrict Serbian exports in observed products.

The implementation of Non-tariff barriers from the beginning of the CEFTA 2006 implementation and the process of decision-making as the most significant issue in the recent period, has become two major obstacles in expected functioning of this Agreement. Due to these two reasons, primarily, the Agreement has come to a stage of stagnation and in order to be functional it requires many changes in the Trade Facilitation issue and making some improvements in its decision-making system.

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УКЛАЊАЊЕ НЕЦАРИНСКИХ БАРИЈЕРА У РЕГИОНАЛНИМ ТРГОВИНСКИМ ИНТЕГРАЦИЈАМА: ИСКУСТВО ЦЕФТА 2006

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Резиме

Питање трговине постаје све значајније за све економије у глобалном свету. Могућност извоза на глобално тржиште се у данашње време суочава са многим препрекама у форми нецаринских баријера трговини, уместо са царинама. Нецаринске баријере трговини су инструмент трговинске политике који је постао преовлађујући у другој половини двадесетог века. Са значајним снижавањем царинских стопа, нецаринске баријере трговини постале су најважније протекционистичке мере.

Процес регионалне економске интеграције је у Југоисточној Европи отпочео 2000. године. Ревидирани Споразум о слободној трговини у Централној Европи (ЦЕФТА 2006) потписале су 19. децембра 2006. године Албанија, Босна и Херцеговина, Бугарска, Хрватска, Македонија, Молдавија, Црна Гора, Румунија, Србија и УНМИК у име Косова у складу са резолуцијом 1244. У међувремену, Бугарска, Хрватска и Румунија напустиле су ЦЕФТА 2006 и постале чланице ЕУ, а Македонија је променила име у Северна Македонија.

У овом раду је, између осталог, коришћена и методологија Светске банке за анализу нецаринских баријера трговини. Поменута методологија мери време и трошкове увоза и извоза робе. Просечно време потребно за извоз робе потписница ЦЕФТА 2006 је 24,4 сата, што је значајно дуже од развијенијих ОЕЦД земаља, код којих је 15,1 сат. Код увоза је заостајање нешто мање, па је тако просечно време потписница ЦЕФТА 2006 15,9 сати, а развијенијих ОЕЦД земаља 12,2 сата.

ЦЕФТА 2006 има веома ефикасан институционални механизам за идентификацију и уклањање међусобних нецаринских баријера трговини. Још 2007. године основан је Поткомитет за техничке баријере трговини (ТБТ) и нецаринске баријере трговини (НЦБ), чији је то један од основних задатака. Поменуто тело 2015. године мења назив и постаје Поткомитет за нецаринске мере.

ЦЕФТА 2006 није изузетак у погледу коришћења протекционистичких мера са више од 100 нецаринских баријера које су уведене од ступања на снагу до данас. Наше истраживање је открило да су Србија и Босна и Херцеговина увеле највећи број баријера до сада, али да су Србија и Албанија ЦЕФТА 2006 потписнице са највише уведених нецаринских баријера у односу на учешће у укупном увозу у оквиру ЦЕФТА 2006. Са друге стране, према Србији и Босни и Херцеговини је уведен највећи број баријера, односно према УНМИК-у/Косову и Црној Гори ако се у обзир узме учешће у укупном извозу у оквиру ЦЕФТА.

У овом раду анализирали смо и три случаја билатералних нецаринских баријера трговини према Србији. Разматрана су органичења пласмана пшеничног брашна у Северну Македонију, пива у Босну и Херцеговину и керамичких грађевинских блокова у ЦЕФТА 2006 потписницу УНМИК/Косово. У сва три случаја, уведене нецаринске баријере трговини имале су на поменути тржиштима значајан негативан ефекат на пласман конкретних производа.

SIGNIFICANCE OF GREEN BONDS ON CONTEMPORARY FINANCIAL MARKET

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Abstract

Since the onset of the global financial crisis at the end of 2008 green projects are becoming increasingly important, and green economy is becoming more and more interesting as an area of research for numerous authors. In this regard, the paper will analyze green bonds that represent an integral part of green finances, i.e. a significant instrument of green economy and a useful mean in fighting climate changes. These securities mostly represent non-taxable financial instruments and have high credit rating, which is why they are very attractive to investors. Green bonds attract more and more attention in the largest world economies, i.e. in China and USA as the major emitters of greenhouse gases. However, they also have a notable role on the markets of some other countries, i.e. France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, India, and South Africa. Green bonds can be of a great significance for the Republic of Serbia, as well. The Republic of Serbia has adopted, in the process of joining the European Union in early 2020, a Negotiating position for the Chapter 27, i.e. the chapter related to environment and climate changes.

Key words: green economy, environment, climate changes, green bonds, standards.

УЛОГА И ЗНАЧАЈ ЗЕЛЕНИХ ОБВЕЗНИЦА НА САВРЕМЕНОМ ФИНАНСИЈСКОМ ТРЖИШТУ

Апстракт

Од настанка глобалне финансијске кризе крајем 2008. године, зелени пројекти имају све већи значај, а зелена економија постаје све интересантнија област истраживања бројних аутора. С тим у вези, у раду ће бити анализирани зелене обвезнице, које представљају интегрални део зелених финансија, односно значајни инструмент зелене економије и корисно средство у борби против климатских промена. Ове хартије од вредности углавном представљају неопорезиве финансијске инструменте и имају висок кредитни рејтинг, па су веома привлачне за инвеститоре. Зелене обвезнице привлаче све већу пажњу у највећим светским економијама, односно Кини и

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САД као највећим емитерима гасова са ефектом стаклене баште. Међутим, оне имају запажену улогу и на тржиштима неких других земаља, нпр. Француске, Немачке, Норвешке, Шведске, Данске, Финске, Индије и Јужне Африке. Такође, зелене обвезнице могу бити од великог значаја и за Републику Србију. Република Србија је у процесу приступања Европској унији почетком 2020. године усвојила Преговарачку позицију за Поглавље 27, односно поглавље које се односи на животну средину и климатске промене.

Кључне речи: зелена економија, животна средина, климатске промене, зелене обвезнице, стандарди.

INTRODUCTION

Green bonds represent an integral part of green finances which, in relation to the traditional finances, place more importance on the relationship between human survival and environmental protection (Xiaoguang Zhou & Yadi Cui, 2019). Green bonds are mostly defined as securities with fixed yield (fixed – income securities). They represent a debt financial instrument issued for the purpose of financing environmental projects (Laskowska, 2017, p. 71). Although the idea of using securities in financing environmental projects is very old, green bonds represent a young financial instrument. However, they have become part of a dynamic environmental trend in the capital market in a relatively short time and represent a very attractive instrument for investors (Laskowska, 2017, p. 70). Green bonds follow tax incentive policies, i.e. green bonds mostly represent non-taxable securities and have high investment rating (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 471). Also, green bonds offer to the investors the opportunity to participate in financing environmental projects that mitigate harmful impact of climate changes or adjust to them, improve renewable energy sources and energy efficiency, enable more efficient traffic with reduced pollution, provide clean/drinking water or resolve numerous environmental and other problems (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p. 2).

Financing green investments by means of green bonds issuance has numerous advantages compared to alternative ways and the following are the most important. First, green bonds can contribute to supporting sustainable development of financial markets since they secure transparency of assets. Second, green bonds facilitate long-term investments and can reduce the mismatch of maturity term between the long-term time horizons of the issuers and short-term interests of the investors for investments: issuers can issue long-term bonds, while the investors have a chance to sell their bonds in any moment. Third, green bonds positively influence the reputation of issuers. Fourth, green bonds can attract a larger and more diverse group of investors (Berensmann, Dafe, & Lindenberg, 2017). However, although there are numerous advantages the explosive growth of green bonds market can be obstructed if the security of green bonds assets is not institutionalized. (Talbot, 2017, p. 129). In the

absence of compulsory regulations and standards related to the green bonds, the issuers may use the collected assets for other purposes, i.e. in the same manner as regular bonds. In this regard, at the international level the principles that represent guidelines for the development of green bonds market are defined. Also, pursuant to these guidelines at national level numerous standards and regulations related to this segment of financial market have been defined.

In early 2020, the Republic of Serbia adopted the Negotiating position for the Chapter 27 in the process of joining the European Union (Negotiating group 27). This chapter is related to the environment and climate changes and represents the most extensive and demanding chapter in the stated process. An important prerequisite for opening Chapter 27 was the establishment of the Green fund, which was established in 2016, four years after the Fund for the protection of environment stopped working (it functioned in the period between 2009-2012). Also, in May 2017, the Republic of Serbia adopted the so-called Paris Agreement (Ministry for environmental protection, the Republic of Serbia, 2017). The Paris Agreement aims to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to the level that will limit the temperature growth at global level under 2°C. Having in mind that the implementation of the projects in the field of environmental protection, the use of renewable energy sources, mitigation of climate changes, etc. demands engaging larger amounts of assets, the analysis of green bonds as one of the ways to finance these projects has great theoretical and practical significance.

CONCEPT AND CHARACTERISTICS OF GREEN BONDS

Based on numerous criteria that can be used for defining green projects, a large number of various definitions of green bonds have emerged. In the literature, Green bonds are most often defined as “environmental bonds” (Kaminker & Steward, 2012, p. 34). In this regard, green bonds represent the bonds directed to financing investments related to environmental benefit or they are directed at the reduction of sensitivity to environmental changes. The main areas of using green bonds are renewable energy sources, energy efficiency, clean traffic and management of water and waste (Laskowska, 2017, p. 71). Also, according to Josué Banga (2019, p.18) green bonds are the bonds, the assets of which are used for financing environmental projects such as projects related to renewable resources, water efficiency and energy efficiency, bioenergetics and traffic with low carbon content. However, a broader definition of green bonds also includes the bonds known as “climate bonds” (Climate Brief N°14). In this regard, green bonds are used for financing environmental projects, but also the projects in the field of mitigating climate changes (Talbot, 2017, p. 130). According to Trompeter Luke (2017)

green bonds are used for financing projects related to the prevention of climate changes, preservation of biodiversity, reduction of pollution, improvement of renewable energy sources, development of clean traffic and clean water. A very broad definition of green bonds was provided by Chiang (2017, p. 7) according to which green bonds represent the issuance of debt financial instruments of the public and private sectors and multilateral institutions by which climate and other environmental projects are financed (Chiang, 2017, p. 7). So, it can be said that green bonds are standard (traditional) bonds, but with one essential difference. With standard bonds, the investors cannot decide on how to use the funds from bonds (Thiam Hee Ng, Jacqueline Yujia Tao, 2016, p. 6; Laskowska, 2017, 70). On the other hand, green bonds are offered to the investors on the market as “green” so the funds thus collected must be used to finance environmental projects.

Green bonds represent fixed income securities used for financing concrete projects that are in favor of ecology and climate (Nassiry, 2018). Also, according to Ehlers & Packer (2017) and Laskowska (2017) green bonds are fixed income securities by which projects contributing to the improvement of natural environment are financed and refinanced. These securities are especially convenient for financing investments in sustainable infrastructure because they represent financial instruments that offer the investors stable and long-term return of investment (Nassiry, 2018). The maturity term of green bonds in the period from 2014 to 2016 ranged between seven and eight years, but later this term was extended (Ehlers & Packer, 2017). In order to encourage issuers of these securities, green bonds are tax free and have high credit rating (Trompeter Luke, 2017; Ehlers & Packer, 2017). Also, based on the analysis that encompasses the period 2014-2017 it has been established that the issuers of green bonds borrow at lower margin (spread-u) compared to traditional bonds (Ehlers & Packer, 2017).

Green bonds make up a small part of the global bond market (fixed income market). According to S&P Global, green bonds represent only 1.4% of total fixed-income market (S&P Global 2017). However, although green bonds have a small share in total bond market they attract more and more attention because thousands of billions of dollars of capital from the public and private sectors will be needed to meet goals of reducing emissions of harmful gases. Green bonds attract numerous investors devoted to using the assets from bonds for the purpose harmonized with Environmental Social Governance (ESG) purposes (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 472). Until the onset of the global financial crisis at the end of 2008, green bonds were a concept in which investors were not interested much since traditional investors considered environmental projects risky and unprofitable (Josué Banga, 2019, p.18, Abou Arrage, J. & Abdel Hady, S. 2019, p. 12). However, interest of the investors in green

bonds has grown significantly recently, which is in accordance with the growing fight against climate change. In this regard, the representatives of almost 200 countries at the end of 2015 reached the agreement in Paris on the objectives of climate changes (so-called Paris Agreement) (Chiang, 2017, p. 5). The representatives of developed countries agreed to invest at least USD 100 billion annually into the projects related to the fight against climate changes, which aims to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to the level that will limit the temperature growth at global level under 2°C. After that, the demand for socially responsible investments of institutional and other investors has grown significantly. High demand for green bonds facilitates their sale in the primary market, but also makes difficult their purchase in the secondary market. In this regard, mostly a small supply of green bonds in the secondary market enables investors to sell them at higher prices compared to conventional bonds. (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 472). In this regard, stock exchanges represent important actors in the development of the green bond market, because they can provide the liquidity of this market. Also, stock exchanges have a great role in providing regulated and transparent markets that trade green bonds (Berensmann, 2017; Laskowska, 2017, p. 75). In this regard, some developed world stock exchanges have created listings of green bonds (Table 1).

Table 1. Stock Exchanges that have launched a dedicated green bond or sustainable bond section.

Name of Stock Exchange	Type of Dedicated Section	Launch Date
Oslo Stock Exchange	Green bonds	January 2015
Stockholm Stock Exchange	Sustainable Bonds	June 2015
London Stock Exchange	Green bonds	July 2015
Shanghai Stock Exchange	Green bonds	March 2016
Mexico Stock Exchange	Green bonds	August 2016
Luxembourg Stock Exchange	Luxembourg Green Exchange	September 2016
Borsa Italiana	Green and Social Bonds	March 2017
Taipei Stock Exchange	Green bonds	May 2017
Johanesburg Stock Exchange	Green bonds	October 2017
Japan Exchange Group	Green and Social Bonds	January 2018
Vienna Exchange	Green and Social Bonds	March 2018
Nasdaq Helsinki	Sustainable Bonds	May 2018
Nasdaq Copenhagen	Sustainable Bonds	May 2018
Nasdaq Baltic	Sustainable Bonds	Maj 2018
The International Stock Exchange	Green bonds	November 2018
Frankfurt Stock Exchange	Green bonds	November 2018
Moscow Exchange	Sustainable Bonds	August 2019
Euronext	Green bonds	November 2019

Source: <https://www.climatebonds.net/green-bond-segments-stock-exchanges>

To date, several stock indexes of green bonds have been created, of which the most famous are Solactive Green Bond Index Series (the first index of this type in the world), S&P Green Bond Index and ChinaBond China Climate-Aligned Bond Index. Based on index of green bonds in practice, financial products were created, i.e. ETFs (e.g. Lyxor Green Bond UCITS ETF) and structural products. Such market structure stimulates investments and increases liquidity of the green bond market (Laskowska, 2017, p. 75).

Index providers may give a significant support to the standardization of green bonds by including or excluding issuers from their indices pursuant to certain rules. In this way Index providers of green bonds certify and constantly monitor green bond issues. Important indices of green bonds have been published by Barclays MSCI, Bank of America Merrill Lynch, S&P and Solactive (Berensmann, 2017).

THE PROCESS OF STANDARDIZATION OF GREEN BONDS

One of the important limitations of further development of the green bond market is insufficient level of transparency (Ludvigsen, 2015). As a response to the increasing concern regarding transparency of green bonds, International Capital Markets Association ICMA published in 2014 with other with other major investment banks Green Bond Principles (GBPs) (Green Bond how to unlock their full potential?; Talbot, 2017, p. 137). Since then GBPs have been updated twice (last time in 2017) (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 475). The release of Green Bond Principles (GBPs), which encompasses a consortium of more than 200 financial and non-financial institutions, solidified the emergence of green bonds (Josué Banga, 2019, p.19). GBPs have a key role in providing basic principles because most of other standards are based on them (Urlik Ross, 2015; Berensmann, 2017). GBPs represent “voluntary process guidelines” that describe the general criteria which most certification programs adhere to (Ehlers & Packer, 2017), i.e. GBPs represent a set of voluntary guidelines on the process and management that put emphasis on transparency and openness as means of maintaining integrity of market (Nassiry, 2018, p. 2). These principles provide the future issuers with guidelines on: the use of assets for environmentally sustainable activities, the process of determining the eligibility of projects, managing assets in a transparent way that can be traced and checked and the annual reporting on the use of assets (Ehlers & Packer, 2017). Hence, according to GBPs for a bond to be green it must meet the conditions related to the use of funds, it must pass the process of evaluation and election of projects, there must be a system of managing assets from bonds and it must be harmonized with the conditions of reporting (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 476). In this regard, GBPs have four main components related to green

bonds, and those are: use of proceeds, process for project evaluation and selection, management of proceeds, and reporting (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p.4; Talbot, 2017, p. 138; Nassiry, 2018, p. 2). The first component forms the basis of green bonds. There are a few categories of green projects with clear benefits for the sustainability of environment. These are the projects related to renewable energy sources, efficient waste management, “clean” traffic and mitigation of climate changes. The purpose of the “use of proceed” component is for the issuer to state clearly in the process of bond issuance pertaining to the use of funds. The separation of this component helps to quantify the value of the environmental utility of the project and promotes transparency and accountability of the issuer. Within the second component the issuer should describe in detail the procedure used during qualifying the project as “green”. Also, the issuer should present the goals of environmental sustainability of the project. This component emphasizes the role of GBPs in increasing the transparency of green bond markets and allows the external insight into the procedure of evaluation and selection of the project. Within the component “management of proceeds” the issuer is demanded to pay a certain amount of assets onto a sub-account. According to GBPs the issuers should use this sub-account from time to time in order to monitor the use of the proceeds from green bonds and the realization of predetermined goals of environmental sustainability. The information related to this sub-account must be available to the investors in order to provide a high level of transparency. Also, GBPs encourage the use of auditing services and similar third parties in order to verify the internal way of monitoring and allocation of assets arising from green bonds. The fourth component of GBPs is related to the reporting demand. This demand obliges the issuers of green bond to make an annual report with available and updated data on using proceed. According to the data of Climate Bonds Initiative, almost 80% of issuers make public the report on using assets raised by the sale of green bonds. The highest level of publicity is available with green bonds, the issuers of which are countries, state banks, and commercial banks. (Climate Bonds Initiative, 2017b, pp. 2–8).

According to GBPs, there are nine broad categories that meet the conditions of environmental projects: renewable energy sources, energy efficiency, prevention and control of pollution, environmentally sustainable management of living natural resources and use of land, preservation of biodiversity on land and in water, clean traffic, sustainable management of water and waste waters, adaptation to climate changes, environmentally efficient product and/or a product adjusted to circular economy and environmental structures satisfying certification standards at regional, national and international levels (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 476).

GBPs are not the only set of standards related to green bonds. Climate Bonds Initiative promotes the growth of the green bond market

through introduction of Climate Bonds Standard and Certification Scheme (CBSCS) (Talbot, 2017, p. 142; Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 477). CBSCS encompasses the previously defined GBPs, but further expands these guidelines. In this regard, CBSCS defines several different standards specific for the given sector of which each has been developed in such way to secure consistently respecting the principle that the growth of global temperature must be less than 2°C (Nassiry, 2018, p. 2). The current version of CBSCS covers the projects dealing with wind energy, solar energy, geothermal energy, structures with low carbon issuance and with fast bus transportation systems. Also, CBSCS states several standards related to traffic with low carbon issuance, bioenergetics and water management. Each of these standards states various criteria the issuers must meet in order to have their climate bonds certified (Talbot, 2017, p. 143). However, the use of CBSCS has one big limitation, and that is that it does not order obligatory permanent monitoring and verification (Ehlers & Packer, 2017).

The issuers of green bonds mostly cannot secure full transparency of the investment that is offered so that a large number of third persons provides the second opinion and certifies the use of assets from issuances. The investors appreciate these opinions because they know that independent advisors (consulting firms) such as CICERO, Vigeo Eiris, SUSTAINALYTICS, OEKOM, etc. do not have interest in the realization of green bond issuances (Urlik Ross, 2015; Nassiry, 2018, p. 6). In addition to the stated consulting agencies, famous rating agencies, such as Moody's and S&P, have since 2016 started to perform the evaluation of green bonds. In early 2016, Moody's introduced a standardized access to the evaluation of green bonds – the services of Green Bond Assessment (GBA) and research – independently from credit rating whereby the estimation is based on five factors: (1) organization (qualification and management), (2) use of assets, (3) openness regarding the use of assets, (4) management of assets, and (5) permanent reporting and openness (Nassiry, 2018, p. 5). Also, the agency for credit rating Standard & Poor's proposed in 2016 a tool for the evaluation of green bonds with the aim of "giving a second opinion and the relative score of the environmental impact on capital market instruments aimed at financing environmentally useful projects." According to S&P, environmental evaluation does not represent credit rating and does not take into account credit quality or factor when establishing credit rating. Environmental evaluation is based on three scores – transparency score, management score and damage mitigation score (environmental impact), or the adaptation score (resilience level) (Nassiry, 2018, p. 5). Following the example of Moody's and S&P, later a third large rating agency, Fitch Ratings, joined these activities.

In addition to international standards, there are standards (informal regulations and guidelines) adopted at the national level that are related to

green bonds, for example in China, India, Brasil, and France (Berensmann, 2017; Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 477). In China, green finances make up a significant part of national strategy (Yao Wang & Ricco Zhang). In September 2016 The People's Bank of China (PBC) published, together with the minister of finance and environmental protection, National commission for development and reforms (NCDR) and the commissions for banking, insurance, and securities, the Guidelines for the establishment of the system of green finances (Nassiry, 2018, p.14). On the other hand, in the USA the regulations on issuance of green bonds exist only in form of non-binding international guidelines (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018). In this regard, in order to intensify the development of green bonds in future it is necessary to harmonize the existing international and national standards. Harmonized standards increase the transparency of bond "greenness" and help the investors to make a clear difference between green and non-green bonds (Berensmann, 2017). Also, harmonized standards reduce the risk of "greenwashing" and that is the risk that the assets from green bonds are not used for financing environmental projects. Greenwashing is mostly defined as false and insincere concern for the environment (Ludvigsen, 2015). This manipulation occurs when the issuer promotes environmental projects in order to raise assets on the market of green bonds, and in fact it does business that is harmful for the environment. In this regard, greenwashing can have a very negative impact on the trust of investors in green bonds and in such way thwart the development of this market (Talbot, 2017, p. 129; Josué Banga, 2019, p. 27).

TYPES AND CATEGORIES OF GREEN BONDS

Bearing in mind that there is no universal definition of green bonds, it is very hard to make a unique classification of green bonds. Apart from that, having in mind that there is a large number of green projects that can be financed by green bonds, the criteria for division of green bonds can be very diverse. In Table 2, six sectors were displayed within which the green projects were stated, i.e. areas that can be financed by green bonds. Based on stated areas general systematization of green bonds has been done.

Similar to the systematization presented in Table 2, World Bank and International Finance Corporation published their criteria for project qualification with the emphasis on climate changes. World Bank has financed projects of clear energy sources like solar and wind power plants, as well as the projects of mitigating damage such as protection from floods, while International Finance Corporation has financed projects of renewable energy sources and energy efficiency (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p.2). In this regard, it can be said that significant support to the development of global market of green bonds is provided by "supranational"

banks for development (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p.3). For example, World Bank has financed, by means of green bond issuance, the projects of solar and hydro power plants in China, projects of geothermal energy in Indonesia, projects of energy efficient lighting in Mexico, sustainable railway transportation in Brazil, ecological buses in the Philippines, water treatment plants in the Dominican Republic, development of solutions for solid waste in Morocco, organic cultivation in Armenia, innovative agricultural studies in Peru and plans of infrastructure resistant to climate changes (Trompeter, 2017).

Table 2. Systematization of green bonds

Energetics	Traffic	Water management	Control of waste and pollution	Construction and industry	Agriculture and forestry
Solar energy, wind energy, bioenergetics, geothermal energy, hydro-energetics, energy of waves, tides	Traffic with low carbon issuance, electric vehicles, public transportation, water traffic, alternative fuels	Green infrastructure, treatment of waste waters, desalination, improvement of infrastructure	Recycling, production of organic fertilizer, circular economy, technology for carbon sequestration	Environmental structures, systems for energy intake, efficient technology, projects of efficient technology, recovery of waste heat	Afforestation, revegetation, organic agriculture, reduced use of fertilizers, efficiency of intensive agriculture, land remediation

Source: Laskowska, 2017, p. 72

However, in addition to supranational development banks, other issuers are increasingly appearing in the green bond market. In this regard, according to the type of issuer and the structure seven types of green bonds can be distinguished: (OECD & Bloomberg Philanthropies, 2015, p. 12)

- corporate bond,
- project bond,
- asset-backed security,
- municipal bond,
- sovereign bond,
- supranational bond,
- financial sector bond.

Hence, green bonds are a very flexible financial instrument. Flexibility of green bonds is reflected in the demands of issuers, possible types of issuances and conditions of issuances. In this regard, it is important to note that almost every organization can meet the conditions for issuance of green bonds (Thiam Hee Ng, Jacqueline Yujia Tao, 2016, p. 6). Also, it should be kept in mind that environmental investments are subject to financial risks related to uncertainty of expected effects and possible dif-

facilities in raising capital. In this regard, green bonds are often offered in insured or guaranteed form, as well as previous and hybrid bonds (Marzałek & Daszyńska-Żygadło, 2016, p. 947).

Based on the defined relation between the issuers and investors, but also the repayment method, four main types of green bonds can be distinguished, and these are:

- *Green Use of Proceeds Bonds*, with which the issuers raise capital and repay interest to the investors during a certain period with funds from the investment project. Credit rating for bonds for the use of assets is the same for the issuer and the given bond;
- *Green Use of Proceeds Revenue Bonds*, means the repayment to investors through guaranteed revenue flows, such as fees, charges and taxes;
- *Green Project Bonds*, finance the projects in which the investor is directly exposed to project risk and has no right of recourse to the issuer;
- *Green Securitized Bonds* finance the projects and use basic financial instrument such as collateral. These financial instruments are usually the source of the first repayment to the bond holders (Trompeter, 2017; Talbot, 2017, p. 140; Josué Banga, 2019, p. 22).

In addition to stated types, it is very important to note that there are also two categories of green bonds, and these are: green labeled bonds and green unlabeled bonds. The funds of green labeled bonds are used for financing green assets and the issuers label them as green. On the other hand, green unlabeled bonds finance environmental projects and promote the economy with low carbon issuance, but the issuers did not label them as “green” (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 471). In other words, green labeled bonds represent the bonds placed onto the market as green bonds, while the sphere of green unlabeled bonds is reduced to the bonds used for environmental projects, but they are not placed onto the market as green bonds (Thiam Hee Ng, Jacqueline Yujia Tao, 2016, p. 6).

DEVELOPMENT OF GREEN BONDS AT GLOBAL FINANCIAL MARKET

Green bonds are increasingly popular fixed income securities, through which capital is raised for projects that have a positive impact on the environment. European Investment Bank (EIB) is the first institutions that issued in 2007 a green bond in the amount of USD 1 million in order to finance renewable energy projects around the world. A year later, World Bank (WB) issued the second green bond for financing projects of mitigating climate changes. Since then, the activities of these two multi-

lateral developmental institutions as the issuers of green bonds were growing from year to year (Trompeter, 2017, pp. 4–5; Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 474).

Together with EIB and WB, the Nordic region is considered a pioneer in issuance of green bonds. Scandinavian Enskilda Banken (SEB) together with WB developed in 2008 a concept of green bonds as a response to the demand of investors for introduction of investments related to climate changes. Since then the issuers from the Nordic region occupy a significant place in the issuance of green bonds, especially at the local level (Nassiry, 2018, p.1). Among leading issuers of green bonds in this region are the city of Gothenburg, Kommuninvest (Sweden), Kommunalbanken (Norway), Kommunekredit (Denmark), and MuniFin (Finland) (Nassiry, 2018, p. 6). In 2013, the city of Gothenburg became the first city and the first Nordic issuer that issued a green bond in amount of 500 million SEK (USD 77 million USD), of which the funds were used for financing projects of public transportation, water management, energetic, and waste management (Nassiry, 2018, p. 8).

Poland's initial bond issue made it the first country in the world to raise green-labeled debt (Nassiry, 2018). It was followed by France, which issued €7bn of green bonds in January 2017, and Fiji, which became the first emerging market to launch a green bond in October with a \$50m deal (Kate Allen, Financial Times, 2018).

China, as the largest producer of greenhouse gases in the world, is a very active participant in the market of green bonds (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 478). China has formally created the market of green bonds in late 2015, and since then the quantity and value of green bonds has been significantly increased in the observed area. From 2016 to 2018, the number of issued green bonds in China shows the trend of linear growth (Xiaoguang Zhou & Yadi Cui, 2019). Also, this type of debt financial instrument has continued the growth trend in the observed area during 2019. By the end of the first half of 2019 China issued 908 green bonds. More than two-thirds of Chinese green bonds were issued in interbank markets, and the rest of green bonds were issued on the Shanghai or Shenzhen Stock Exchange. The example of China has empirically proven that the issuance of green bonds in the long run can have a positive impact on attracting investors to invest in the shares of these companies, because the issuance of green bonds also contributes to the improvement of its financial performances. The number of green bonds issued on the Shenzhen Stock Exchange is far less than the number of bonds issued on the Shanghai Stock Exchange (Xiaoguang Zhou & Yadi Cui, 2019). China Railway Corporation is one of the largest issuers of green bonds in the world. In 2017, this company had outstanding green bonds in the value of USD 222 billion, and they were issued for financing the development of high-speed railway network 22.000 km long (Laskowska, 2017, p. 78).

Hence, the market of green bonds has sharply risen in Europe and Asia, but also in the USA as the second largest producer of greenhouse gases in the world (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 480). However, less than one-tenth of one percent of all outstanding bonds in the USA makes green bonds, which is, for example, much under the percentage present in Western Europe, China, India, and South Africa (Chiang, 2017, p. 5). The USA entered the market of green bonds in 2013 when Massachusetts issued municipal green bonds in the amount of USD 100 million (KPMG, 2015). The assets from these bonds were intended for the improvement of water quality, increase of energy efficiency, and solving pollution (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p.3). After that, in November 2013, the Bank of America announced the sale of its first green bonds in order to finance fight against climate changes, the reduction of demand for natural resources and improvement of economic solutions with lower carbon issuance. The issuance in amount of USD 500 million was issued by the Bank of America within ten-year environmental initiative worth USD 50 million (Scott M. Stringer, 2014, p.3). So far, the largest issue of corporate green bonds in the observed area was realized by Apple, Inc. (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 480). In 2019, Fannie Mae issued the first Green Mortgage Backed Securities (MBS) in amount of USD 22.9 billion, which is also the largest issue of green bonds in the world in that year (it represents 9% of the value of green bonds issued in 2019).

Observed globally, there is an accelerated growth of the green bond market. After the first issuances by EIB and WB, numerous public and private institutions began to issue green bonds (Josué Banga, 2019, p.18). According to the database of Climate Bonds Initiative, non-profit organizations with the seat in London that promotes investments in economy with low carbon dioxide emissions, the total number of issued green bonds grew from one in 2007 to 1788 issued green bonds in 2019 issued by 496 issuers (Climate Bonds Initiative, 2019).

Accelerated development of the green bond market followed the adoption of Green Bond Principle's in 2014. Total annual value of green bond issuances grew from USD 3 billion in 2012 and USD 11 billion to USD 81 billion in 2016 (Nassiry, 2018, p.1). Also, during 2017, a great growth of this market has been achieved, green bonds in the amount of USD 155.5 billion were issued (Echo Kaixi Wang, 2018, p. 473; Nassiry, 2018, p.1) (Climate Bonds Initiative, 2017c). Significant growth of the green bond market also followed in 2018 and 2019. During 2019 green bonds and green loans were issued in amount of USD 257.7 billion (around 95% of this amount are green bonds), which is a new record of the green bond market and represents the increase of 51% compared to 2018 when this market was worth USD 170.6 billion (Climate Bonds Initiative, 2019). The USA, China, and France make up 44% of the green bond market issued during 2019 (Climate Bonds Initiative, 2019). How-

ever, around 45% of total green bond turnover during 2019 was realized on European market, while the share of Asia-Pacific and North American markets was 25% and 23%, respectively.

CONCLUSION

Since the onset of the global financial crisis at the end of 2008, the issues of sustainable development have become increasingly important, and investors' interest in green projects increased significantly. However, a more intensive development of green bonds was not possible before defining more precise standards related to this segment of financial market. At the global level, there are two sets of standards related to the valuation of green bonds and provide guidelines for the issuance of these securities, as follows: Green Bond Principle's (GBPs) and Climate Bonds Standard and Certification Scheme (CBSCS). Pursuant to the stated standards, in many countries, the regulations at the national level related to the green bond market were defined. However, the existing regulations in most nations are adopted on a voluntary basis and represent non-binding guidelines for the development of green bond market. This can be problematic since an issuer may sell green unlabeled bonds in order to use special privileges and tax reliefs of such bond, and then perform greenwashing with bonds in the way that it will invest the assets for the purposes that are not in favor of environmental protection. In this regard, the lack of basic and final rules and definitions of green bonds slows down the development of this market to a significant extent.

Pursuant to the accelerated growth of green bond market, as a support to the process of standardizing these securities, stock exchanges from all parts of the world since 2015 have started to create separate listings for green bonds (e.g. London Stock Exchange, Frankfurt Stock Exchange, Euronext, Shanghai Stock Exchange, Japan Exchange Group, Johannesburg Stock Exchange and dr.). Also, some of these stock exchanges have created indices related to these debt instruments. Since 2016, famous world rating agencies S&P and Moody's (later Fitch Ratings also) became involved in the valuation of green bonds, too.

Observed at the global level, the market of green bonds is most developed in the USA, China, and France. However, the USA and China are by far the biggest polluters of the environment, i.e. emitters of greenhouse gases. Pursuant to the Paris agreement from 2015 the most developed countries of the world obliged themselves to a fight against climate changes, i.e. to reduction of the emissions of greenhouse gases to a level that will limit the temperature growth at global level under 2°C. The Republic of Serbia ratified this agreement in May 2017. Also, in early 2020, the Republic of Serbia has adopted the Negotiation position for the Chapter 27, the chapter related to environment and climate changes in the pro-

cess of joining the European Union. In this regard, green bonds can be of a great significance as one of the ways of financing green projects in the observed area.

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УЛОГА И ЗНАЧАЈ ЗЕЛЕНИХ ОБВЕЗНИЦА НА САВРЕМЕНОМ ФИНАНСИЈСКОМ ТРЖИШТУ

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Резиме

Од настанка глобалне финансијске кризе крајем 2008. године, питања одрживог развоја постала су све значајнија, а инвеститори све заинтересованији за зелене пројекте. Међутим, интензивнији развој зелених облигација није био могућ пре дефинисања прецизнијих стандарда који се односе на овај сегмент финансијског тржишта. На глобалном нивоу постоје два скупа стандарда који се односе на вредновање зелених облигација и представљају смернице за емитовање ових хартија од вредности, а то су: Green Bond Principle's (GBPs) и Climate Bonds Standard and Certification Scheme (CBSCS). У складу са наведеним стандардима, у многим земљама су на националном нивоу дефинисани прописи који се односе на тржиште зелених облигација. Међутим, постојећи прописи се код већине нација доносе на добровољној бази и представљају необавезне смернице за развој тржишта зелених облигација. То може бити проблематично, пошто неки емитент може продати зелене облигације да би искористио посебне повластице и пореске олакшице таквих облигација, а затим извршити еко-манипулацију (greenwashing) тако што ће средства инвестирати у сврхе које не иду у корист заштите животне средине. С тим у вези, недостатак основних и правоснажних правила и дефиниција зелених облигација у значајној мери успорава развој овог тржишта.

У складу са убрзаним растом тржишта зелених облигација, а као подршка процесу стандардизације ових хартија од вредности, берзе из свих делова света су од 2015. године почеле да креирају посебне листинге за зелене облигације (нпр. London Stock Exchange, Frankfurt Stock Exchange, Euronext, Shanghai Stock Exchange, Japan Exchange Group, Johannesburg Stock Exchange и др.). Такође, неке од ових берзи су осмислиле и индексе који се односе на ове дужничке инструменте. Од 2016. године, и познате светске рејтинг-агенције S&P и Moody's (касније и Fitch Ratings) укључиле су се у послове вредновања зелених облигација.

Посматрано на глобалном нивоу, тржиште зелених облигација је најразвијеније у САД, Кини и Француској. Међутим, САД и Кина су убедљиво и највећи загађивачи животне средине, односно емитери гасова са ефектом стаклене баште. У складу са Споразумом из Париза из 2015. године, најразвијеније земље света су се обавезале на борбу против климатских промена, односно на смањење емисија гасова са ефектом стаклене баште на ниво који ће ограничити раст температуре на глобалном нивоу испод 2оС. Република Србија је ратификовала овај споразум маја 2017. године. Такође, Република Србија је у процесу приступања Европској унији почетком 2020. године усвојила Преговарачку позицију за Поглавље 27, поглавље које се односи на животну средину и климатске промене. С тим у вези, зелене облигације могу бити од великог значаја као један од начина финансирања зелених пројеката на посматраном подручју.

COMPETITIVE STRATEGIES IN PREMIUM AUTOMOTIVE SEGMENT

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Abstract

This paper analyzes how leaders in premium segments adapt their competitive strategies to the radical restructuring of the automotive industry. The analysis is based on the case study of the BMW Group. The automotive industry faces disruptive innovations which threaten to radically change the competitive structure. Leaders' traditional competencies are no longer sufficient to satisfy the customers' changing preferences within the premium automotive segment. This research points out the new competencies in the digitalization and electrification that a premium automotive company has to abide by in order to survive the hyper competition and sustain competitive advantage. The study highlights the necessity of reshaping the existing competitive strategies within the premium automotive segment to cope with the rising technological uncertainty and fierce competition. Strong investment in new technologies, efficient, agile and flexible production systems and implementation of hybrid competitive strategy result in strong performance within the premium automotive segment. Findings show that the transformation from the traditional premium auto company to a mobility tech company represents a key to gaining and sustaining the competitive advantage within the premium automotive segment. The paper expands the existing research literature by providing a detailed analysis of how disruptive innovations affect competitive strategies of leaders within the premium automotive segment.

Key words: competitive strategies, disruptive innovations, premium automotive segment, digitalization, electrification.

КОНКУРЕНТСКЕ СТРАТЕГИЈЕ НА ПРЕМИЈУМ АУТО-СЕГМЕНТУ

Апстракт

Рад на примеру *BMW Group* анализира прилагођавање конкурентских стратегија лидера на премијум сегменту, као одговор на радикалне промене у ауто-

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индустрији. Ауто-индустрија се суочава са дисруптивним иновацијама које пре-те да радикално промене конкурентску структуру гране. Традиционални извори конкурентске предности лидера нису више довољни да би се задовољиле промене у преференцијама потрошача на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта. Овај рад указује на нове компетенције у области дигитализације и електрификације које премијум ауто-компаније морају да развију како би очувале конкурентску предност и опстале у условима хиперконкурентности. Рад такође детаљно образлаже неопходност развоја нових конкурентских стратегија на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта како би се одговорило на технолошке неизвесности и оштру конкуренцију. Висока улагања у развој нових технологија, ефикасан, агилан и флексибилан производни систем, као и примена хибридних конкурентских стратегија доприносе снажним пословним перформансама на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта. У раду је показано да су трансформација од традиционалног произвођача возила ка високотехнолошкој компанији и пружаоцу услуга мобилности кључни за стицање и очување конкурентске предности на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта. Рад проширује постојећа теоријска знања пружајући детаљну анализу утицаја дисруптивних иновација на конкурентске стратегије лидера на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта.

Кључне речи: конкурентске стратегија, дисруптивне иновације, премијум сегмент ауто-тржишта, дигитализација, електрификација.

INTRODUCTION

The auto industry was characterized by evolutionary changes, but currently it faces dynamic and disrupting processes. Changing industry structure is a considerable threat to some auto companies, while others consider these new processes as a business opportunity (McKinsey & Company, 2019a). Technological challenges such as ACES (autonomous, connected, electric, and shared/services mobility), stringent emissions standards, rising importance of Asian markets, and changing customer preferences have triggered a radical transformation within the auto industry (McKinsey & Company, 2016; McKinsey & Company, 2019c). The structure of the automotive industry has been unfreezed by the disruptive innovations in complementary industries. To meet the changing expectations of customers, it is necessary to develop new business models. Fierce competition within the industry and looming USA-China trade war are fueling business uncertainties. The auto companies have to develop new competencies and craft new competitive strategies as a response to the changing business environment. Traditional auto companies expand their business areas through strategic alliances with direct competitors and new partners from ITC industry (PWC, 2017).

The paper analyzes the strategies that market leaders within the premium automotive segment use under growing uncertainties caused by technological and market disruptions. The analysis is based on the BMW Group case study. The paper shows that the competitive strategy of a market leader within the premium segment must blend elements of low-

cost provider and a differentiation strategy, i.e. a **hybrid focus strategy**. The development of new technologies, customer-oriented approach and combination of traditional and new competencies are critical for gaining and sustaining the competitive advantage within the premium segment.

Beside the introductory part, the paper contains three more parts. The first part offers a comprehensive literature review of leaders' and pioneers' strategies in technology intensive industries. This part provides the theoretical background to competitive strategies used within the premium automotive segment. The research methodology is presented within the second part. The BMW case study is used to demonstrate how leaders within the premium segment have to adapt their competitive strategies to the new business reality. The final, third part summarizes the main results and concluding remarks. In accordance with the presented theoretical concepts, two research statements were tested.

1. Having traditional competences (agility, flexibility and production efficiency) is no longer enough to create and sustain competitive advantage within the automotive industry.
2. Leaders within the premium automotive segment have to develop new technology solutions (ACES) and apply customer-oriented approach in order to sustain competitive advantage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Supply chain management within the automotive industry is very complex and requires competencies of coordination and alignment of thousands of companies, both in upstream and downstream activities. It was thought that supply chain complexity and capital intensity were efficient entry barriers and that traditional competitors would continue to dominate the industry in the future (MacDuffie & Fujimoto, 2010). However, disruptive innovations in related industries (Downes & Nunes, 2013) have unfrozen the structure of automotive industry. Technological innovations have not directly affected the industry's structure, but they have indirectly changed the impact of five competitive forces (Porter, 2008), resulting in the decreasing profitability of the industry. Due to technological innovations, some late followers have managed to bypass entry barriers. On the other hand, threats of substitutes (car sharing and ride hailing services), powerful suppliers and customers have been growing in the industry. Late followers from emerging markets have used the turmoil in the industry to acquire troubled incumbents and challenge leaders in the premium segment (Marković, Rakita & Filipović, 2015). The emerging markets multinationals successfully combine traditional low-cost production capabilities with acquired technology, know-how, marketing knowledge and brands (Yadong, Su & Lu, 2011) to establish a foothold in the market.

Changes in the market are especially considerable in the premium segment, where technological disruptions are combined with the changing customer preferences. Fast-paced technology and market evolution in auto industry (Suarez & Lanzolla, 2007) places incumbents in a dilemma of whether to be a pioneer or a follower. To meet these challenges, companies have to balance the exploitation of the existing competencies, which guarantee their business efficiency, with the exploration and development of new competencies, which will affect business performance in the long run (O'Reilly 3rd & Tushman, 2004). Some auto companies have established independent business units in order to successfully balance out the exploitation and exploration activities. This approach frequently results in coordination problems and low synergies (Tushman, 2016).

Incumbents that decide to be pioneers have to own core competencies necessary to develop technological and marketing innovations. However, if the pioneers do not possess complementary resources, they will not be able to build entry barriers, and early and late followers can jeopardize their competitive advantage (Vidal & Mitchel, 2013). In highly uncertain business environments, such as in the automotive industry, rivals imitate leaders' strategy because there is a belief that leaders possess superior market knowledge (Giachetti & Torrisi, 2018). The pioneers' competitive position is weak if early followers have sources of competitive advantage that can be easily transferred from related industries (Fosfuri, Lanzolla & Suarez, 2013) and exploited in the market. This is the case of auto companies, which use their traditional competencies to enter in the segment of electric and autonomous vehicles. Due to the followers' rapid imitation and fierce competition which erode returns on investment, leaders often prefer to self-displace from industry leadership in order to preserve financial performance (Pacheco-de-Almeida, 2010).

Flexible and fast reactions to changing customers' needs are proven to be the source of competitive advantage in unstable business environments and during hypercompetition. In this kind of industries, companies are not able to sustain competitive advantage using traditional competencies, but have to constantly improve skills that will protect the companies from the threats coming from the business environment and competitors' activities (Kriz, Voola & Yuksel, 2014). Due to disruptive innovations, which have negatively affected the premium auto segment, companies have to differentiate their marketing mix and add value to customers (Xu & Liu, 2018). Traditional competitors within the premium auto segment have to work constantly on cost reduction, to neutralize threats from the Asian late followers, and blend low-cost production capabilities with the differentiation approach, applying the so-called hybrid strategy (Proff, 2000). Although the previous studies found opposite relationship between the hybrid strategy and business performance (Pertusa, Morina & Claver, 2009; Thornhil & White, 2007), the strategy is common in

technology-intensive industries. Multinational companies in these industries have established a wide network of production plants and R&D centers, so they are able to simultaneously achieve low production costs and differentiate themselves by creating innovations within different locations (Gabrielsson, Sepala & Gabrielsson, 2016). In addition, multinational companies team up in strategic alliances with direct competitors to achieve the economy of scale, while strategic alliances with partners from unrelated industries are used to create new sources of competitive advantage (de Man & Luvison, 2019).

METHODOLOGY

The research methodology is based on an individual case study of a market leader within the premium automotive segment. The data presented in the official annual reports, corporate and investor presentations and factbooks delivered by the BMW Group, Daimler and Audi were used. The data released by individual auto companies are combined with the data released by professional associations and specialized institutions such as OICA, J.D. Power, Interbrand, PWC and McKinsey & Company. The combination of theoretical knowledge and business data resulted in some new and interesting findings, different from the results of the previous studies.

GAINING AND SUSTAINING COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE WITHIN THE PREMIUM AUTOMOTIVE SEGMENT

Passenger car sales recovered strongly after the great recession, reaching the historic pick of almost 71 million units in 2017. The sale in 2017 was 39% larger than the previous historic record in 2007. Passenger car sale declined to about 64 million units in 2019, due to market saturation and structural problems (OICA, 2020). Covid-19 pandemic in 2020 has caused global economic crisis, so the sales are expected to drop further. Accordingly, sales in mass market have fallen sharply. However, according to some analyses, average annual growth in premium segment will be 1.8%, and the segment will reach 11.8 million units by the end of 2031 (BMW, 2020). The premium segment has been characterized by higher growth rates compared to the mass market, higher prices and profit margins, greater resistance to demand fluctuations, high brand loyalty and brands with a long tradition (Vošta & Kocourek, 2017). In 2017, premium segment made up 13% of vehicle sales, but 40% of profits, which makes it extremely attractive (McKinsey & Company, 2019b).

Premium customers traditionally demanded high product performance, superior design, safety and driving experience. However, disruptive innovations in complementary industries are also changing premium

customers' expectations. Accordingly, in addition to all previously mentioned, modern premium auto brands' customers also expect digital integration and two-way communication through the digital channels. A threat for incumbents in the premium segment is the emergence of challengers who are able to satisfy changing customers demand and create strong brands (Xu & Liu, 2018).

The incumbents have to find a way to beat late followers and to neutralize threats from technological disruption. This can be achieved by: 1. expanding the existing market 2. preserving the existing market share and 3. increasing its own market share at the expense of competitors (Kotler & Keller, 2016, p. 360). This strategy must be executed in a way that high investments in R&D and marketing activities do not jeopardize financial survival (PWC, 2019).

Market Expansion as a Reaction of Leaders and Pioneers to Disruptive Changes in the Automotive Industry

The globalization of the business environment and the global economic crisis have significantly affected the demand for premium cars. Results of globalization have been the stagnation in western middle-class real income and strong increase in Asian middle-class real income (Milanović, 2016; Alvaredo, Chancel, Piketty, Saez, & Zucman, 2017), so demand for premium products in Asia has been growing steadily. On the other hand, during the global economic crisis many buyers postponed the purchase of durable consumer goods due to uncertainty, although they could afford to buy them (Flatters & Willmott, 2009). Faced with such trends, the leader in the premium vehicle segment, the BMW Group, has decided to expand demand by offering cheaper models to customers in the mass market who previously could not afford BMW vehicles. In addition, the BMW Group has decided to create new sub-segments in the premium segment. The strategy proved successful because the company managed to increase sales after the global economic crisis from almost 1.3 million in 2009 to 2.5 million units in 2019 (BMW Group Annual Report, 2009; BMW Group Annual Report, 2019). The company sustained the leading position in the premium segment, leaving behind its two closest competitors: Mercedes Cars and Audi Group (see Figure 1). Other premium brands (Volvo, Jaguar Land Rover, Tesla, Lexus, etc.) lag far behind this German trio in terms of sales.

The company entered the mass segment offering smaller models such as MINI, X1 and Series 1 in a higher price range. The launch of these models was supported by marketing campaigns. The aim of these campaigns has been to raise the awareness among the mass segment customers that they can afford BMW models. The extension of the brand towards the mass segment has been successfully realized without damaging profit margins and the brand value. The decision to enter the mass seg-

ment was also influenced by stringent CO₂ regulations. In order to comply with regulations, the company launched a larger number of smaller models with lower CO₂ emissions, which created additional pressure on mass producers. BMW predicts that by 2025 smaller models will make about 40% of sales (Hetzner & Ciferri, 2015).

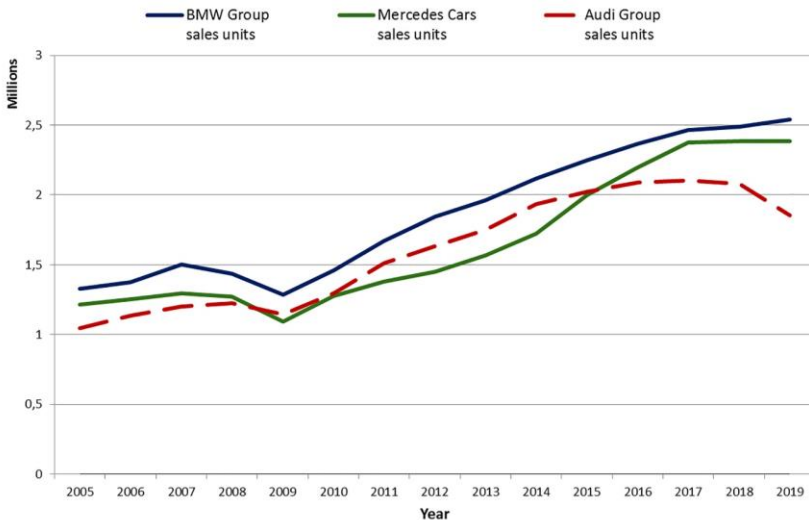


Figure 1. BMW Group, Mercedes Cars and Audi Group sales units, 2005-2019

Source: Official annual reports

BMW is trying to expand the premium segment by creating new sub-segments, especially crossover models, such as the BMW X6. The launching of new models results in a growing demand and attracts a new type of customers willing to pay more for something unique (Hetzner & Ciferri, 2015). The BMW Group has successfully created additional demand in the premium segment by expanding its portfolio of attractive products vertically (new Series 2, 4, X2, X4, BMW i) and horizontally (multiple derivatives in each series). Due to that, BMW covers almost all premium sub-segments. In 2019, BMW had in its range cars from Series 1 to the Series 8, Z4 and BMW i, while the SUV range was expanded to cover the X1 to X7 Series. The share of SUVs in the total sales of the BMW brand is constantly increasing, amounting to about 44% in 2019 (BMW Group Annual Report, 2019). Thus, the company leaves less space for competitors to penetrate the premium market.

The BMW Group has a pioneering role in sustainability. That is evident from the rapid expansion of the range of full electric and plug-in hybrid vehicles. By introducing “green” models BMW is trying to satisfy

the growing demand for eco-friendly products. Global sales of “green” vehicles reached 2.3 million vehicles in 2019, representing 2.5% of the whole auto market (EV-volumes, 2020). In the previous period, BMW did not need to experiment in this segment due to the strength of its brand, design and engineering competencies (Wesseling, Niesten & Hekkeert, 2015), but in recent years BMW has decided to expand into the premium “green” segment and come closer to environmentally sensitive consumers. The company has mastered the competencies to independently developing batteries and electric motors in order to compete in this segment. The company launched a separate sub-brand BMWi in 2013 to compete within the electric vehicles market. During 2019, more than 146,000 electrified vehicles were sold, which makes BMW one of the global leaders in electrified premium sub-segment, along with Tesla and BYD (BMW Group, 2020).

By entering the mass market and developing green models, the BMW Group has achieved multiple benefits. Firstly, due to growing production the company has reached the economies of scale. Secondly, by launching smaller models with smaller engines the BMW Group successfully reduces the average CO₂ emissions of the entire fleet, making it easier to comply with increasingly stringent environmental regulations (BMW Group Annual Report, 2018). Thirdly, the product portfolio has been adapted to meet the demands of younger environmentally sensitive users who will represent the main part of the market.

BMW provides premium services for individual mobility in order to boost the demand for premium products. In this manner, the company finds new ways to use the product and increases the total value of the package that customers receive. New digital solutions and stricter emission regulations are causing a growing, but still limited number of customers to give up ownership in favor of car sharing and ride hailing services. The users of this service are mainly premium costumers, small but profitable market segment, who live or work in large cities (Zipse, 2019a). Recent research shows that the demand for these services is growing slowly and that the willingness to use them does not depend on fleet models (Hahn, Ostertag, Lehr, Buttgen & Benoit, 2020). Despite these obstacles, BMW’s plan is to have 100 million active users of mobility services by the end of 2025 (BMW Group, 2019b).

We conclude that the BMW Group has successfully expanded market demand for its products. In the mass segment BMW has launched affordable luxury products, while in the premium segment the company has created new sub-segments and adapted its product portfolio to younger urban premium consumers.

*Market Share Protection as a Strategy Used by Market Leaders
in Premium Automotive Segment*

Continuous innovations in products and processes have proven to be the best way to beat the followers in the market. By applying this approach, market leaders lead the industry in new product ideas, customer services and cost efficiency (Gilligan & Willson, 2009, p. 458).

The BMW Group frequently innovates and targets premium customers who can afford cutting-edge products and appreciate the masterpiece. These customers expect superiority, performance, reliability and top quality. The company is positioned as a symbol of quality and technological advance, exclusive brand with high performance (Kotler & Keller, 2017, p. 272). Such marketing strategy requires the application of a hybrid competitive strategy, so BMW combines differentiation and cost leadership strategies in the premium segment (Salavou, 2015). It was considered that simultaneous application of these two strategies results in poor performance, because these strategies need different competencies, but recent research proved that the hybrid strategy is applicable, especially in the automotive industry. In the case of the BMW Group, technological innovations enable the company to simultaneously achieve a greater degree of differentiation and cost efficiency.

Company differentiates itself from the competition by offering a more diverse product portfolio, with more derivatives, improved design, performance, reliability, safety and comfort. Greater product proliferation enables the firm to capture more customers, charge higher prices for customized versions, raise entry barriers and exploit the economy of scale and scope (Barroso & Giarratana, 2013).

Process digitalization, standardized modules and intelligent composite constructions have enabled the BMW Group to offer a high level of customization (BMW Group Annual Report, 2017). Customers are offered the right products and services at any time and every stage of product life cycle - this is what is called "customized premium mobility" (Krueger, 2017). Mass customization helps implement the differentiation strategy and improves the company's competitiveness (Khalek, Joseph & Nguyen, 2014).

In order to maintain premium brand status, a company must provide digital integration in cars because premium customers expect to be able to do the same things in their car as they do in their office or at home (Xu & Liu, 2018). The BMW Group has recognized this opportunity and is transforming from traditional car manufacturer into a high-tech auto company. The company is improving traditional competencies (flexible production, innovative development and efficient supply chain) and developing new ones in the field of digitalization and electrification with the aim to satisfy the changing demand. BMW cooperates with competitors

and ITC companies in order to create innovative solutions in the area of connectivity, autonomous driving and artificial intelligence.

Premium carmakers must invest significant resources in R&D in order to create product and process innovations and to achieve technological leadership. BMW's target R&D expenditure to sales ratio is between 5% to 5.5%. The value of this ratio reached a historical maximum of 7.1% in 2018. Increased investment in R&D, primarily in development of new models, electrification, digitalization and mobility services, will reduce profit margins in the short term. At this moment, it is the price of long-term sustainable growth (Peter, 2019a).

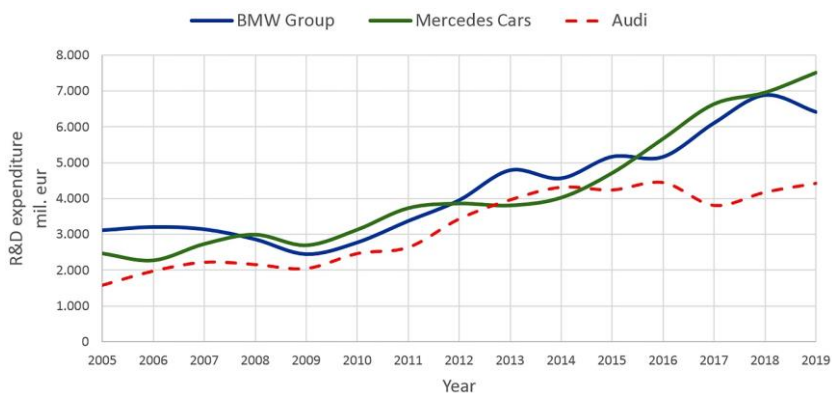


Figure 2. R&D expenditures, BMW Group, Mercedes Cars and Audi Group, 2005-2019

Source: Official annual reports

Figure 2 shows that the BMW Group and Mercedes Cars have had comparable R&D expenditures, while Audi has been lagging behind over the last 15 years. The companies have been increasing R&D investments which is the result of Tesla's penetration in premium segment and changing customer preferences toward digitalized and electrified models (hybrid plug-in and full electric).

A long tradition of innovation is not only the basis of the BMW Group's economic success, but also an integral part of their corporate philosophy. R&D investments are focused on five areas: design, autonomous technology, connected cars, electrification and mobility services. The BMW Group aims to be a leader in all these areas. This refers to revolutionary design as a combination of aesthetics and technology, autonomous driving, digital connections of drivers and vehicles, the electrification of new models and individual mobility services. Numerous awards, primarily in the field of design, the use of innovative technologies and intelligent connectivity prove strong innovative competencies of the BMW Group (BMW Group Annual Reports, 2017-2018). BMW has focused its

efforts on obtaining software competencies necessary to digitalize vehicles and processes in different business functions: R&D, production, sales, product functionalities and lifecycle management (Zipse, 2019b).

BMW's competitive advantage in the field of R&D relates to faster digital processes, leaner structures, innovations and skills to develop and produce electric batteries. These competencies enable BMW to cut the development time of new models by one third by the end of 2022 (BMW Group, 2019a; Krueger, 2019). Shorter development period will result in faster rejuvenation of the product portfolio, differentiation and growth of performance (BMW Group, 2019a).

Three key areas for gaining competitive advantage in automotive industry are R&D, production and supply chain management. The BMW Group reduces operating costs through economies of scale, economy of scope and more efficient supply chain management. Production costs have been decreased through economy of scale in production and supply, technological innovations and better organization of production (BMW Group, 2020).

The BMW Group has established production facilities at 31 locations in 15 countries with the aim to improve production and distribution efficiency (BMW Group Annual Report, 2018). Tariff and non-tariff barriers are circumvented by local production in North America, Europe and China. High demand in the premium segment has resulted in a high capacity utilization (BMW Group Annual Reports, 2017 -2018). The number of produced vehicles per employee ratio is used to analyze capacity utilization and workforce efficiency in the auto industry. BMW's ratio is larger compared to direct competitors (see Figure 3).

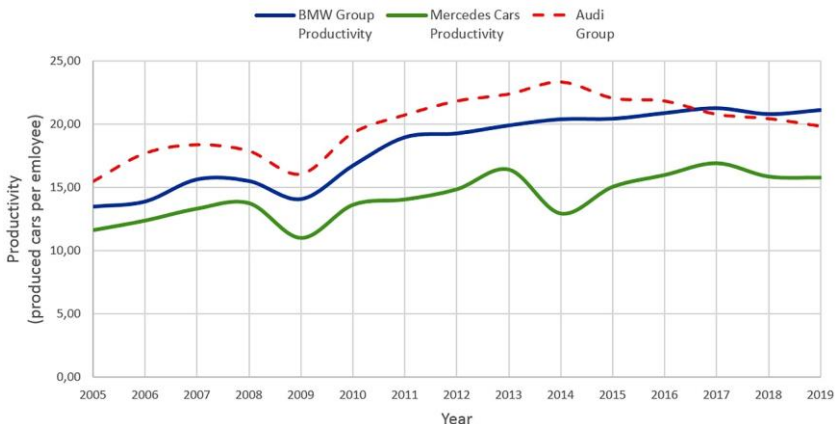


Figure 3. Labor productivity: BMW Group, Mercedes Cars and Audi Group, 2005-2019

Source: Authors' calculations based on data retrieved from official annual reports

The company's production network is characterized by flexibility and operational efficiency. Flexibility is reflected in lean-thinking, ability to produce several models in one plant, competencies to transfer production of the same model from one production plant to another, and ability to produce the same models with ICE, plug-in hybrid and electric motors in the same plant. The operational efficiency is confirmed by high labor productivity, continuous production cost decrease and resource savings (Maidl, 2018). In order to achieve production efficiency, BMW has developed a UKL modular platform. The introduction of the new platform has resulted in greater effects of economy of scope compared to direct competitors (Lampon, Cabanelas & Frigant, 2017).

BMW has a plan to achieve additional savings of 12 billion EUR from 2017 to 2022. The savings will be realized in three areas: customer and sales (improvement of sales performance and optimization of customer interface), vehicles (reduction of complexity and variety of products with faster R&D process), process and structure (optimization of indirect purchasing and material cost reduction) and cooperations (project-based cooperation and joint ventures) (Peter, 2019b; BMW Group, 2020).

The high degree of differentiation and cost efficiency result in growing brand value. Brand loyalty is built by a wide product portfolio and superior customer service support. Survival within the premium automotive segment depends on understanding the different needs of customers in global regions and the fast reaction to technology disruptions, changing social trends and customer preferences. Digital communication makes up about 80% of interaction between a company and premium customers, helping to better understand business environment, customer needs and to increase brand value (Interbrand, 2018). BMW brand has crucial importance for the company's business model and represents a very important strategic resource. The brand strategy relies on excellent products and mobility services, and clear customer focus, resulting in high brand value. Since the great recession, the value of the BMW brand has almost doubled, reaching a value of over 41 billion USD in 2019 (Interbrand, 2019). BMW brand value has been stagnating since 2016, while Mercedes brand value has been growing constantly in the same period, reaching 51 billion USD value in 2019, which could be a sign of a potential marketing weakness. BMW will have to increase their marketing investments if they want to challenge the leading position of the Mercedes brand in automotive industry.

Market Share Expansion as Leaders' Strategy in Premium Automotive Segment

Market share expansion is the third strategy used by market leaders. This strategy is realized through international acquisitions, formation

of strategic alliances, geographical expansion and improvement of distribution (Gilligan & Willson, 2009, p. 460).

In the previous period, the BMW Group acquired MINI and the Rolls-Royce brands. Through this acquisition the company penetrated into new market segments, expanded their product portfolio and increased its market share. With the MINI brand, the company entered the premium sub-segment of small, urban cars, while with the Rolls-Royce brand, the company gained competencies to compete in the sub-segment of super luxury brands such as Bentley and Maybach. Through these acquisitions, the company entered small, profitable sub-segments and acquired competencies necessary to reshape its business model (Christensen, Alton, Rising & Waldeck, 2011).

Strategic alliances have been used frequently in automotive industry to improve market position (Mlađan & Marković, 2019). They are used to deal with disruptive innovations, especially digital innovations, which threaten to endanger traditional players (Doz & Roover, 2019). Some companies do not have the necessary competencies to survive the industry restructuring, and therefore join forces to share the costs and risks of developing new technologies and know-how. Cooperation through strategic alliances often implies cooperation with direct competitors. At the end of 2019, BMW Group and Daimler AG formed a joint venture, thus joining their resources and competencies in the field of mobility services and autonomous driving. This cooperation is a response to looming late followers in the industry, stringent emissions regulations and changed customer preferences. The joint venture will improve the position of the two companies in global mobility service market, decrease R&D expenditures, boost development of new competencies, increase profitability and production agility (Daimler, 2019; Peter, 2019a).

At the beginning of the second decade of the 21st century, the BMW Group faced a high dependence on sales in Europe. In 2010, more than 54% of sales were realized in the domestic region, while the rest of sales was realized mainly in American region and China. The company applied a strategy of globalization - development of global products with minimal adjustments, targeting a small but profitable segment of the richest consumers, especially in emerging markets (Imelt, Govindarajan & Trimble, 2009). However, being aware that this approach has limitations, the company is striving for balanced delivery distribution worldwide. BMW has been applying a region-specific business strategy which results in significant growth in all regional markets (Krueger, 2019). The geographical expansion was primarily oriented towards growing Chinese market, which became the single most important market for the company. In 2019, the BMW Group realized 29% of sales in China, 43% in Europe and 18% in Americas (BMW Group, 2020).

The BMW Group entered Chinese market in 2003 through joint venture with Chinese partner Brilliance because Chinese government imposed 50% limits on foreign ownership in auto industry. The company constantly invests technology and design competencies, while the local partner provides low-cost production competencies and local marketing knowledge. This combination of competencies has enabled a successful implementation of a hybrid competitive strategy, which results in superior performance in Chinese market (Bingxin & Li, 2008).

Development and quality of dealer network have strong impact on competitive position in automotive market. In addition to the availability of dealer network, customer satisfaction is also influenced by sales experience and after-sales services quality. Enjoyable sales experiences and high quality after-sales service result in brand loyalty and attract new customers through a positive word of mouth (Chappell, 2019). According to J.D. Power 2019 U.S. Customer Service Index (CSI) Study, the quality of the BMW dealer network in the premium segment is at the bottom of the ranking list, behind direct competitors Mercedes and Audi (J.D. Power, 2019a). In order to deepen their relationships with customers, BMW established a new sales structure in 2019, where all automotive brands come together within one division. This way, customer-specific brand experience under one roof has been enabled (Krueger, 2019).

CONCLUSION

Auto industry faced considerable restructuring in the second decade of the 21st century. Disruptive innovations, financial crisis and changing customer preferences force auto companies to craft and execute new competitive strategies. The analysis within the paper argues that traditional competencies (agility, flexibility and efficiency) are not sufficient to create and sustain competitive advantage in technology intensive industries, such as automotive industry. The BMW case study is used to prove this statement.

BMW traditional competencies result in high productivity, quality improvement and low production costs. The company's lean production system is characterized by high capacity utilization, high flexibility and efficiency that enable the company to respond quickly to fluctuating and changing global demand. A key indicator of competitiveness within the automotive market is labor productivity. The paper findings indicate that since 2017, the BMW Group has been the leader in the premium segment in terms of productivity. In terms of quality of vehicles, J.D. Power 2019 U.S. Vehicle Dependability Study (VDS) showed that MINI and BMW surpassed German rivals Audi and Mercedes-Benz (J.D. Power, 2019b). Standardized processes and structures ensure consistent premium quality throughout the production system of the BMW Group. The introduction

of new modular platform has enabled the company to lower production costs, cut the development time of new models and the time needed to launch new products, to achieve economy of scale and scope and to enhance flexibility in plants. The platform has allowed the company to have a more diverse model range with more derivatives compared to main rivals. The BMW Group is developing new competencies in the field of digitalization (software competence in engineering, automation, data analytics, etc.). Digitalization contributes to the further improvement of traditional competencies in processes and development of new products. The digitalization of processes has increased supply chain efficiency.

Premium carmakers have successfully expanded their business operations beyond traditional premium segment. They have developed smaller, differentiated models in higher price ranges for mass market, offering affordable luxury products for customers with middle income. Brand extension in mass market enables premium producers to achieve economy of scale and compliance with stricter emission standards, without compromising brand value and profit margins. In 2019, small BMW models Series 1, Series 2 and MINI cars accounted for 25% of BMW Group global sales (BMW Group, 2019), while Mercedes A and B class made 22% of Mercedes Benz Cars global sale (Daimler, 2019).

Due to radical changes in business environment leaders in the premium automotive segment have to develop new technologies (ACES) and apply a customer-oriented approach to sustain competitive advantage. Digital disruption and electrification drive premium customers demand. The BMW Group demonstrates its technological and innovation leadership in products, processes and mobility services. Additionally, it has capabilities to satisfy the changing customers' preferences. The company has been proactive and heavily invests in technologies which shape the industry.

The BMW Group is transforming from a traditional car manufacturer into a leading tech company for premium mobility. Cooperation with other auto manufacturers and ITC partners enable BMW to offer high quality vehicles and mobility services. To maintain technology leadership, the company invests significantly in R&D excellence which is the key to long-term business success. BMW competitive advantage is built on strong brand and understanding of customers' needs, excellent products (hardware) and high-quality mobility services (software).

Excellent and innovative design underlines focus on customers' needs and enhances brand value. BMW has been working with Daimler AG on the development of autonomous vehicles and has made significant breakthrough in this area. The company has invested more in connectivity technologies because it is expected that connectivity will be a switching factor for premium customers. BMW has revolutionized driving pleasure with the BMW Intelligent Personal Assistant and Connected

Drive services installed in more than 10 million vehicles (BMW Group Annual Report, 2018).

Strong global demand, stringent CO₂ regulations and changing premium customer preferences drive electrification in auto industry. This is a great opportunity for the BMW Group to increase global market share in this automotive segment. The BMW Group is focused on the systematic electrification of all brands and models, which will enhance vehicle performance as a premium differentiator. The company has competencies to independently develop and produce battery cells, electric drivetrain and high-voltage system for electric cars (Krueger, 2019). In 2019 BMW had 14% of EU electrified vehicle market, while its main rivals, Mercedes and Audi, lag significantly behind BMW in electric vehicles development, which resulted in their negligible market share, 3% and 4% respectively (BMW Group, 2020b). These companies have not valued the importance of investment in new technologies in the same manner, so they are transforming from traditional car manufacturers into high-tech companies with different pace and success. The paper revealed that flexible pioneers which heavily invest in electrified vehicles outperformed direct competitors in this small but growing market segment.

Despite uncertain and competitive global business environment BMW has managed to remain the market leader in the premium segment. The BMW Group increased its share in global passenger car market from 2.95% in 2007 to 3.95% in 2019 (BMW Group Annual Report, 2009; BMW Group Annual Report, 2019; OICA, 2020). The company gains and sustains competitive advantage by combining M&A growth strategy (MINI, Rolls-Royce) and the hybrid focus strategy. BMW turned the radical transformation in automotive industry into an opportunity, reshaped competitive strategy and increased market share with a balanced delivery distribution worldwide.

BMW is facing new challenges in 2020. The Covid-19 pandemic has caused a global economic crisis resulting in the plunge in the demand in auto market. It is hard to predict how long the crisis will last and what the consequences will be, so the auto companies have to be prepared even for the worst scenario. Only financially healthy and innovative auto companies, such as the BMW Group, will survive this crisis without a government's bailout.

The paper is the starting point for further research about leaders in the premium automotive market. Collecting data from potential customers in developed and emerging markets, further research could examine what are the customers' main motives to buy premium vehicles and how the customers value premium auto companies' competitive strategies.

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КОНКУРЕНТСКЕ СТРАТЕГИЈЕ НА ПРЕМИЈУМ АУТО-СЕКМЕНТУ

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Резиме

Истраживања о конкурентским стратегијама су бројна, али је веома мали број истраживања која настоје да утврде перформансе конкурентских стратегија на премијум сегменту ауто-тржишта. Овај рад анализира одговор премијум ауто-компанија на промене у пословном окружењу. Методологија истраживања заснована је на студији случаја BMW Group, која је лидер на премијум ауто-сегменту. Да би се доказале истраживачке хипотезе, у раду су коришћени подаци из годишњих извештаја и презентација намењених инвеститорима BMW Group, Daimler и Audi, уз комбиновање са подацима професионалних асоцијација и специјализованих институција као што су OICA, J.D. Power, Interbrand, PWC и McKinsey&Company.

Ауто-индустрија се налази у периоду брзе и радикалне трансформације, што је последица дисруптивних иновација, оштре глобалне конкуренције и промене преференција премијум купаца. Претходна истраживања наглашавају значај стратегије диференцијације као основе за стицање и одржавање конкурентске предности на премијум ауто-сегменту и истичу да је могуће конкурентску предност остварити само путем чистих стратегија (диференцирање или ниски трошкови). Резултати овог истраживања показују да стратегија тржишног лидера на премијум аутомобилском сегменту мора бити заснована на истовременој примени стратегије диференцирања и ниских трошкова, тј. хибридној стратегији фокуса. У раду је показано да компаније комбиновањем традиционалних и нових компетенција, које се одnose на развој нових технологија (ACES), и са фокусом на потребе купаца могу истовремено остварити диференцирање и ниске трошкове. У том смислу, закључено је да ће лидери на премијум ауто-сегменту морати да се трансформишу из класичних произвођача у високотехнолошке компаније, које поред производа нуде и врхунске услуге мобилности.

Студија случаја на примеру компаније BMW Group подржала је горенаведене ставове. Компанија је самостално или кроз партнерства осмислила иновације у области дигитализације, које су искоришћене како би се унапредила ефикасност процеса производње, али и да би се производи додатно прилагодили потребама купаца. Иновације у области електрификације возила развијају се како би се производи додатно диференцирали, али и како би се одговорило на поштрвавање регулативе у области екологије. Лидерска позиција компаније је доказана највећим тржишним учешћем на премијум аутомобилском сегменту, највећом продуктивношћу рада и иновативношћу у областима које ће дефинисати развој ауто-индустрије у будућности. Лидерска позиција је преточена у јаке финансијске перформансе, које су основа за значајна будућа улагања у истраживање, развој и маркетинг-активности.

SERBIA'S APPROACH TO CHINA'S SILK ROAD: OPPORTUNITIES AND RISKS

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Abstract

When China introduced the strategy for the new Silk Road in 2013, it had once again affirmed its position as a global leader and defined future direction in its foreign policy and economic development. As one of the most ambitious projects ever, once fully implemented, the new Silk Road will connect markets in Asia, Middle East, Africa and Europe, strengthen cooperation between countries and boost international trade flows.

This paper analyzes the importance of the new Silk Road for economies along its corridors, as well as the impact on Serbia's economic development. It examines China's investment model in Serbia, sectors with the largest volume of investment and the potential risks that developing countries could face through the implementation of BRI projects. The review also evaluates the attractiveness of the Serbian market and its role in the BRI vision in the Western Balkans. Preliminary research indicates that investments from China in recent years have had a positive impact on Serbia's economic development. It is anticipated that further enhancement of investment relations between Serbia and China may have a wider impact not only on the realization of BRI goals in Serbia, but also in Europe, considering Serbia's geographical position and the potential to bring Chinese companies closer to the EU market.

Key words: Silk Road, Belt and Road, China Serbia cooperation, 16+1, BRI.

ПРИСТУП СРБИЈЕ КИНЕСКОМ ПУТУ СВИЛЕ: ШАНСЕ И РИЗИЦИ

Апстракт

Када је 2013. године представила стратегију новог Пута свиле, Кина је још једном потврдила позицију глобалног лидера и дефинисала правце будућег економског и политичког деловања. Као један од најамбициознијих пројеката икада представљених у свету, када се у потпуности буде реализовао, Пут свиле повеза-

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ће тржишта Азије, Блиског истока, Африке и Европе, ојачати сарадњу између земаља и интензивирати међународне трговинске токове. Овај рад анализира значај Пута свиле за економије земаља дуж коридора, као и значај за економски развој Републике Србије. Фокусира се на модел инвестирања Кине у Србији, секторе са највећим приливом инвестиција, те указује на потенцијалне ризике са којима се могу суочити земље у развоју приликом реализације пројекта Пута свиле. Атрактивност српског тржишта, као и улога у реализацији Пута свиле на Западном Балкану такође су предмет ове анализе.

Прелиминарна истраживања показују да су инвестиције из Кине последњих година имале позитиван утицај на привредни развој Републике Србије. Очекује се да ће даље унапређење инвестиционих односа Србије и Кине утицати не само на реализацију циљева Пута свиле у Србији већ и шире, у Европи, с обзиром на географску позицију Србије и потенцијал у приближавању кинеских компанија тржишту Европске уније.

Кључне речи: Пут свиле, сарадња Србије и Кине, 16+1.

INTRODUCTION

The New Silk Road is one of the most complex and most ambitious projects ever implemented globally. While its principal objective is to strengthen the Chinese economy and its role in international economic and political affairs, one of the key characteristics of this project is the importance for the global economy, i.e. for economies of those countries that are located along its corridors. This paper examines the New Silk Road in terms of its strategy, geographical coverage, risks and impact on global economic flows, as well as on the economies of Western Balkan countries, i.e. the Republic of Serbia ("Serbia"), as one of the key Chinese partners in this initiative. The aim of this study is to establish how this initiative will be implemented in Serbia and to analyze the correlation between foreign direct investments ("FDI") from China and Serbia's GDP.

The research seeks to address the following research questions:

- To what extent the New Silk Road will affect the global economy and the development of countries along its corridors?
- Why is this Project particularly relevant for Serbia and how will it affect its economic development?
- What is China's model of investment in Serbia and which industry sectors register the highest FDI inflows?
- What makes Serbian market particularly important for the New Silk Road, considering significantly higher volume of Chinese investments in Serbia, compared to other Western Balkan countries?

Preliminary analysis indicates that in 2019, in comparison to previous years, a significant inflow of foreign direct investments from China was recorded, whereby the New Silk Road could be considered as one of the key drivers of these investments.

Although every investment, irrespective of its origin, is important for economic growth, investments from China, especially in the post pan-

demographic period, could be of crucial importance for the development of Serbia considering China's economic strength and goals within the New Silk Road. One purpose of this study is to assess the correlation between foreign direct investments from China and Serbia's GDP by means of correlation analysis.

The analysis conducted in this paper entails testing the following hypothesis:

- H1: Alongside infrastructure development, which will enhance connection with other regional markets, accession to this initiative will also increase exports of Serbian products to the Chinese market;
- H2: There is a strong linear relationship between FDI from China and Serbia's GDP.

The analysis of the New Silk Road initiative and its importance for the global economy, and Serbian economy in particular, focuses on the review of available literature and the utilization of primarily secondary data sources. It examines papers published by international think tanks, organizations such as the World Bank, Economic Parliament and IBDR, as well as academic databases. The analysis of Silk Road projects and other Chinese investments in Serbia uses data from publicly available sources, such as the websites of the Serbian Ministry of Infrastructure, Construction and Transport and the Center for Strategic and International Studies. Statistical analysis of key macroeconomic and foreign trade indicators between Serbia and China relies on available sources from the Central Bank of Serbia and the World Bank databases. The main contribution of this study is in the analysis of Chinese investments in Serbia within the Silk Road initiative and the emphasis on key risks that countries along the Silk Road corridors could face by lending from Chinese banks, as well as on the analysis of the positive impact of these investments on their economies.

The *One Belt One Road* or *The New Silk Road* initiative was introduced by the Chinese government in 2013, with the aim of strengthening cooperation between countries in Asia, Africa, Middle East and Europe, by promoting investments in the field of infrastructure (roads, railways, ports), information and communication technologies, energy and other industry sectors. It is estimated that 2/3 of the world's population lives along the Silk Road corridors (Ghossein et al., 2018, p.4). Currently, over 125 countries have joined this initiative (Raiser & Ruta, 2019); based on further MoUs with China, more countries are expected to join this project which, to a certain extent, represents an upgrade of the ancient Silk Road - once a network of trade routes that connected Asia and Europe. The idea of the Chinese government was to implement this project through six land economic corridors (The World Bank Group, 2019, p.3):

1. China - Mongolia - Russia;
2. New Eurasian land bridge;
3. China-Central Asia-West Asia;
4. China - Indochina Peninsula;
5. China - Pakistan;
6. Bangladesh - China - India - Myanmar.

The New Silk Road encompasses two main routes: the Silk Road Economic Belt and the New Maritime Silk Road. The first, land route, stretches from China, through Central and South Asia to Europe, while the maritime route begins in China, passes through Southeast Asia, Middle East, East and North Africa, to Europe, where both routes end (Figure 1).



Figure 1. The New Silk Road

Source: The Italian Institute for International Political Studies (2017)

THE NEW SILK ROAD: OBJECTIVES, IMPACT ON GLOBAL ECONOMY, INVESTMENT VALUE AND ASSOCIATED RISKS

Objectives of the New Silk Road

The New Silk Road aims to foster China's integration into global economic flows, its diplomatic relations with countries along the corridors, accelerate its economic growth and enable China to become a key player on the international economic and political scene. The Project intends to enhance cooperation between countries in Asia, Africa and Europe in five major areas: financial integration, labor exchange, infrastructure development, policy coordination and trade promotion through the removal of trade barriers (ISPI, 2017, pp.13-24). Aside from infrastructure development, the New Silk Road proposes the establishment of free

trade zones, technological and industrial parks and media cooperation (Hoffman, 2015). One of the objectives concerns the development of Chinese conglomerates that specialize in critical infrastructure, electricity, information and communication technologies (Rolland, 2017, p.104). The New Silk Road also focuses on advancements in science, cultural exchange in education, sport, tourism and other fields, and on the internationalization of the Chinese currency renminbi, which is increasingly being used in Chinese loans within the New Silk Road (ISPI, 2017, p.125).

The completion of Silk Road projects is expected to improve logistic channels and trade between China and Europe, enable balanced development within China (reduce development gaps in urban and rural areas), and create alternative routes for oil and gas supply from Central & Southeast Asia and Pakistan (Steer Davies Gleave, 2018, p.15). By means of available economic, technological and political resources, China aspires to create a stable environment for its long-term development and further expand export markets for its products. Countries in Europe, currently outside of the European Union could allow China to invest under less strict rules than those insisted on by the European Union in terms of environmental standards, anti-dumping measures and public tender rules (Barisitz & Radzyner, 2017, p.3).

Several EU member states have also expressed interest in joining this ambitious project, which could change the overall economic and geopolitical relations in the world. An interesting example is Italy, one of the founding members of the European Union, where sympathies towards China are growing in the post-pandemic period, and support for the EU membership is declining. China has already invested in several European ports - Piraeus, Rotterdam, Genoa, Valencia and Bilbao (and signed the MOU with the Port of Trieste), which could be of great importance for the development of the western part of the New Silk Road (NPR, 2018; Belt and Road News, 2019b).

The New Silk Road strategy focuses on several strategic priorities with a view to strengthen the Chinese economy and influence in international economic and political relations (Baker McKenzie, 2017, p.6):

- support the *Go Global* strategy (by promoting China as a global leader and enhancing cooperation with other countries in the world);
- increase export of Chinese products in markets along the corridors;
- modernize Chinese industry (by exposing Chinese companies to global markets, employing foreign labor and greater transparency);
- strengthen China's geo-political role in Asia and Europe;
- reduce excess supply in Chinese industry (*during the global financial crisis, the Chinese government prepared a package of measures to strengthen the economy which, among other things,*

created huge surplus in many industry sectors, particularly in the steel industry (Cai, 2017, p.12));

- strengthen the role of renminbi in the world (by creating a network of offshore renminbi clearing centers) (Rolland, 2017, p.105).

Impact on the Global Economy and the Development of Countries along the Corridors

The New Silk Road transport corridors aim to promote the exchange of goods that will positively impact international trade, exports, foreign direct investments and the standard of living, but will, at the same time, present a challenge for underdeveloped and developing countries, considering huge capital investments needed for project implementation.

According to the World Bank (2019, p.5), the implementation of these projects is expected to reduce transportation costs by 12% and logistics time by 3%, with the most significant impact on the production of fresh food and other time-sensitive sectors. Also, it is estimated that international trade flows will increase by 2.8% - 9.7% in countries along the corridors and 1.7% - 6.2% in other countries, which may lead to an increase in real income in the world by 0.7% - 2.9%. Furthermore, it is expected that foreign direct investments will increase by 7.6% in low-income countries and 3.4% -7.5% in other economies along the corridors. The New Silk Road projects could improve standard of living and lift 39.6 million people out of extreme and moderate poverty in countries along the corridors.

Lastly, due to transportation cost decrease and infrastructure building, countries along the corridors may witness an increase in exports by about 10%.

The largest in terms of population, but also in terms of increasing purchasing power, the Chinese market will become more accessible to European and Asian producers. This is particularly important concerning the recession brought by the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. Exports to China, but also imports from China accompanied by foreign direct investments, are a desirable scenario in the post-pandemic period.

Risks Associated with the New Silk Road

Implementation of large infrastructure projects is often associated with various economic and legal risks, due to the value of investments, length of loan repayment, source of financing and in less developed countries, due to insufficiently strong legal framework to safeguard against these risks. Silk Road projects are particularly vulnerable to these risks, given the level of economic development of certain countries along the corridors.

One of the main risks often highlighted in literature relates to debt sustainability, as several examples have shown that certain countries have been unable to repay their loans and had to subsequently apply measures contrary to the national interest.¹ Large infrastructure projects may also be exposed to corruption risks and abuse in public procurement. The corruption perception level varies from country to country along the corridors, depending on the strength of national institutions and legal regulations. Based on the Corruption Perceptions Index, it is estimated that the perception in countries along the corridors is higher than the world average, and the highest in countries with low and medium-low incomes (The World Bank Group, 2019, p.109). Therefore, it is necessary to ensure transparency in public procurement and continuous monitoring of all project phases. Some of the criticisms with regard to Chinese concessional loans for infrastructure projects relate to the incompatibility with EU norms and regulations on public tenders, non-transparency and non-disclosure of contractual elements, as well as insufficiently competitive bidding processes (Grieger, 2018, p.7). One of the risks lies in the fact that more than 60% of work on those projects is performed by Chinese companies (Ghossein et al, 2018, p.5), which discourages domestic companies and local labor. According to the World Bank analysis (2019, p.7), certain corridors pass through areas with the heightened risks of flooding, landslides, degradation and deforestation, and certain projects do not provide high standards of protection against carbon dioxide emissions, which increases environmental pollution risks.

Apart from the aforementioned risks for countries involved in Silk Road projects, there are certain risks that China itself and its investors are exposed to. Many Silk Road projects are executed in countries with insufficiently developed legal systems for investor protection and contractual rights, in countries with political and economic challenges and high indebtedness rates. China also faces risks related to economic viability of projects, that are financed by Chinese banks, and challenges in loan repayment by economically less developed countries often requiring renegotiation of contractual terms, deferred payment or conversion of debt into other forms of claims, which, due to the accumulation of non-performing loans, brings into question the financial sustainability and future financing of the New Silk Road (Asia Global Online, 2019). Given that infrastructure projects in Serbia are mainly financed by Chinese

¹ Due to debt repayment problems, Sri Lanka, for example, had to cede a strategically important port in the Indian Ocean to China as part of a loan repayment agreement (Abi-Habib, *The New York Times*, 2018). On the other hand, a project to finance the reconstruction of a highway in Montenegro that would connect the port of Bar with Serbia, per initial feasibility studies could not be justified due to insufficient traffic, and difficulties related to rising project costs, currency instability and insufficient hedging ultimately led to rising debt levels and issues in loan repayment (Barkin, & Vasovic, *Reuters*, 2018)

loans, due to the slow economic activity in 2020 caused by the current COVID-19 pandemic, as well as unprofitability of infrastructure projects until the last phase, Serbia may face challenges in repaying these loans and further projects execution.

The year of 2020 is marked by the COVID-19 pandemic and it is questionable how the pandemic will affect the implementation of the projects already initiated, as well as whether or not China will continue to focus on infrastructure projects or redirect to other sectors that may become more dominant in the post-pandemic period. The pandemic has greatly affected global economy and disrupted the movement of people, goods, capital and distribution channels. It is estimated that in the post pandemic period, there will certainly be changes in the supply chain, project dynamics and possibly greater share of private capital in project financing, as China may face uncollectible claims due to loan repayment issues by certain governments (Baker McKenzie, 2020, pp.2-3). Another possible consequence of the pandemic relates to the distribution of material and equipment to project sites, as well as the future engagement of Chinese workers outside of China, considering travel restrictions and supply chain disruptions (Chaziza, 2020).

Due to the slowdown in business activities, there may be some delays in issuing permits for new projects, too. Reduced economic activities and financial difficulties in debt servicing could jeopardize the economic viability of projects and lead to the possibility of China shifting to health and e-commerce projects in the coming period under two initiatives: Digital Silk Road and Health Silk Road, the former focusing on strengthening cooperation between countries in the field of digital technologies and the latter in the field of health (Pitlo, 2020). The nature of the pandemic has promoted the need to invest in Information and Communication Technologies, i.e. Artificial Intelligence, in order to effectively monitor the spread of the virus and enable business and private communication, but also the need to invest in the health sector due to challenges in treatment, procurement of medical equipment and drugs in virus suppression.

It is estimated that in the future, due to unsettled debts, China may either take ownership of certain Silk Road projects or simply write off debts in favor of its foreign policy goals (The Guardian, 2020). As far as Serbia is concerned, the consequences of the pandemic relate to project dynamics due to inability of Chinese workers and experts to visit Serbia as well as the transportation of equipment and materials from China. A significant decline in visits by Chinese tourists is expected in 2020, which will certainly affect the Serbian tourism sector.

Lastly, the Silk Road initiative is to be considered a long-term process that could be affected by circumstances currently unforeseeable, such as, for example, the pandemic. However, given that the realization of this project

would certainly change global geopolitical relations, one of the risks to consider are the activities of those global players who do not endorse China getting closer to Russia, Europe, Middle East and Africa. Hence this project is perceived as a recomposition of economic and political relations in the world. But it also touches upon the foundation of some of the oldest geopolitical theories, such as Halford Mackinder's "heart land" theory, whose postulates explain the outbreak of a number of war conflicts.

Investment Value and Financing Methods

The New Silk Road initiative is predominantly financed by the four largest Chinese state owned banks: Industrial & Commercial Bank of China (ICBC), China Construction Bank (CCB), Agricultural Bank of China (ABC) and Bank of China (BOC), two institutional banks: China Development Bank and Export Import Bank of China, and the Silk Road Fund (Belt & Road News, 2019a). Chinese loans to low-income countries are generally granted with an interest rate of 2%, grace period of 6 years, maturity of 20 years, and are based on inter-governmental agreements and issuance of government guarantees (The World Bank Group, 2019, p.98; Grieger, 2018, p.7).

The World Bank (2019, pp.37-38) estimates that the project value in 70 countries that have joined this initiative is about \$575 billion in all sectors, planned or executed, most of which in the field of energy (46%) and transport & logistics (25%). It is estimated that 2/3 of these funds is intended to finance projects in East Asia and the Pacific (34%), Europe and Central Asia (25%).

THE NEW SILK ROAD IN SOUTHEAST EUROPE

The "16 + 1" Initiative

Notwithstanding the fact that Europe is the end point of both land and sea routes of the New Silk Road, not all countries in Europe are equally and strategically important for this project and on the radar of Chinese investors. The 16 + 1 framework was created in 2012 with the aim of connecting and strengthening cooperation between China and countries in Central, East and Southeast Europe. It includes 11 countries currently members of the European Union (Bulgaria, Poland, the Czech Republic, Romania, Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Slovenia and Slovakia) and 5 countries that are not (Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Northern Macedonia, Montenegro and Albania).

The 16 + 1 framework aims to strengthen trade relations between China and these countries, and accelerate their economic growth through investments in energy, transport, science, education, agriculture, tourism and culture. The dialogue usually involves a discussion at the state level, followed by negotiations at lower government levels, after which the financing negotiations takes place, usually through China Development Bank or China EXIM Bank. Chinese banks often finance up to 85% of the project value and the rest is financed by countries that implement these projects (Dirlewanger-Lücke, 2018, pp.3-6).

Mediterranean countries are particularly important for the New Silk Road, specifically Greece, as the key point on the maritime corridor. One of the largest projects in Europe concerns the takeover of the Greek port of Piraeus by China Ocean Shipping Company (COSCO), through which China positions its products in Central and Southeast European markets (ISPI, 2017, pp.112-113). Since 2016, COSCO has been the majority shareholder in the port of Piraeus (67%), and today, this port is one of the most important routes and entry points for Chinese goods reaching the 16 markets, considering that the transportation time from China to Europe has decreased by about a week and a half. Within the 16 + 1 format, another also significant investment relates to the reconstruction of the Belgrade-Budapest railway, worth around USD 1.9 billion, contracted in 2013 and financed by the China's EXIM Bank. It is expected that upon the completion of this project, the transportation time between the two cities will decrease from 8 to 2.4h (Barisitz & Radzyner, 2017, p.6).

The New Silk Road in the Western Balkans

In recent years, there has been an increase in investments from China and cultural exchange in the Western Balkans, due to an important role of this region in the implementation of Silk Road projects. The influx of Chinese investments in the Western Balkans has had a positive effect on economies that have long been stagnant, had high unemployment rates, numerous political challenges and underdeveloped infrastructure. The Western Balkans is considered an important entry point for Chinese products into the EU market as it lies at the crossroads of Southeast Europe, it is located on important river and road routes and an important transport corridor connecting the Mediterranean with Central Europe passes through its area.

Chinese loans with favorable terms allow Western Balkan countries to obtain the necessary funds to finance expensive and complex projects, diversify financing, revive economies and implement strategic, infrastructure projects without the need for the EU funds. However, the World Bank and the IMF warn that concessional loans approved by Chinese financial institutions could create great dependence on China in countries in Central and Southeast

Europe (Bastian, 2017a). This region is important for China as it provides political support concerning China's international affairs and interesting investment opportunities (ISPI, 2017, p.111).

Since 2009, China has begun to considerably invest in the Western Balkans (the highest percentage of investments has been observed in Serbia), with the most significant investments in the field of construction/reconstruction of roads, railways, bridges and thermal power plants. Despite the fact that Chinese loans are of great importance for the region that seeks to attract foreign direct investments and accelerate economic growth, the potential inability to repay debts and the unprofitability of projects in the long run, as well as lower percentage of FDI compared to concessional loans, could create great financial dependence on China and debt overload (Bastian, 2017b, p.23).

Within the Western Balkans, the Balkan Silk Road refers to the route that connects the Greek port of Piraeus and Budapest, where containers with Chinese goods arriving in the port of Piraeus, via Northern Macedonia and Serbia, are transported to Hungary, i.e. the European Union market.

Chinese Investments in Serbia

Bilateral relations with the People's Republic of China were established in January 1955 and enhanced in 2009, when the countries signed the Strategic Partnership Agreement. China, as one of the four pillars of Serbian diplomacy (besides America, Russia and the EU), has a special position in Serbia's international relations; in recent years, there has been a significant increase in Chinese investments in Serbia, as a result of well-developed bilateral relations. The Strategic Partnership Agreement from 2009 resulted in a series of Memoranda of Cooperation and Agreements, in the fields of infrastructure, energy, culture, etc.

Chinese investments in Serbia are mainly focused on the metal and automotive industry, transport, mining and energy. In 2017, Bank of China opened a branch in Belgrade, with the aim of contributing to the realization of Silk Road projects in Serbia.

Chinese investments are particularly important for the Serbian economy, due to limited access to the EU funds for large infrastructure projects and also for the implementation of a set of economic development goals. However, China should not be considered as an alternative to the EU, but as a distinct strategic partner, since the EU is the key foreign trade partner of Serbia. According to the National Bank of Serbia, in 2019, the inflow of FDIs from the European Union accounted for 51.66% of the total FDI inflows, while the FDI inflows from China amounted to 5.5%. (NBS)

Likewise, the Serbian market provides certain benefits for the realization of Silk Road projects, due to its geographical position, the visa regime with China and connectivity, as it has free trade agreements with Russia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, EFTA, CEFTA and Turkey (Figure 2). By investing in the Serbian mining sector, China realizes the need for zinc and copper, required for the production of electric vehicles (New Energy Vehicle Sector-NEV), i.e. batteries for electric cars, trucks and buses (Bastian, 2019, p.16).

The key comparative advantages of Serbia for strengthening economic cooperation with China include (Dimitrijević, 2018, p.58):

- relative macroeconomic stability;
- stable banking sector;
- visa liberalization with China;
- highly qualified labor;
- developed telecommunication infrastructure.

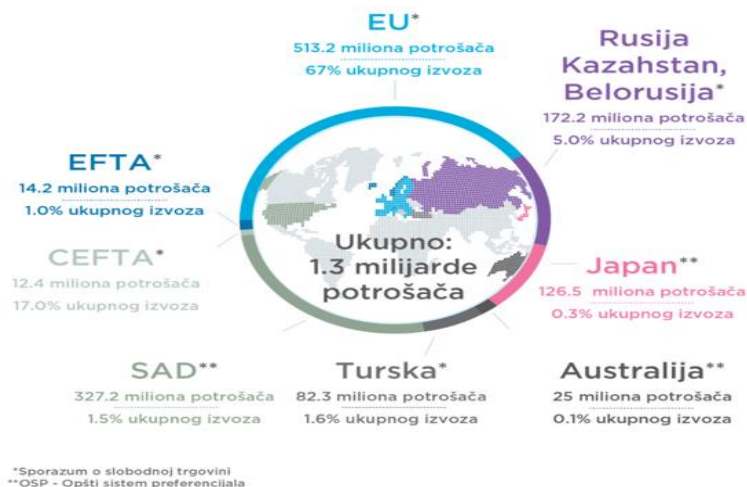


Figure 2. Free Trade Agreements between Serbia and specific countries/organizations

Source: Development Agency of Serbia

In addition, Serbia has a favorable geographical position (it is located at the "crossroads of Europe"), provides the opportunity to operate within free zones (currently 15 active zones) and allows free access to the market of over 1.3 billion consumers through free trade agreements or the general preferential system (Development Agency of Serbia).

	Year	Project	Investor	Investment value	Sector	Source of financing
1	2016 & 2018	Reconstruction of the Belgrade-Budapest railway	China Communication Construction Company, China Railway Intl.	Belgrade-Stara Pazova 350 mil. USD Novi Sad-Subotica 943 mil USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China
2	2013	Corridor XI- Obrenovac -Ub, Lajkovac-Ljig	Shandong Hi Speed Group	334 mil. USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China (301 mil.USD), Republic of Serbia (33 mil. USD)
3	2016	Belgrade bypass road, B (4,5,6)	Synohidro	225,6 mil. USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China (85%), Republic of Serbia
4	2012 & 2017	Thermal power plant Kostolac	China Machinery Engineering Corporation	I phase- 344 mil. USD II phase - 715 mil. USD	energy	Loan-EXIM Bank China (85%), Republic of Serbia (15%)
5	2010	Pupin's Bridge	China Road and Bridge Corporation	255 mil. USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China (85%), Republic of Serbia (15%)
6	2019	Industrial park Borca	China Road and Bridge Corporation	247 mil. USD	-	Loan-EXIM Bank China, China Development Bank, China Construction Bank
7	2019	Corridor XI - New Belgrade-Surčin	China Communication Construction Company	70,5 mil. USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China, Republic of Serbia
8	2016	Corridor XI- Surčin - Obrenovac	China Communication Construction Company	233,7 mil.USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China, Republic of Serbia
9	2017	Corridor XI - Preljina - Požega	China Communication Construction Company	450 mil. USD	transport	Loan-EXIM Bank China, Republic of Serbia
10	2016	Steel Mill Smederevo (Železara Smederevo)	HBIS Group	46 mil. USD	Metal industry	investment
11	2019	Tyre factory, Zrenjanin	Shandong Linglong Tire Co Ltd	994 mil. USD	Tyre industry	investment
12	2015	Memory foam factory Ruma	HealthCare Europe	54 mil. USD	Textile industry	investment
13	2016 & 2019	Car components factory Obrenovac	Mei Ta	160 mil. USD	Auto industry	investment
14	2018	RTB Bor	Zijin Mining Group Company Limited	1, 26 mlrd USD	Mining	investment
15	2019	Car components factory Loznica	Minth Automotive Europe	105 mil. USD	Auto industry	investment
16	2016	Socks manufacturing factory Čuprija	Eurofiber	1,05 mil. USD	Garment industry	investment
17	2019	Automotive interiors factory	Yanfeng Automotive Interiors	n/a	Auto industry	investment

Figure 3 -The most prominent projects funded by the People's Republic of China for the period of 2010-2019. Sources: Ministry of Construction, Transport and Infrastructure of the Republic of Serbia, Center for Strategic and International Studies and Serbian newspapers

Figure 3 illustrates some of the most prominent projects with China, by value or strategic importance. Although it does not include all projects financed by China, and indicated investment values represent only initial or planned, but not necessarily final values, total investments for the period 2010-2019 exceeded USD 6.8 billion, majority of which were financed by Chinese banking loans for infrastructure projects.

FOREIGN TRADE EXCHANGE WITH CHINA AND CORRELATION BETWEEN FDI FROM CHINA AND SERBIA'S GDP

Since 2009, when Serbia and China signed the Strategic Partnership Agreement, there has been an increase in the volume of trade between the two countries. In 2019, compared to 2009, total import of goods from China doubled, and China is now Serbia's third largest import partner. During the same period, exports of Serbian products to the Chinese market increased from 9 to 329 million dollars. As illustrated in Figures 4 & 5, trade balance records a significant trade deficit, which has doubled since 2009.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Import	1 135 316 185	1 202 476 189	1 488 491 950	1 385 477 723	1 509 567 668	1 561 097 177	1 540 212 151	1 603 040 574	1 819 442 633	2 167 522 275	2 507 661 579
Export	8 954 988	7 258 518	15 257 557	19 767 808	9 119 188	14 205 682	20 245 161	25 269 209	62 158 134	91 725 289	329 168 696

Figure 4. Foreign trade exchange between Serbia and China between 2009-2019 (USD) Source: UN Comtrade Database

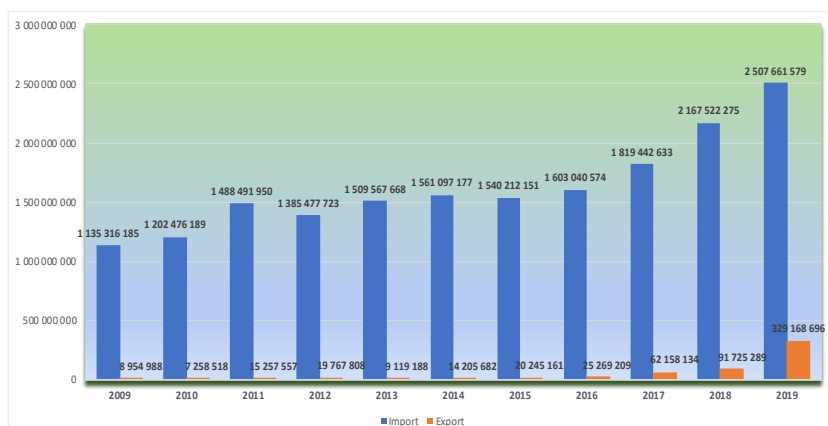


Figure 5. Foreign trade between Serbia and China between 2009-2019 (USD) Source: UN Comtrade Database

In the last three years, the most prominent export products to China were: wood, electronic equipment and electrical appliances, nuclear reactors, and copper and copper products. In 2019, copper and copper product export reached USD 263.5 million. Compared to the previous

year, when copper exports amounted to USD 23.6 million, a significant increase in export value could be attributed to the takeover of "RTB Bor" by the Chinese Zijin Mining Group in 2018. When it comes to imports, in the last three years, electronic equipment and electrical devices were the most prominent import goods from China, worth around USD 1.57 billion (Figure 6).

Year	Export	Value (mil. USD)	Import	Value (mil. USD)
2017	wood and articles of wood	24.9	electrical, electronic equipment	424.7
	nuclear reactors, machinery	18.7	other commodities	334.5
	electrical, electronic equipment	7.5	nuclear reactors, machinery	305.5
2018	wood and articles of wood	30	electrical, electronic equipment	532.6
	copper and articles thereof	23.6	nuclear reactors, machinery	350.7
	nuclear reactors, machinery	16.3	other commodities	323.6
2019	copper and articles thereof	263.5	electrical, electronic equipment	612.3
	wood and articles of wood	25.4	nuclear reactors, machinery	426.6
	nuclear reactors, machinery	11	other commodities	397.9

Figure 6. Overview of the key import and export commodities to/from China between 2017-2019.

Source: UN Comtrade Database

Analysis of the Relationship between Foreign Direct Investment from China and Serbia's GDP

Despite relatively modest foreign direct investments from China compared to Serbia's total FDI inflows, a significant increase in FDIs from China has been observed for the past five years, with the most significant increase in the past two years, which could be attributed to the growing volume of investments within the New Silk Road initiative (Figures 7 & 8). Foreign direct investments, in general, have positive effects on economies, as they stimulate production and exports, and in the case of Serbia, some of the examples of these effects relate to Chinese investments in "Zelezara Smederevo", which is currently Serbia's largest exporter, and "RTB Bor", which is among the top 10 Serbian exporters.

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Total FDI inflows	1 278,4	3 544,5	1 008,8	1 547,9	1 500,5	2 114,2	2 126,9	2 548,1	3 464,5	3 825,0
FDI inflows from China	2,0	6,0	1,0	-0,4	82,5	24,1	69,5	103,5	191,8	210,1

Figure 7. Overview of total FDI inflows in Serbia between 2010-2019 and FDI inflows from China (in million EUR)

Source: NBS



Figure 8. Total FDI inflows in 2009-2018, in billions of dollars

Source: World Bank

For the purpose of analyzing the interdependence of FDI from China and Serbia's GDP, we herein apply correlation analysis for the period of 2010 - 2019 ($n = 10$), using values of FDI from China and Serbia's GDP for the past 10 years (Figure 9). Correlation analysis evaluates the direction and strength of the relationship between two attributes (bivariate analysis).

Year	FDI from China (mil. EUR) X	GDP (mil. EUR) Y	XY	X ²	Y ²
2010	2.0	31,545.8	63,091.7	4.0	995,140,135.5
2011	6.0	35,431.7	212,590.1	36.0	1,255,403,760.0
2012	1.0	33,679.3	33,679.3	1.0	1,134,292,973.6
2013	-0.4	36,426.7	-14,570.7	0.2	1,326,902,720.0
2014	82.5	35,467.5	2,926,067.3	6,806.3	1,257,942,291.5
2015	24.1	35,715.5	860,744.7	580.8	1,275,600,358.3
2016	69.5	36,723.1	2,552,252.2	4,830.3	1,348,582,631.6
2017	103.5	39,183.3	4,055,468.0	10,712.3	1,535,328,330.3
2018	191.8	42,855.5	8,219,683.5	36,787.2	1,836,593,262.0
2019	210.1	45,908.0	9,645,265.4	44,142.0	2,107,542,082.8
Σ	690.1	372,936.3	28,554,271.4	103,900.0	14,073,328,545.4

Figure 9. FDI inflows from China and Serbia's GDP between 2010-2019.

Source: NBS / Trading Economics

The correlation coefficient r reveals the strength of the linear relationship between X and Y . In our case, r is calculated as follows:

$$r = \frac{n \cdot \sum xy - \sum x \cdot \sum y}{\sqrt{n \cdot \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2} \cdot \sqrt{n \cdot \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2}} = \frac{10 \times 28.554.271,4 - 690,1 \times 372936}{\sqrt{10 \times 103899,97 - (690,1^2)} \cdot \sqrt{10 \times 14073328545,4 - (372936)^2}} = 0,924$$

The value of 0.924 indicates a very high, positive correlation between X and Y . The coefficient of determination $r^2 = 0.854$ reveals that 85% of the GDP variability is explained by FDI variations. Linear correlation testing showed that the calculated p -value was less than the significance level ($\alpha=0,05$). It can be concluded that there is a significant linear relationship between FDI from China and Serbia's GDP since the correlation coefficient is significantly different from zero.

CONCLUSION

The Silk Road strategy is designed to promote China's long-term, balanced development, expand export markets for its products, and strengthen China's geopolitical role in Asia and Europe. It is estimated that the New Silk Road will have a positive impact on the global economy, increase exports in countries along the corridors by 10% and FDI by 7.5%, and reduce transportation costs by 12%.

Despite multiple positive aspects, certain risks must be carefully weighed so that Silk Road projects could have a positive impact on economies and standard of living. In an effort to accelerate economic growth and revive stagnant economies, many underdeveloped countries could face serious debt repayment problems, which are usually structured in the form of loans from Chinese banks, which could lead to over-dependence on China. No less important is the risk of corruption, to which infrastructure projects are particularly vulnerable and sensitive, and to which less developed countries and countries without a strong legal mechanism for protection against this type of risk could eventually face.

Some countries along the Silk Road corridors face high levels of external debt, political and economic challenges, and many do not have strong legal framework for investor protection and contractual rights, which poses a great risk to China itself, i.e. Chinese lending banks and Chinese investors. Difficulties in loan repayments especially after the pandemic, could cause an increase in non-performing loans, the renegotiation of contractual terms, deferral of payments or even debt write-offs. Due to the risk of unprofitability of infrastructure projects which usually require huge capital investments, and inability to finalize them in countries severely affected by the pandemic, China could focus on projects in the field of health and information and communication technologies, as they become vital in the post pandemic period. The pandemic will

also instigate changes in the supply chain, project dynamics, distribution of materials and equipment and engagement of Chinese workers outside China, due to travel restrictions and supply chain disruptions.

Within the New Silk Road initiative, the 16 + 1 format is particularly important since it promotes the cooperation between China and 16 countries in Central, East and Southeast Europe, Serbia among others. Chinese investments are of great importance for the Serbian economy, as they promote faster economic growth and diversification of financing. Chinese projects in Serbia are mainly focused on infrastructure, transport, mining and energy, metal and automobile industry, whereby infrastructure projects are primarily funded through Chinese banking loans. Likewise, the Serbian market is also important for the New Silk Road, due to its geographical position, the visa regime, the connection with the EU market and numerous free trade arrangements. Over the past three years, the volume of foreign direct investments from China has doubled, and in order to ensure stable economic development, it is critical to direct efforts towards attracting Chinese FDI and limit borrowing for infrastructure projects, in order to prevent excessive financial dependence on China.

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ПРИСТУП СРБИЈЕ КИНЕСКОМ ПУТУ СВИЛЕ: ШАНСЕ И РИЗИЦИ

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Резиме

Када је 2013. године представила стратегију новог Пута свиле, Кина је још једном потврдила позицију глобалног лидера и дефинисала правце будућег економског и политичког деловања. Као један од најамбициознијих пројеката икада представљених у свету, када се у потпуности буде реализовао, Пут свиле повезаће тржишта Азије, Блиског истока, Африке и Европе, ојачати економску сарадњу између земаља и интензивирати међународне трговинске токове.

Овај рад анализира значај Пута свиле за економије земаља дуж коридора, као и значај за економски развој Републике Србије. Помоћу финансијских средстава из Кине, Србија спроводи кључне инфраструктурне пројекте који ће допринети бољој повезаности са осталим тржиштима у Европи. Из године у годину, Србија све више привлачи инвестиције из Кине које су усмерене на развој компанија из области енергетике, металне индустрије и других индустријских грана. Истраживање спроведено у овом раду фокусира се на модел инвестирања Кине у Србији, секторе у којима се бележи највећи прилив инвестиција, те указује на потенцијалне ризике са којима се могу суочити земље у развоју приликом реализације пројеката Пута свиле.

Прелиминарна истраживања показују да су инвестиције из Кине последњих година имале позитиван утицај на привредни развој Србије, јер су одређена предузећа постала водећи српски извозници. Растући обим инвестиција из Кине последњих година довео је и до пораста обима спољнотрговинске размене двеју земаља. Очекује се да ће даље унапређење инвестиционих односа Србије и Кине утицати не само на реализацију циљева Пута свиле у Србији већ и шире, у Европи, с обзиром на географску позицију Србије и потенцијал у приближавању кинеских компанија тржишту Европске уније.

MULTIVARIATE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF REGIONAL ECONOMIC DISPARITIES AT DISTRICT LEVEL IN SERBIA

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Abstract

Starting from the fact that pronounced differences in the level of development of regions within a particular country can have a serious and significant (negative) impact on its socio-political stability, as well as the performance of the national economy as a whole, it is very important to create conditions for ensuring balanced and sustainable regional development. Due to its pronounced multidimensional nature, the analysis of regional economic disparities is a very complex and statistically demanding task. In this paper, a multivariate methodological framework for the classification of districts in Serbia according to the achieved level of economic development, into internally-homogeneous / externally-heterogeneous groups, based primarily on the application of hierarchical agglomerative clustering procedure and examination of interdependencies between five selected relevant economic indicators, is presented. The statistical validity of the obtained "optimal" classification of districts is additionally tested and confirmed with the results of one-factor multivariate analysis of variance. The resulting categorization clearly and unequivocally confirms the presence of pronounced inequalities regarding the achieved level of economic development between NUTS 3 level territorial units in Serbia, and the existence of regional economic polarization, primarily in direction "developed north – undeveloped south".

Key words: multivariate statistical analysis, cluster analysis, MANOVA, economic disparities, districts.

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МУЛТИВАРИЈАЦИОНА СТАТИСТИЧКА АНАЛИЗА РЕГИОНАЛНИХ ЕКОНОМСКИХ ДИСПАРИТЕТА НА НИВОУ ОКРУГА У СРБИЈИ

Апстракт

Полазећи од чињенице да изражене разлике у погледу степена развијености региона у саставу конкретне државе могу имати озбиљан и значајан (негативан) утицај на њену друштвено-политичку стабилност, као и резултате националне економије у целини, веома је важно створити услове за успостављање равномерног и одрживог регионалног развоја. Услед изражене мултидимензионалности, анализа регионалних економских диспаритета представља веома сложен и статистички захтеван подухват. Сходно наведеном, у овом раду представљен је мултиваријациони методолошки оквир за класификацију управних округа у Србији према достигнутом степену економске развијености, у интерно-хомогене / екстерно-хетерогене групе, заснован примарно на примени хијерархијске агломеративне процедуре груписања и истраживању међузависности између вредности пет релевантних економских показатеља. Статистичка валидност добијене „оптималне” класификације округа додатно је проверена и потврђена резултатима једнофакторске мултиваријационе анализе варијансе. Резултирајућа категоризација недвосмислено и јасно потврђује присуство изражених неједнакости у погледу достигнутог нивоа економске развијености између територијалних јединица нивоа НСТЈ 3 у Србији и постојање регионалне економске поларизације, примарно у правцу „развијени север – неразвијени југ”.

Кључне речи: мултиваријациона статистичка анализа, анализа груписања, MANOVA, економски диспаритети, управни окрузи.

INTRODUCTION

Generally, regional and development of national economy are processes that overlap and condition each other. The explanation of the previous statement is contained in the fact that pronounced differences in the level of development of regions can have a serious and significant (negative) impact on the socio-political stability of a country (Goletsis & Chletsos, 2011), as well as the performance of national economy, and vice versa. Emphasizing the "dependence" of the country and the efficiency of the entire economy on the economic structure and stability of its regions, Jakopin (2015) considers the economic development of regions as basis for the realization of national economic goals. Accordingly, inequalities in development, present between defined administrative-territorial units within the state, i.e. their identification and mitigation, represent one of the most important, but also the most complex socio-economic problems that development policy makers and state representatives today generally face (Rovan & Sambt, 2003; Maletić & Bucalo-Jelić, 2016; Stamenković & Savić, 2017).

Mainly manifested in the centralization and / or polarization of economic activity within particular territorial units within the state

(Mohiuddin & Hashia, 2012), the presence of regional development disparities is characteristic of both developed and, although at a greater extent, developing countries (Miljačić & Paunović, 2011). In that sense, as a transitional and developing country, the Republic of Serbia (RS) is characterized by very pronounced inter-regional and intra-regional development disproportions, with a tendency of their continuous increase (GRS, 2007; Winkler, 2012; Krstić & Vukadinović, 2011; Vukmirović, 2013). The seriousness and necessity of resolving the mentioned issue is confirmed by Article 94 of the Constitution of RS, which defines the care and concern for balanced and sustainable regional development, in accordance with the law, as a (legal) obligation of the state (NARS, 2006). However, although determining the level of development - categorization and typology of areas, represents one of the key pillars on which the successful implementation of the Regional Development Strategy of RS is based (GRS, 2009), it is necessary to emphasize that efficient classification of territories of different NUTS levels according to the degree of development, from a conceptual-methodological perspective, is actually a very demanding task (NARD, 2012). This complexity is primarily conditioned by the multidimensional nature of the concept of regional development, i.e. the need to take into account and consideration the impact of a large number of individual factors grouped within different development dimensions. However, although in the relevant literature the economic, social, ecological, infrastructural, demographic and educational dimensions stand out as the most frequently considered development dimensions, the issue of regional development is mainly related to economic dimension and investigation of its characteristic indicators (GRS, 2007; Bojović, 2010; Luczak & Just, 2020).

The apostrophized multidimensional character of the regional development concept conditioned the shift of the analytical framework from (traditional) one-dimensional monitoring of the values of large number of indicators of different development dimensions towards the application of sophisticated multidimensional methodological procedures, based on the exploitation of the analytical potentials of various multivariate statistical methods in the investigation of regional development and quantification of present asymmetries (Polednikova, 2014; Stamenković & Savić, 2017).

Accordingly, the examination of the degree of economic development of NUTS 3 level territorial units in RS, as a specific multivariate economic phenomenon, is the research subject in this paper. In the context of the defined subject, the following objectives are formulated: (1) the popularization of the application possibilities of multivariate statistical methods, specifically cluster analysis and MANOVA, in the domain of defined subject, both through independent and combined use with appropriate univariate statistical methods; and (2) the creation of a statistically based and evaluated classification of the observed territories into in-

ternally homogeneous / externally heterogeneous clusters, according to selected indicators of regional economic development. The practical contribution of the research is reflected in providing: (1) a clear and thorough demonstration of statistically valid application of cluster analysis and MANOVA in economic research; and (2) informative overview of the situation in terms of the achieved level of economic development of districts in RS, which can serve as a suitable basis for formulating appropriate measures within the regional economic development strategy and implementation of activities aimed at mitigating identified disparities.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The evaluation of achieved development of territorial units at different NUTS level within a specific country or group of countries, using different combinations of indicators of one or several development dimensions and classification of analyzed territories into appropriate groups, in order to identify (possibly) present regional disparities, represents a very attractive research area. In most cases, the empirical consideration of these research issues is based on the exploitation of the application potentials of cluster analysis (CA). The diversity and number of published scientific papers and conducted empirical studies (*Table 1*) unequivocally confirm the above stated observations.

Table 1. Comparative review of selected empirical studies

Author(s) / (year of publication)	Study symbol	Temporal scope (year)	Territorial units (NUTS / LAU level)	State(s)	Development dimension(s)
Lepojević, Bošković & Janković-Milić (2015)	s1	2012	LAU	SRB	Econ./Dem./ Edu.
Brauksa (2013)	s2	Mixed	LAU	LVA	Econ./Soc.
Rovan & Sambt (2003)	s3	2001	LAU	SLO	Econ./Dem./ Soc./Edu.
Avram & Postoiu (2016)	s4	'07 & '12	NUTS 2	EU-27	Econ./Edu.
Polednikova (2014)	s5	2010	NUTS 2	V4	Econ./Soc.
Michaelides, Economakis & Lagos (2006)	s6	2001	NUTS 2	GRE	Econ.
Stamenković, Veselinović & Milanović (2017)	s7	2011	NUTS 3	SRB	Dem./Edu.
Istrate & Horea-Serban (2016)	s8	2014	NUTS 3	ROU	Econ.
Kvičalova, Mazalova & Široky (2014)	s9	2011	NUTS 3	CZE	Econ./Soc.
Janković-Milić, Marković & Igić (2013)	s10	2011	NUTS 3	SRB	Econ./Dem.
Kurnoga-Živadinović & Sorić (2008)	s11	Mixed	NUTS 3	CRO	EU funds
Aumayr (2006)	s12	2002	NUTS 3	EU-25	Econ./Dem.
Capriati (2005)	s13	2001	NUTS 3	ITA	R&D

Notes regarding the meaning of abbreviations used within column *Development dimension(s)*:

Economic (Econ.), *Social* (Soc.),

Demographic (Dem.), *Education* (Edu.), *Research & Development* (R&D), *Ecological* (Eco.),

Absorption of EU funds (EU funds).

Source: Authors

The meta-analysis of the content of multivariate studies presented in *Table 1* reveals a pronounced variability, in terms of spatial (territorial) and temporal scope of the analysis, as well as the selection of development dimension(s) and their indicators. In this sense, it is important to emphasize that precisely these differences represent the primary obstacle in ensuring the comparability of classification results obtained in different authors' studies. In addition, based on the detailed analysis and comparison of key methodological determinants of CA application within presented studies, following specifics are noticed:

- In contrast to the research based on individual application of non-hierarchical (studies marked as: s1, s2, s4, s6, s10, s13) or hierarchical agglomerative CA (studies marked as: s8, s9, s12), in a significant number of papers the specific approach in the implementation of CA, implying combined / complementary application of these two procedures, was used (studies marked as: s3, s5, s7, s11). The latter approach includes the use of results obtained through hierarchical CA as input parameters in the implementation of non-hierarchical CA, in order to compare the resulting classifications in terms of the structure of formed clusters and to increase objectivity in selecting final clustering solution.

- The implementation of non-hierarchical procedure is exclusively based on the use of *k*-means method. On the other hand, in studies in which a hierarchical procedure was applied, regardless of whether its individual or combined application is emphasized, Ward's method stands out not only as dominant one, but also the only method whose application possibilities were considered (studies marked as: s3, s5, s7, s8, s12). A similar remark characterizes the research conducted by Kvičalova et al. (2014), who apply the single-linkage method, but without an explanation for the specific choice made and consideration of other methods. Unlike the mentioned studies, Kurnoga-Živadinović & Sorić (2008) use a different methodological approach. In fact, these authors base the selection of "the most suitable" method on interpretability and visual impression of different clustering solutions, obtained by applying several hierarchical agglomerative methods.

- Preliminary analysis aimed at the detection of univariate and multivariate outlier(s) was conducted only by Stamenković et al. (2017), while multicollinearity analysis, important for the selection of variables to be used in CA, was performed within studies s4, s5, s9, s11, s13.

- In most of the analyzed papers, the quality evaluation of the hierarchical procedure results and, consequently, the selection of the "optimal" number of clusters are based exclusively on the subjective (mainly visual) impressions of the author(s) and selection of the (so-called) "most interpretable" solution. In that sense, in addition to the application of the criterion based on monitoring successive changes in values of distance measure between clusters that are merging, noted in studies conducted by Rován & Sambt (2003), Kvičalova et al. (2014), and

Polednikova (2014), the real exception is the research conducted by Stamenković et al. (2017), in which there is an intensive use of various, statistically based criteria when deciding on the selection of the "optimal" number of clusters.

Finally, in contrast to the previously presented papers in which CA has a primary and independent "analytical role" in the realization of defined research objectives, there are scientific papers in which, for the purpose of better understanding the extent of regional development disparities, the "secondary role" in conducted multivariate empirical analysis is assigned to CA procedure (for example, see: Rován, Malešić & Bregar, 2009; Goletsis & Chletsos, 2011; Stamenković & Savić, 2017). In these studies, CA results are used to evaluate the accuracy and quality of classification of the analyzed territorial units, which is determined on the basis of their ranking according to the values of the corresponding composite indicator, previously created using factor or principal component analysis. Starting from the analogy with research objective defined in this paper, similarities in terms of the territorial-temporal scope of data, but also the focus on economic development dimension and used indicators, among these papers, research conducted by Stamenković & Savić (2017) particularly stands out. More precisely, the mentioned authors use the non-hierarchical CA for the purpose of checking and verifying the structure of three clusters of districts in RS according to the achieved level of economic development in 2013. Initially, the classification of districts was conducted based on the subjective assessment of the authors and the analysis of determined ranks of individual districts according to the values of an innovative composite indicator, called the Economic Development Index (*IED*), which is previously created using factor analysis. The results obtained in elaborated research will be used as a basis for comparison and quality evaluation of CA classification presented in this paper.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FRAMEWORK

For the purpose of effective realization of formulated objectives, a complex research methodology, presented in *Figure 1*, is applied.

The presented research framework is based on the combined and complementary usage of CA and one-way MANOVA, aimed at the examination of interdependencies between individual economic indicators and the discovery of "natural", but hidden, grouping structure within the analyzed set of multivariate observations. In addition, primarily within preliminary data analysis and data preparation phase, the appropriate univariate statistical methods, has also been used. As it can be seen in the presented schematic representation, after the appropriate selection of representative individual indicators of regional economic development, that special attention is dedicated to the examination of the degree of fulfill-

ment of the statistical assumptions upon which the valid application of the mentioned multivariate statistical methods is based. The presented data analysis and all the necessary statistical calculations were carried out using the statistical software package *IBM SPSS Statistics* (version 20) and *Microsoft Office Excel*.

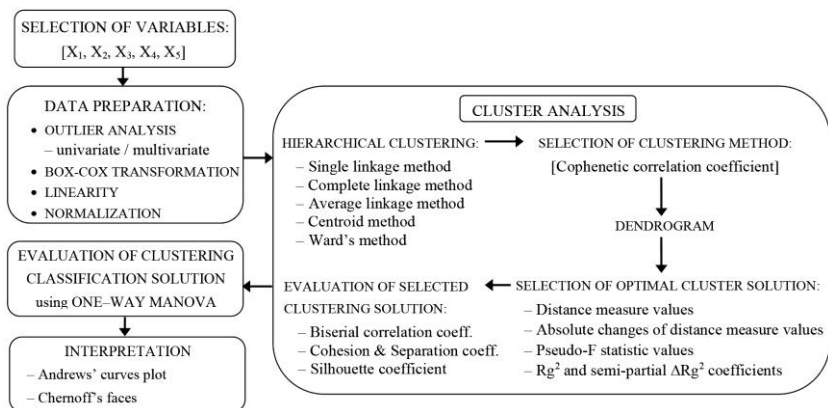


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the used research methodology framework
Source: Authors

Variables, Sources of Data, and the Temporal-Spatial Scope of the Research

Using the official territorial organization, defined by the nomenclature of statistical territorial units in Serbia, the spatial scope of the research covers territories for 24 administrative districts and Belgrade area (NUTS 3 level). In addition, districts within the Autonomous Province of Kosovo and Metohija are not included in the conducted research, because the Statistical Office of RS (SORS) provides no information for these territories since 1999. Starting from the already stated similarity between research objectives, in order to provide suitable basis for the comparison of the obtained results, in the selection of particular indicators of regional economic development and time coverage of data, the authors of this paper relied on the choices that Stamenković & Savić (2017) made in their research. In other words, as suggested and explained by mentioned authors, secondary data for the following five economic indicators were collected and analyzed, for each of the covered territories: *Number of SMEs per 1000 inhabitants* (X_1), *Gross value added per capita* (X_2), *Employment rate* (X_3), *Unemployment per 1000 inhabitants* (X_4), *Average wage per employee* (X_5). Data were obtained from complex publications named *Municipalities and Regions in RS* (SORS, 2014) and *Report on Small and Medium Enterprises and Entrepreneurship* (ME & NARD, 2014). All

collected data refer to year 2013. In order to neutralize and/or mitigate the impact of the total demographic mass of individual districts on variables' values, and therefore the classification results, within the data preparation phase, the authors performed calculations necessary for obtaining values expressed as per capita, per 1000 inhabitants, or percentage participation.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Starting from the fact that results of CA can be quite sensitive to the presence of outliers, before its implementation, a preliminary data analysis was performed in order to investigate the presence of one-dimensional and multivariate non-standard observations. The presented box-plots for individual variables (*Figure 2*) indicate the presence of outliers (marked with stars) in case of variables X_2 , X_3 , X_5 , while variable X_1 contains one suspected outlier value (marked with circle). In addition, the comparison of calculated Mahalanobis distance values for each district (ranging from 0.61 to 13.34) and value of 97.5 percentile of chi-square distribution ($\chi^2_{5; 0,975} = 12.83$), as a critical value, reveals the presence of one multivariate outlier (i.e., South Banat district).

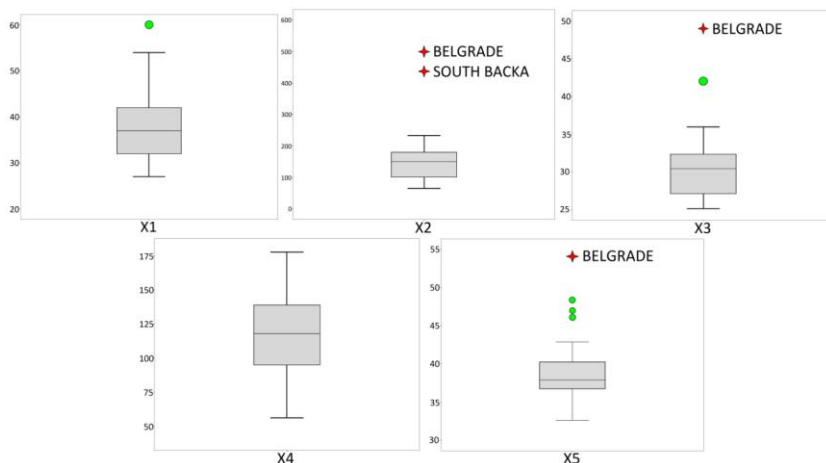


Figure 2. Box plots for original variables
Source: Authors

In order to mitigate and / or eliminate the impact of detected outliers, a *Box-Cox* transformation of the original values of variables X_1 , X_2 , X_3 and X_5 was performed. Subsequent outlier analysis confirmed the positive effects of the transformation carried out, since the presence of non-standard data was not identified at either univariate or multivariate level. Finally, since selected indicators are expressed in different measurement

units, their normalization was conducted using the *min-max* method, thus converting original and transformed values into normalized values ranging from 1 to 10. In accordance with the guidelines related to the application of CA, different methods of hierarchical procedure were implemented using the squared Euclidean distance measure. By examining the degree of the quantitative agreement between the corresponding elements of the original and derived distance matrices for obtained solution of each method, the appropriate values of cophenetic correlation coefficient (r_{cp}), as an indicator of the degree of quality of individual solutions, were calculated (Table 2). For further analysis, the solution obtained using average linkage method is selected, since it has the highest r_{cp} value. The summary results of hierarchical agglomerative clustering of 25 districts in Serbia, for the selected five indicators of regional economic development, are presented in Figure 3.

Table 2. Cophenetic coefficients for used hierarchical methods

Hierarchical methods	(r_{cp})
Ward's	0.5324
Centroid	0.6498
Single linkage	0.5885
Complete linkage	0.0334
Average linkage	0.6597

Source: Authors

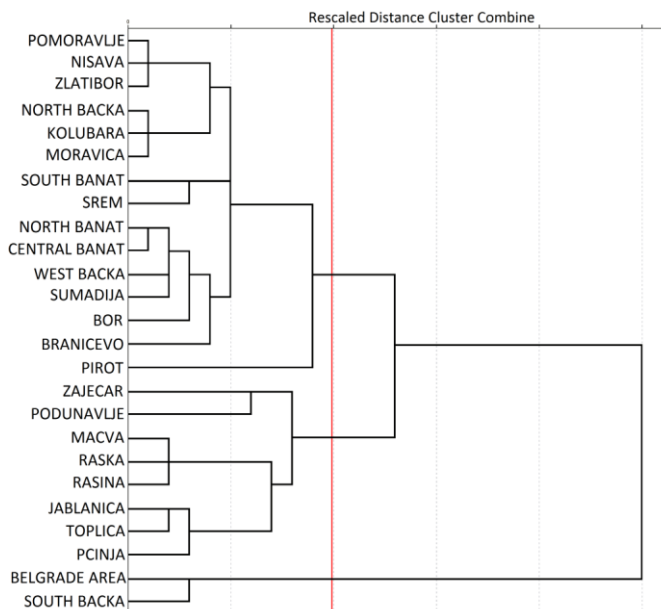


Figure 3. Dendrogram

Source: Authors

In order to identify the "optimal" classification of districts, regarding the number of clusters and their structure, the values of, in *Figure 1* listed, optimality criteria were analyzed. More precisely, by analyzing the tendency of distance measure values and size of corresponding absolute changes during the agglomeration process (*Figure 4*), their first drastic increase is noticed at the moment of forming a solution with 2 clusters. Comparing the pseudo *F*-statistic values (*Figure 5, left*), R_g^2 and ΔR_g^2 coefficients (*Figure 5, right*), calculated for solutions ranging from 7 to 2 clusters, step 23 of agglomeration process, during which a solution with 2 clusters is forming, is also recognized as a step in which a significant change in the values of these optimality criteria has occurred.

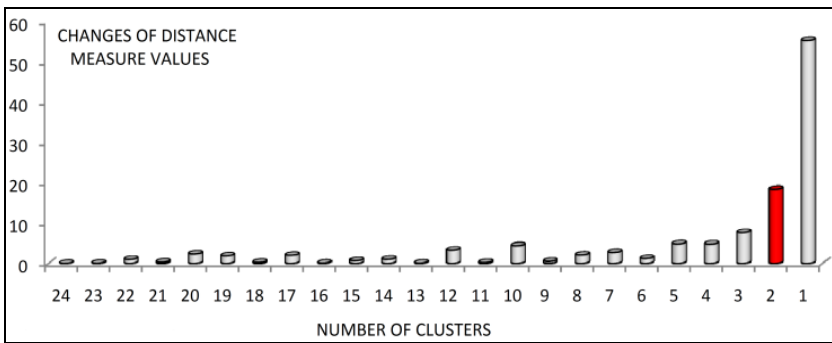


Figure 4. Distance measure values' absolute changes for different CA solutions
 Source: Authors

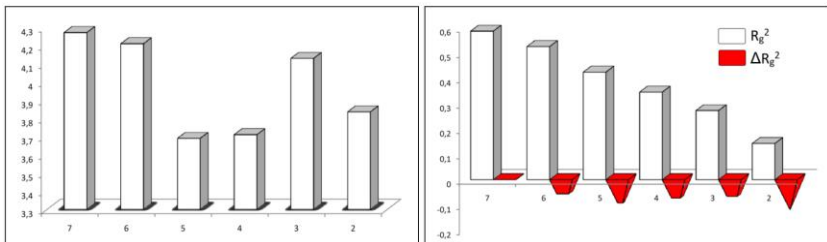


Figure 5. Pseudo F-statistics (left) and R_g^2 & ΔR_g^2 (right) for different CA solutions
 Source: Authors

The solution of the hierarchical procedure with three clusters is identified as the optimal one since it precedes the aforementioned changes in the values of the used criteria. Statistical evaluation of validity of the obtained CA solution is performed based on the values of bi-serial

correlation, cohesion, separation and silhouette coefficients, calculated for solutions ranging from 7 to 2 clusters (Table 3).

Table 3. Coefficients for evaluation of quality of selected clustering solution

Coefficients	number of clusters					
	7	6	5	4	3	2
Bi-serial correlation	0.474	0.477	0.496	0.521	0.529	-
Cohesion	3984.01	4036.82	4599.27	5464.32	6688.05	21595.43
Separation	28418.46	28365.65	27803.20	26938.15	25714.43	10807.04
Silhouette	0.444	0.397	0.389	0.418	0.507	-

Source: Authors

The values of these coefficients unambiguously confirm the classification of districts within three clusters as the most acceptable alternative regarding the achieved level of internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity compared to other possible clustering outcomes, since it is characterized by the highest values of bi-serial correlation and silhouette coefficients. The drastic rise/decrease of cohesion/separation coefficient values, respectively, recorded for the two-cluster solution, support previous conclusion.

The final quality evaluation of hierarchical CA results was carried out using one-way MANOVA. In this context, the independent variable, (i.e. factor – level of regional economic development) has 3 treatments (clusters), while the used indicators represent a multidimensional dependent variable. The tested alternative hypothesis claims that there is a statistically significant difference between average values of at least two multidimensional populations.

Since MANOVA is a parametric multivariate statistical method, using the pre-processed data in CA, the fulfillment of the following assumptions for its valid application, is checked and verified: (a) multivariate and univariate normality of dependent variables' distribution, (b) the existence of a statistically significant linearity and absence of multicollinearity, and (c) homogeneity of covariance matrices of multivariate observations.

The results of conducted one-way MANOVA, particularly *Wilk's lambda* test statistic ($\Lambda^* = 0.093$), its *F* approximation ($F_{(10;36)} = 8.182$) and the resulting *p*-value = 0.000, at the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, suggest the acceptance of alternative hypothesis, since *p*-value is smaller than α . Given the relatively small size of the sample ($n = 25$), as well as the unequal size of clusters, formulated conclusion was confirmed by the values of *Pillai's Trace* test statistic ($V = 0.986$), its *F* approximation ($F_{(10;38)} = 3.697$) and realized *p*-value (0.002), since it is considered as more robust indicator in terms of the above mentioned limitations.

INTERPRETATION OF THE CLASSIFICATION OF DISTRICTS

Multivariate graphical representations, given in the form of *Andrews' curves* and *Chernoff's faces* (Figure 6) provide the additional visual verification of the quality of the created classification of districts according to the values of selected economic indicators. More precisely, created as a result of coding and representing multivariate data by a finite Fourier series, the distribution of *Andrews' curves* within clusters clearly indicates a high level of their internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. *Chernoff's faces*, constructed on the basis of average values of economic indicators for individual clusters, even more accurately present differences in average degree of economic development of districts within identified clusters.

A visual presentation of distribution of districts within identified clusters, supplemented by the average values of the used indicators of economic development, both at the level of individual clusters and at the national level, is given in Figure 7.

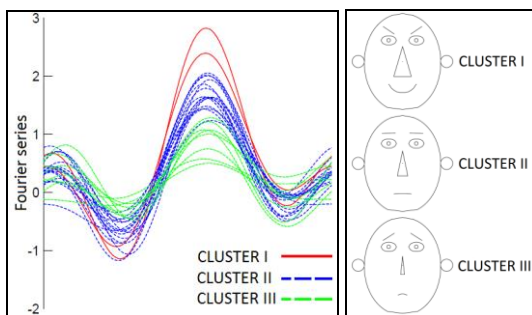


Figure 6. *Andrews' curves (left) and Chernoff's faces (right) for individual clusters*

Source: Authors

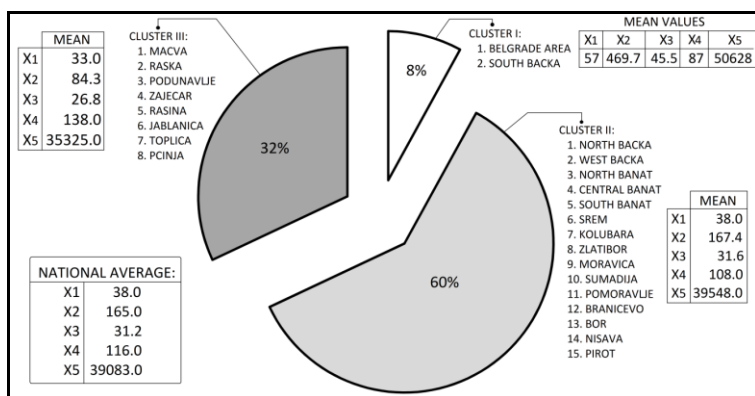


Figure 7. *Classification structure and average values of economic indicators per clusters*

Source: Authors

Also, the minimum and maximum values of the original economic indicators at the level of individual clusters are listed in *Table 4*. By comparing the presented average, as well as min and max values of indicators with the corresponding national average values, the indicative (descriptive) names of the formed clusters of districts were determined as follows: Cluster I – high level of economic development (*haughty Chernoff's face*); Cluster II – medium level of economic development (*indifferent Chernoff's face*); Cluster III – low level of economic development (*sad Chernoff's face*).

Table 4. Min-max interval values of original indicators per clusters

Variables (symbols)	min-max interval values		
	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
X_1	54-60	29-50	27-39
X_2	438.6-500.7	127.1-234.2	64.7-121.7
X_3	42-49	27.1-36	25.1-30
X_4	65-108	56-146	86-178
X_5	47153-54103	34459-47960	32624-37633

Source: Authors

The presented CA classification unequivocally confirms the presence of pronounced inequalities regarding the achieved level of economic development in 2013, between the NUTS 3 territories in RS. In addition, starting from the structure of identified clusters, the existence of regional economic polarization, primarily in relation developed north and undeveloped south, is clearly noticeable. These findings were verified by calculated ratios of average values of indicators for each pair of clusters (*Table 5*).

Table 5. Ratios of average values of economic indicators for each pair of clusters

Variables	Clusters	I	II
X_1	II	1 : 1.50	
	III	1 : 1.73	1 : 1.15
X_2	II	1 : 2.81	
	III	1 : 5.57	1 : 1.99
X_3	II	1 : 1.44	
	III	1 : 1.70	1 : 1.18
X_4	II	1 : 0.81	
	III	1 : 0.63	1 : 0.78
X_5	II	1 : 1.28	
	III	1 : 1.43	1 : 1.12

Source: Authors

Finally, due to differences in terms of spatial-temporal data coverage and other previously listed methodological specifics, the comparabil-

ity of the obtained results with similar studies is generally not feasible. However, thanks to the adjustments made within the Section 3, the mentioned barriers were removed, and the possibility of comparison with the results obtained by Stamenković & Savić (2017) is provided. In that sense, it is important to emphasize that by applying the cluster analysis of districts according to the degree of economic development in this paper, completely identical classification results were obtained, both in terms of number and structure of formed clusters, compared to the results obtained by mentioned authors.

CONCLUSION

According to the formulated research objectives in this paper, a complex multivariate statistical approach, intended for classification of districts in RS, according to their level of economic development in 2013, is presented. Based on the statistically valid and combined application of CA and MANOVA, the proposed multivariate statistical approach in the analysis of regional economic disparities is characterized by the following practical and methodological specifics, compared to most studies of similar character:

- Contrary to the approach based on monitoring the values of individual indicators and separate interpretation of a number of univariate classifications, the proposed methodological framework in this paper, based on multivariate aggregation of information contained within the five economic indicators used, enables the creation of only one, common, classification of analyzed territories, which represents a more suitable basis for understanding the issues and the extent of identified regional disparities, the formulation of corrective measures and the monitoring of the effects of their implementation.

- Indirectly, since it is not defined as the primary objective of this research, the results of the conducted hierarchical CA confirm the validity and practical usability of *IED* composite indicator, proposed by Stamenković & Savić (2017), created for the precise quantification of the achieved degree of economic development of districts in Serbia. More precisely, the resulting classifications of these two, essentially very different, multivariate approaches are identical.

- From the perspective of CA application, in contrast to the subjective ("by default") implementation of Ward's method when conducting a hierarchical agglomerative procedure and selection of the so-called "more interpretable" solution, with the presented methodological framework, the importance of using statistically based criteria in choosing the "optimal" hierarchical method and clustering solution, was demonstrated and emphasized in order to ensure objectivity and scientific verification of results.

- The presented research is based on a thorough verification of assumptions on which the statistically valid implementation of used multivariate methods is based. The importance of this methodological specificity comes from the fact that neglecting or implementing the preliminary analysis in an incomplete manner is one of the key shortcomings of most of the previously conducted studies in the literature.

- The statistical validity of the created classification of districts is additionally confirmed by the results of one-factor MANOVA. In this way, through the combined application of different multivariate methods, more reliable research results were obtained.

The obtained classification, complemented by detailed interpretation and informative, but rarely used, specific multivariate graphical representations unequivocally confirms the presence of pronounced regional economic asymmetries among NUTS 3 territorial units in RS in 2013. More precisely, based on the results of CA, a statistically valid typology of districts in Serbia was formed, consisting of three different clusters, i.e. groups of districts with high, medium and low level of economic development. In addition, based on the structure of identified clusters, the existence of regional economic polarization, primarily in relation "developed north–undeveloped south" is clearly noticeable.

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МУЛТИВАРИЈАЦИОНА СТАТИСТИЧКА АНАЛИЗА РЕГИОНАЛНИХ ЕКОНОМСКИХ ДИСПАРИТЕТА НА НИВОУ ОКРУГА У СРБИЈИ

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Резиме

Полазећи од чињенице да изражене разлике у погледу степена развијености региона у саставу конкретне државе могу имати озбиљан и значајан (негативан) утицај на њену друштвено-политичку стабилност, као и резултате националне економије у целини, веома је важно створити услове за успостављање равномерног и одрживог регионалног развоја. Сходно наведеном, неравномерности у развоју, присутне између дефинисаних административно-територијалних јединица у саставу државе, односно њихово идентификовање и ублажавање, представљају једно од најважнијих, али и најкомплекснијих друштвено-економских проблема са којим се творци развојних политика и представници државе данас, уопштено гледано, суочавају.

Анализа регионалних економских диспаритета представља веома сложен и захтеван подухват у концептуално-методолошком смислу. Наведена сложеност примарно је условљена мултидимензионом природом концепта регионалне развијености, односно, неопходношћу узимања у обзир и разматрања утицаја великог броја појединачних фактора груписаних унутар различитих развојних димензија. Апострофирани мултидимензиони карактер концепта регионалне раз-

вијености условно је померање аналитичког оквира од (традиционалног) једно-димензионог праћења вредности великог броја појединачних показатеља различитих развојних димензија ка развоју и примени разноврсних софистицираних мултидимензионих методолошких поступака заснованих на експлоатацији апликативних потенцијала метода мултиваријационе статистичке анализе у домену истраживања регионалних карактеристика и квантификовању присутних асиметричности.

Сходно наведеном, у овом раду представљен је мултиваријациони методолошки оквир за класификацију управних округа у Србији према достигнутом степену економске развијености, у одговарајуће интерно-хомогене / екстерно-хетерогене групе, заснован примарно на примени хијерархијске агломеративне процедуре груписања и истраживању међузависности између вредности пет релевантних економских показатеља. Статистичка валидност „оптималне” класификације округа додатно је проверена и потврђена резултатима једнофакторске мултиваријационе анализе варијансе. Резултирајућа типологија и категоризација јасно и недвосмислено потврђују присуство изражених неједнакости у погледу достигнутог нивоа економске развијености између територијалних јединица нивоа НСТЈ 3 у Србији и указују на присуство регионалне економске поларизације, примарно у правцу „развијени север – неразвијени југ”.

Примењени мултиваријациони методолошки приступ омогућава јасно, информативно, објективно и статистички валидано сагледавање степена економске развијености округа у Србији, обезбеђујући на тај начин поуздану и погодну основу за квалитетно редефинисање и ефикасну примену одговарајућих мера у оквиру стратегије регионалног развоја усмерених на ублажавање присутних мера и веома изражених економских асиметричности на простору Републике Србије.

THE RELEVANCE OF SOCIAL PERFORMANCE DISCLOSURE FOR FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE OF COMPANIES INCLUDED IN BELEXline INDEX

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Abstract

In the contemporary conditions of intense dynamics of competition, clearly articulated demands of the community and booming environmental requests, corporate social responsibility (CSR) becomes an imperative strategy for responsible and ethical company management. The primary goal of the research is to identify the relevance of social performance for financial success of the most liquid Serbian companies included in the BELEXline index in the period from 2014 to 2018. The level of social performance disclosure is determined using content analysis and the formulation of the social performance disclosure index. In order to confirm the initial hypotheses, cluster analysis and the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test are used. The empirical findings of this research indicate that the disclosure of social performance is relevant only at the level of certain financial indicators, given that the non-financial reporting of the companies from the sample is at a low level. With changing business conditions, higher requirements for CSR, and increasingly demanding regulations on non-financial reporting, this study provides information on the relationship between the social indicators and the financial performance that are important both in terms of defining sustainability strategies at the company level and from the point of view of the capital market, regulatory bodies and the academia.

Key words: business reporting, social performance, financial performance, emerging economy, disclosure index.

РЕЛЕВАНТНОСТ ОБЕЛОДАЊИВАЊА ДРУШТВЕНИХ ПЕРФОРМАНСИ ЗА ФИНАНСИЈСКЕ ПЕРФОРМАНСЕ ПРЕДУЗЕЋА УКЉУЧЕНИХ У *BELEXline* ИНДЕКС

Апстракт

У савременим условима израженог динамизма конкуренције, јасно артикулисаних захтева друштвене заједнице и све гласнијих еколошких захтева, дру-

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штвено одговорно пословање (ДОП) постаје неизоставна стратегија одговорног и етичког управљања компанијом. Примарни циљ истраживања је уочавање релевантности друштвених перформанси за финансијску успешност најликвиднијих српских компанија укључених у *BELEXline* индекс у периоду од 2014. до 2018. године. Ниво обелодањивања друштвених перформанси утврђен је коришћењем анализе садржаја и формулисањем индекса обелодањивања друштвених перформанси. У циљу потврђивања полазних хипотеза, коришћена је кластер анализа и непараметарски *Mann-Whitney U* тест. Емпиријски налази овог истраживања указују на то да је обелодањивање друштвених перформанси релевантно само на нивоу појединих финансијских показатеља, с обзиром на то да је нефинансијско извештавање код компанија из узорка на ниском нивоу. Услед промене услова пословања, већих захтева за друштвено одговорним пословањем и све строже регулативе по питању нефинансијског извештавања, ова студија пружа информације о везама између друштвених показатеља и финансијског пословања које су значајне како са становишта дефинисања стратегије одрживости на нивоу компаније тако и са становишта тржишта капитала, регулаторних тела и академске јавности.

Кључне речи: корпоративно извештавање, друштвене перформансе, финансијске перформансе, тржиште у развоју, индекс обелодањивања.

INTRODUCTION

An increasing number of investors are aiming to invest in those companies which are not only financially profitable, but also have sustainable business in the long run. The growing needs of the community require companies to direct their resources, more than ever, to support solving important social and environmental issues. In order to increase the quality of existing sustainability reporting practices and identify the main risks in the modern business environment, the most important question is not whether to report, but what and how to report in order to generate maximum value for investors and other stakeholders (Sekerez, 2016). Accordingly, many international institutions have engaged in the search for an adequate model of CSR reporting to complement traditional financial statements by measuring the impact of organization's activities on society. Today, at the global level, the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) guidelines are the most comprehensive guidelines for sustainability reporting.

With all of the above in mind, the question inevitably arises as to whether companies that operate responsibly towards society can be competitive and profitable at the same time. Accordingly, the aim of this paper is to determine the relationship that exists between the disclosure of social performance and financial performance indicators of the analyzed companies included in the *BELEXline* index.

The paper is divided into four interdependent units. The first part is dedicated to the theoretical and empirical foundations of the research in order to develop hypotheses. The sample and research methodology are described in the second part, while the research results are presented in the third part of

the paper. In the last section, the main conclusions are summarized and the limitations and recommendations for further research are pointed out.

THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Literature Review

The social aspect of business activities is highly important for companies in order to create a social environment in which knowledge about sustainability can be adopted and subsequently improved (Faber, Peters, Maruster, van Haren & Jorna, 2010). Based on the social performance disclosure, the impact of the organization on society can be considered, as well as the ability to manage potential risk that may arise from the organization's interactions with other institutions.

Disclosure of information about social indicators attracts the attention of researchers, who try to approach this issue from different aspects. Authors who have investigated the relationship between these indicators and financial performance of a company come to contradictory results. One reason is the fact that the conceptual foundations and determinants of social responsibility are relatively unexplored (Rowley & Berman, 2000). Given that social responsibility is a multidimensional concept, fundamentally different aspects of social responsibility can have different implications for a company's financial performance. This emphasizes the importance of focusing on specific elements of social responsibility in research (Margolis & Walsh, 2003). In addition, it is important to point out that financial performance can be measured in different ways. It is possible to use accounting indicators (e.g. ROA) as well as market value indicators (e.g. Tobin's Q, P/E ratio). Ullmann (1985) also states that the inconsistent relationship in the studies can be attributed to various factors such as sample size, industry affiliation and methodology applied. Table 1 shows the results of individual studies in which the relationship between social performance and financial performance of companies was investigated.

Table 1. The nature of the relationship between social performance and financial performance identified in the empirical literature

Nature of the relationship	Representative references
Positive	Sun, 2012; Rodgers, Choy & Guiral, 2013; Chen, Feldmann & Tang, 2015;
Negative	Brammer, Brooks & Pavelin, 2006; Surroca & Tribó, 2008;
No relationship	Soana, 2011; Salmani Mojaveri, Daftaribesheli & Allahbakhsh, 2016.

Source: Authors

As can be seen in Table 1, some studies have identified a positive relationship between social and financial performance of companies, suggesting that CSR can contribute to increasing their profitability. In contrast, some authors come to the conclusion that this relationship is negative. The third group of authors point out in their works that the connection between social and financial performance does not exist, which implies that socially responsible behavior of companies does not contribute to profitability, but also does not deteriorate it (Galant & Cadez, 2017).

Hypotheses Development

The theoretical basis for explaining the idea of sustainability reporting, as well as the connection that exists between this form of reporting and financial performance of companies can be found in institutional theory, legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory and signaling theory (more in: da Conceição da Costa Tavares & Portugal Dias, 2018). Institutional theory is based on the view that institutional pressures and social interactions influence the formulation of organizational activities (Herold, 2018). In line with this theory, companies disclose CSR information since they believe that favorable relationships with stakeholders can contribute to increased financial returns, inasmuch as they adapt to stakeholder norms, which is an instrument of legitimacy, to show compliance with those norms. (da Conceição da Costa Tavares & Portugal Dias, 2018). The theory of legitimacy starts from the fact that companies must disclose certain information about environmental or social indicators in order to convince society that their activities are permissible and contribute to social value, gaining the support of the community in which they operate, resulting in benefits such as better market opportunities, and ultimately leading to the company value increase (Yawika Kurnia & Handayani, 2019). Viewed from a stakeholder perspective, disclosure of CSR information leads to stronger external links, better risk management, lower capital costs and a sustainable competitive advantage in the future (Orlitzky, Schmidt & Rynes, 2003; Lo & Sheu, 2007). According to signaling theory, sustainability disclosure, e.g. company policy in social and environmental areas, reduces the potential conflicts between management and shareholders, and sends positive signals to the markets which should increase firm value and stock price.

For the purposes of this research, it is important to review the reporting practices on sustainability of companies in Southeast European countries. In their study, Krivačić & Antunović (2015) investigate the practice of non-financial reporting in Croatia, with the results showing that the companies in the sample mainly disclose information on social performance. Ermenc, Klemenčić & Rejc Buhovac (2017) show that the sustainability reports in Slovenia contain mainly qualitative information aimed at clarifying the relationship between the company and its employ-

ees. Knežević, Pavlović & Stevanović (2017), in their research conclude that companies listed on the Belgrade Stock Exchange report on sustainable development very superficially. Considering the structure of the sample companies, a modest stakeholder pressure to the companies at the Serbian capital market, as well as the lack of normative requirements on sustainability reporting on the one hand, and the analyzed theoretical framework of the other hand, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 1: *In accordance with the practice of social performance disclosure in emerging markets, it is possible to distinguish companies from the BELEXline index according to the level of sustainability reporting.*

In addition to the impact of environmental and economic dimensions of sustainable development, the literature has specifically investigated the impact of social indicators on the financial performance of companies. Research conducted by Edmans (2012) shows that firms with high levels of employee satisfaction generate high long-run share returns. Faleye & Trahan (2011), in their research also conclude that there is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and financial performance of the company. A study by Chen, Feldmann & Tang (2015), shows a positive correlation between categories of human rights, as well as product responsibility and return on equity. Research by Ermenc et al., (2017) indicates that sustainable business of companies in Slovenia leads to better financial performance in the first and second year, as well as in the first three years after measuring the company's sustainability. Having in mind theoretical framework, particularly signaling theory, the results of previous empirical studies, as well as the research sample, the following hypothesis is defined:

Hypothesis 2: *The social performance disclosure in companies whose shares are constituents of the BELEXline index is relevant for the financial success of the company.*

SAMPLE AND METHODOLOGY

The empirical study was conducted on a sample of companies included in the BELEXline Index in the period from 2014 to 2018. One of the reasons for opting for this time period is the fact that, according to the Law on Accounting from 2013, large and listed companies shall, through their Business Reports, publish information on certain dimensions of sustainable business, starting from 2014 (Law on Accounting, 2013, art. 29). The analysis of 34 companies that were included in the BELEXline Index on September 16, 2019 was initially performed. However, the final sample does not include the companies “Fintel energija” and “Žitopek” due to the fact that the consolidated financial statements were not available for the observed period. The final research sample consists of 32 companies.

Based on the results of relevant previous researches (López, García & Rodríguez, 2007; Galant & Cadez, 2017), the following ratio indicators were used to express the financial success of the company: *net profit rate (NPR)*, *rate of return on assets (ROA)*, *rate of return on equity (ROE)*, *current liquidity ratio (CLR)*, *quick liquidity ratio (QLR)*, *P/E ratio (P/E)*, *net working capital ratio (NWCR)* and *indebtedness ratio (IR)*. The explanation of the financial indicators can be found in Appendix A.

In order to assess the level of disclosure of social performance of the companies in the sample, a Disclosure Index was formulated. Hierarchical cluster analysis was used to statistically determine similarities and differences between companies, taking into account the level of social performance disclosure (for more details, see: Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2009). In this paper, the Ward clustering method (Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2009) and the Gower similarity measure (which is useful for combining continuous and categorical data types) (Gower, 1971) were used. The testing of the second hypothesis is based on the statistical non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test application, which in statistics examines the differences between two independent groups on a continuous scale (Pallant, 2010). A value of $p < 0.05$ was used as statistically significant.

Social Performance Disclosure Index (SPDI)

The calculation of Disclosure Index, as one of the approaches to content analysis, implies that the presence or absence of certain information is primarily determined by a simple binary coding method (e.g. assign 1 if information exists or 0 if information is omitted) and then the index is calculated based on the summary result of all selected information (Ehsan, Nazir, Nurunnabi, Raza Khan, Tahir & Ahmed, 2018).

The social dimension of sustainable development has been taken into account and covered by the following GRI standards: *GRI 401: Employment*, *GRI 403: Occupational Health and Safety*, *GRI 404: Training and Education* and *GRI 413: Local Communities*. In accordance with the practice of disclosing social indicators in the Republic of Serbia, eleven indicators that make up the Index structure have been identified: *qualification structure (QS)*, *gender structure (GS)*, *age structure (AS)*, *number of employees (NOE)*, *termination of employment (TE)*, *voluntary activities (VA)*, *employee training (ET)*, *employee support (ES)*, *injuries at work (IW)*, *work days lost due to work injuries (WL)*, *internal and external communication capabilities (IEC)*. The explanation of the social indicators can be found in Appendix B.

The positions of Index in this paper are coded with 0 (if the information about indicators is not disclosed), 1 (if the information in the report is descriptive) or 2 (the information is disclosed and of a quantitative nature). SPDI is determined as a sum of equally weighted Index positions giving the possible maximum Index value of 22.

RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Below are the results of the research conducted for this paper. An overview of the counted values (0, 1 and 2) of social indicators by years is first given within the section with results and discussion (Table 2).

Table 2. Overview of the values of social indicators

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>0-information is not disclosed</i>					<i>1-information is descriptive</i>					<i>2-information is quantitative</i>				
	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
QS	21	20	19	19	18	0	0	0	0	0	11	12	13	13	14
GS	24	24	24	23	23	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	8	9	9
AS	23	23	24	23	22	2	3	1	1	1	7	6	7	8	9
NOE	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	32	32	32	32
TE	23	23	23	22	21	0	0	0	0	1	9	9	9	10	10
VA	28	28	28	28	28	3	2	3	2	2	1	2	1	2	2
ET	23	23	23	22	21	7	5	4	5	6	2	4	5	5	5
ES	27	27	27	26	26	5	4	3	3	3	0	1	2	3	3
IEC	18	16	16	16	15	14	16	16	16	17	0	0	0	0	0
IW	30	30	30	30	29	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	3
WL	31	30	30	29	29	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	2

Source: Authors' calculation

Based on the data presented in Table 2, it can be seen that social indicators in the observed period generally have a value of 0 and 1. Accordingly, the examined reports provide qualitative information that cannot be practically used to assess changes in the quality of disclosure over time. The most common quantitative information is information on the number of employees and the qualification structure, which indicates the fact that the companies in the sample are oriented towards disclosing indicators that are easily quantified and do not expose companies to additional efforts and costs with regard to their collection and disclosure. Reporting on injuries at work and lost working days due to injuries at work is not at a satisfactory level, given the fact that information on these indicators is available in the reports of only three companies (2 companies disclose quantitative data, while 1 company reports descriptive information). In addition to these indicators, one of the least reported is the indicator on voluntary activity, since 28 companies do not disclose information about it.

Descriptive Statistics

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis are presented in Table 3. The table shows the minimum, the maximum for financial indicators and SPDI, followed by the mean and the standard deviation.

Table 3. Results of descriptive statistics

Financial indicators	Number of companies	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
NPR	32	-23.97	1.01	-0.09	1.93
ROA	32	-0.78	0.86	0.03	0.12
ROE	32	-2.24	0.96	0.02	0.28
CLR	32	0.22	64.34	4.01	7.29
QLR	32	0.08	64.29	3.33	7.20
NWCR	32	-0.64	0.70	0.20	0.27
IR	32	0.01	1.32	0.35	0.28
P/E	32	-116.97	365.23	14.84	44.45
SPDI	32	2.00	21.00	5.99	4.96

Source: Authors' calculation

According to the results presented in Table 3, profitability indicators indicate a low level of profitability of the analyzed companies, given that the average value of ROE is 2.3% and ROA 3.4%. The net profit margin is characterized by a high standard deviation (1.93), which suggests that net profit margins differed among the analyzed companies. The average values of liquidity indicators (4.01 in the current ratio and 3.33 in the quick ratio), indicate the fact that companies have a satisfactory amount of liquid assets to settle short-term liabilities. The data from the table show that the average indebtedness ratio of companies is 34.7%, which means that the liabilities of companies amount to one third of total assets. The P/E ratio is characterized by a very high standard deviation (44.44) which indicates a large diversity of P/E ratio in the companies from the sample during the analyzed period. The mean of the SPDI index is 5.99, while the minimum (2.00) and maximum (21.00) values indicate significant variations in the disclosure level of social indicators of companies included in the BELEXline index.

Results of Cluster Analysis

According to the hierarchical clustering method, companies are classified into two clusters in all the years (Table 4). The first cluster includes companies that disclose information on the largest number of social indicators and which have higher values of the SPDI compared to companies grouped in the second cluster, which is characterized by a lower level of disclosure of analyzed indicators. Based on the data from

Table 4, changes in the structure of the cluster can be noticed, considering that during the observed period there were changes in the level of reporting in the companies from the sample.

In the first cluster, six companies (ALFA, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL) stand out, which reported on the largest number of indicators during the five-year period. Starting in 2016, there has been a shift in transparency in some companies, so the company NIIS is now in the first cluster, and since 2017 the company MTLC as well. Companies from the first cluster are characterized not only by a significant level, but also by a better quality of reporting on socially responsible business. The results of cluster analysis in the last three years are in line with the expectations that the companies recognized as socially responsible in practice report on social dimension of sustainability significantly more than the other companies in the sample.

Table 4. Results of cluster analysis

Cluster	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
I	ALFA, MTLC, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL, FITO	ALFA, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL	NIIS, ALFA, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL, TIGR, LSTA	NIIS, ALFA, MTLC, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL, FITO, LSTA, SJPT, VBSE, VDAV,	NIIS, ALFA, MTLC, KMBN, JMBN, DNOS, GLOS, IMPL
II	NIIS, TIGR, SJPT, LSTA, STUP, VDAV, TRBG,TRGO M, VBSE, GMON, NSSJ, INEU, IRTL, EPIN, KOPB, TGAS, ENHL, JESV, RMKS, PPVA, VPDU, SVRL, AVEN, AERO	NIIS, MTLC, TIGR, FITO, SJPT, LSTA, STUP, VDAV, AERO, VBSE, TRBG,TRGO M GMON, NSSJ, INEU, NSSJ, INEU, IRTL, EPIN, KOPB, TGAS, ENHL, JESV, KOPB, TGAS, RMKS, PPVA, VPDU, SVRL, AVEN	MTLC, FITO, SJPT, STUP, VDAV, VBSE, AERO, TRBG,TRGO M GMON, KOPB, NSSJ, INEU, IRTL, EPIN, KOPB, TGAS, PPVA, VPDU, RMKS, SVRL, PPVA, VPDU, SVRL, AVEN	TIGR, AERO, STUP, TRBG,TRGO M GMON, NSSJ, INEU, IRTL, EPIN, KOPB, TGAS, RMKS, PPVA, VPDU, AVEN	AERO, TIGR, FITO, LSTA, SJPT, STUP, VDAV , VBSE, TRBG,TRGO M GMON, NSSJ, INEU, IRTL, EPIN, KOPB, TGAS, ENHL, JESV, KOPB, TGAS, RMKS, PPVA, VPDU, PPVA, VPDU, SVRL, AVEN

Source: Authors' calculation

Note:* Symbols from the Belgrade Stock Exchange were used to indicate companies

For companies grouped in the second cluster, reporting on social indicators during the observed period is extremely low, given the fact that 14 companies from this cluster (which make up 43% of the sample) disclosed information in their reports only on the number of employees. Also, these companies mainly disclose qualitative information on social indicators.

In order to examine Hypothesis 2, test statistics were performed using the Mann-Whitney U Test. According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, in 2014 (Table 5) it is noticed that a statistically significant difference in financial performance between the companies of the observed clusters exists only when it comes to the net working capital ratio ($p = 0.04$).

In 2015, the Mann-Whitney U test rejected the null hypothesis for the P/E ratio indicator ($p=0.003$), with the obtained results showing that companies which have higher SPDI also have statistically significantly higher P/E ratio. The test statistics indicate that in 2016, as well as in 2015, a statistically significant difference between clusters exists only in terms of P/E ratio ($p=0.04$). With respect to the other financial indicators, no statistically significant differences were found between the two clusters. The Mann-Whitney U test results from 2017, show that there is a statistically significant dif-

Table 5. Mann-Whitney U test statistics results^a

	2014			2015			2016			2017			2018							
	MWU	WW	Z	Sig.	MWU	WW	Z	Sig.	MWU	WW	Z	Sig.	MWU	WW	Z	Sig.				
NPR	81.0	381.0	-0.65	0.51	77.5	428.5	-0.02	0.98	96.0	372.0	-0.31	0.75	100.5	290.5	-0.88	0.37	44.0	344.0	-2.27	0.02
ROA	91.0	127.0	-0.22	0.82	55.0	76.0	-1.11	0.26	80.0	125.0	-0.98	0.32	100.5	290.5	-0.88	0.37	69.0	369.0	-1.17	0.23
ROE	92.5	128.5	-0.15	0.87	67.0	88.0	-0.53	0.59	99.0	144.0	-0.18	0.85	72.5	262.5	-1.96	0.05	43.5	343.5	-2.29	0.02
CLR	59.0	359.0	-1.61	0.10	58.0	409.0	-0.96	0.33	98.0	143.0	-0.23	0.81	108.5	298.5	-0.57	0.56	75.5	375.5	-0.89	0.37
QLR	53.0	353.0	-1.87	0.06	53.5	404.5	-1.18	0.23	91.0	136.0	-0.52	0.60	115.5	305.5	-0.30	0.75	77.0	377.0	-0.82	0.40
NWCR	50.0	350.0	-2.00	0.04	53.5	404.5	-1.18	0.23	96.5	141.5	-0.29	0.76	102.5	292.5	-0.80	0.42	74.0	374.0	-0.95	0.34
IR	92.0	128.0	-0.17	0.86	77.0	428.0	-0.04	0.96	66.5	342.5	-1.55	0.12	104.0	294.0	-0.74	0.45	89.0	389.0	-0.30	0.76
P/E	60.0	96.0	-1.56	0.11	17.0	38.0	-2.94	0.003	55.5	100.5	-2.01	0.04	68.0	159.0	-2.13	0.03	77.0	113.0	-0.82	0.40

a. Grouping Variable: Klaster

Source: Authors' calculation

Note: Symbols used in the table have the following meanings: MWU – Mann-Whitney U test, WW – Wilcoxon W test, Z – Z-value, Sig – Asymptotic statistical significance levels (2-tailed)

ference between the clusters not only in terms of P/E ratio ($p=0.03$), as in the previous two years, but also in terms of ROE ($p=0.05$). In 2018, a statistically significant difference between clusters was found in terms of the net profit rates ratio ($p=0.02$) and ROE ($p=0.02$).

Based on the data presented in the previous table, it can be seen that the results of the Mann-Whitney U test indicate a statistically significant difference between clusters in terms of at least one financial indicator, which can be argued that Hypothesis 2 is partially proven. The results of the statistically significant difference between the clusters in terms of P/E ratio, which are indicated by the test statistics from 2015, 2016 and 2017 are encouraging, since they indicate the fact that emerging markets, such as the Belgrade Stock Exchange, valorize disclosure of social indicators.

CONCLUSION

This paper, focused on the analysis of the relevance of social performance for financial success of the selected Serbian companies, led us to several conclusions.

Firstly, the level of reporting on social dimension of sustainability in the companies from the sample in the period 2014-2018 is not at a satisfactory level. The practice of reporting on sustainability of companies in Serbia can be explained by a combined consideration of the legitimacy and the institutional theory. The low level and quality of reporting is a consequence of the modest pressure of stakeholders on companies to harmonize their activities with the norms of the social community and, accordingly, to disclose more information on socially responsible business. In addition, the lack of institutional normative pressures on sustainability reporting is evident.

Secondly, the results of hierarchical analysis showed that the first hypothesis was confirmed, considering that the companies were grouped into two clusters in accordance with the disclosure of information on social indicators. The first cluster includes companies that report the largest number of social indicators and which also have the highest value of SPDI, while the second cluster includes companies with a lower level of disclosure.

Thirdly, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test showed that a statistically significant difference between clusters exists in terms of individual financial indicators. Thus, the second hypothesis in the paper is partially confirmed. As a market value ratio, P/E ratio offers a financial portrait of publicly traded companies, it captures the idea of what a firm's investors think of its performance and its future prospects. Accordingly, the results of test statistics from 2015, 2016 and 2017, which show that a statistically significant difference between the two clusters exists in terms of P/E ratio, are particularly significant, given that they unequivocally show that the Serbian capital market, despite its emerging character, values information on corporate social responsibility.

Given that investors in the Serbian capital market are increasingly interested in additional non-financial information and that the results have shown that disclosure of social performance is relevant to certain financial indicators, it is necessary for the companies from the sample to improve the level and quality of CSR information disclosure.

At the very end, it is necessary to point out one of the limitations in this paper which refers to the sample size, considering that only 32 companies were included in the research. Also, the paper analyzes only the impact of social dimension of sustainability. With all this in mind, future research should be based on a larger database and should include the information on the disclosure of economic and environmental indicators.

Acknowledgement: *The paper is a part of the research done with the support of the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union within the project no. 611831-EPP-1-2019-1-RS-EPPJMO-MODULE.*

Appendix A: Explanation of financial indicators used in the research

<i>Financial indicators</i>	<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Description</i>
Net profit rate	NPR	Represents the ratio of net profit to operating income
Rate of return on assets	ROA	It is determined as the ratio of operating profit and the average value of total operating assets
Rate of return on equity	ROE	It is determined as the ratio of net profit and average value of capital
Current liquidity ratio	CLR	Represents the relationship between working capital and short-term liabilities
Quick liquidity ratio	QLR	It is calculated by deducting inventories from current assets and dividing that difference by short-term liabilities
Price to Earnings ratio	P/E	Represents the quotient of the market price of a share and earnings per share
Net working capital ratio	NWCR	It is calculated by deducting short-term liabilities from current assets and dividing this difference by operating assets
Indebtedness ratio	IR	It is determined by dividing the sum of short-term and long-term liabilities by the total liabilities

Appendix B: Explanation of social indicators used in the research

<i>Social indicators</i>	<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Description</i>
Qualification structure	QS	Total number of employees during the reporting period, according to the qualification structure
Gender structure	GS	Total number of employees during the reporting period by gender
Age structure	AS	Total number of employees during the reporting period by age
Number of employees	NOE	Total number of employees during the reporting period
Termination of employment	TE	The number of employees whose employment was terminated during the reporting period
Injuries at work	IW	Total number of work-related injuries
Work days lost due to work injuries	WL	Total number of lost working days due to work-related injuries
Employee support	ES	Number of implemented projects that support the welfare of employees and improve employee motivation
Employee training	ET	Average hours of training per year per employee and/or the cost of employee education programs
Voluntary activities	VA	Implemented volunteer activities with focus on supporting socially vulnerable categories
Internal and external communication capabilities	IEC	The possibility of communication and open dialogue with employees and stakeholders through printed and electronic corporate media

Source: (GRI, 2020)

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РЕЛЕВАНТНОСТ ОБЕЛОДАЊИВАЊА ДРУШТВЕНИХ ПЕРФОРМАНСИ ЗА ФИНАНСИЈСКЕ ПЕРФОРМАНСЕ ПРЕДУЗЕЋА УКЉУЧЕНИХ У *BELEXline* ИНДЕКС

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Резиме

У складу са повећаним захтевима стејкхолдера за већом транспарентношћу и у циљу заштите њихових интереса, владе и берзе у развијеним земљама, као и у земљама у развоју, интензивирају притисак на компаније од којих се очекује да послују на друштвено одговоран начин, углавном кроз обавезу објављивања информација о друштвено одговорном пословању, како би се елиминисале или ублажиле негативне екстерналије које оне могу проузроковати. Из наведених разлога, јавиле су се бројне иницијативе које иду у правцу проширења традиционалног модела финансијског извештавања, који би, осим финансијских, укључио и бројне нефинансијске показатеље. Обелодањивање информација о друштвеним перформансама привлачи пажњу истраживача, па поједини аутори који су истраживали везу између њих и финансијских перформанси компаније долазе до различитих закључака.

Примарни циљ нашег истраживања је идентификовање релевантности друштвених перформанси за финансијску успешност компанија листираних на домицилној берзи у периоду од 2014. до 2018. године. Предмет анализе су 32 компаније које чине корпу индекса *BELEXline*. Иако број компанија укључених у истраживачки узорак није велики, узорак се може сматрати репрезентативним с обзиром на то да Закон о рачуноводству из 2013. године обавезује велика и листирана предузећа да почев од 2014. године, кроз Извештај о пословању, објављују информације о одређеним димензијама одрживог пословања. Истраживање је спроведено коришћењем података о изабраним финансијским и друштвеним перформансама компанија из финансијских извештаја. За потребе овог рада развијен је индекс обелодањивања друштвених перформанси са циљем да се анализира транспарентност извештавања о друштвено одговорном пословању компанија укључених у *BELEXline* индекс.

Резултати истраживања показују веома низак ниво праксе извештавања о друштвеним перформансама који је последица недовољне мотивисаности компанија на српском тржишту капитала да обелодањују већи број информација, па се у њиховим Извештајима о пословању углавном појављују површне информације о друштвеним индикаторима. У складу са тим, обелодањивање информација о друштвеним перформансама релевантно је само у погледу појединих финансијских показатеља.

ПРАВО И КРИМИНАЛИСТИКА
LAW AND CRIMINAL SCIENCE

ПРЕМА ТРАНСДИСЦИПЛИНАРНОМ ПРИСТУПУ У ПРОУЧАВАЊУ И КОНТРОЛИ КРИМИНАЛИТЕТА

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Апстракт

Проучавање криминалитета и уређивање реакције друштва на њега предмет је истраживања, прије свега, кривичних наука. До сада је доминирао дисциплинарни приступ, који је водио парцијалном посматрању наведеног проблема, што показује читав низ слабости, посебно када су у питању сложени криминални феномени као што је организовани криминалитет, тероризам или тешки случајеви корупције. У том смислу, постоји потреба да се у једној цјелини обраде наведени феномени, и то са криминалополитичког и криминолошког аспекта, затим у оквиру кривичног материјалног и кривичног процесног права (норме којима се третирају ове појаве у њиховом општем и посебном дијелу, као и међународоправни акт који обухватају наведене појаве). Након тога, неопходно је дати криминалистички приступ у откривању и доказивању ових кривичних дјела, а потом и пенолошки приступ, тј. извршење кривичних санкција за учиниоце тешких кривичних дјела. Заправо, интеграција наведених знања, уз прихватање и оних на практичном искуству заснованих, представљају једини рационалан избор у сузбијању тешких облика криминалитета. Циљ овог рада је да се превазиђу дисциплинарна ограничења у кривичноправном реаговању на тешке облике криминалитета, те да се кроз мултидисциплинарни и интердисциплинарни приступ креће ка трансдисциплинарности у истраживањима овог проблема. Требало би да овај приступ укаже на правце даљег развоја и унапређења теоријских и практичних кривичноправних принципа реаговања на тешке облике криминалитета.

Кључне речи: криминалитет, кривично право, кривично процесно право, криминологија, трансдисциплинарност.

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TOWARDS A TRANSDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN THE STUDY AND CONTROL OF CRIME

Abstract

Starting from the fact that heavy forms of crime have a great impact on the society as a whole, states are expected to administrate an adequate response. An apparent precondition for swift response at the appearance of heavy crimes is to gain an accurate and deep understanding of these phenomena. In this regard, authors point out that an approach based on strict separation and isolation between criminal doctrines in dealing with the subject of its study is considered to be outdated, i.e., multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity arise as a necessary approach. The authors suggest that, as knowledge of different sciences is required within the common problem formulation, it is necessary for experts in individual disciplines to work together while retaining their disciplinary approaches and views. This approach is believed to be successful in enabling comprehensive consideration of the problem and leading to its solving. When it comes to heavy forms of crime, it is clear that this type of social problem will not be solved without transdisciplinary cooperation, and there is no dilemma that these criminal phenomena should be viewed and studied with the integration of all knowledge of criminology, criminal – law (material, procedural and executive), as well as forensic science. Overcoming disciplinary restrictions in responding to severe forms of crime through a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches will lead to the improvement of theoretical and practical principles of responding to severe forms of crime. Authors have analyzed the assertion that problems of contemporary society that are too complex for one discipline, that they require the connection of various sciences and scientific disciplines in the entire process of acquiring knowledge about heavy forms of criminality, on the one hand, and its resistance, on the other.

Key words: Crime, Criminal Law, Criminal Procedure Law, Criminology, Transdisciplinary.

УВОД

Криминалитет је предмет проучавања многих наука и научних дисциплина. У том смислу, доминирао је дисциплинарни приступ проучавању овога проблема истраживања, тако да различите науке, на различит начин (проблем, предмет, метод истраживања), настоје да објасне ову изразито негативну друштвену појаву. Раније је била наглашена строга раздвојеност дисциплина, што је у значајној мјери утицало и на ограниченост знања о посматраном проблему истраживања. Наиме, настојања да се криминалитет, као укупност криминалних понашања на одређеном простору и у одређеном тренутку (Бошковић, 1999, стр. 156), објасни из перспективе једне науке била су тешко остварива (Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 31). Прихваћен је став да хиперспецијализација и фрагментација дисциплина спречавају приступ ширем и повезаном знању, због чега монодисциплинарно образовање постаје неодговарајуће, а што упућује на развијање сарадње између дисциплина, између различитих центара културе и знања, те између различитих знања (научних, умјетничких и техничких) (Це-

ровац, 2013, стр. 16). Због тога су кретања све више усмјерена ка испитивању заједничког проблема из различитих перспектива, кроз интеракцију разних дисциплина, односно прожимањем спознаја из једне науке у другу. Заправо, савремена научна истраживања више се баве сложеним питањима која није могуће сагледати из перспективе једне науке и која истовремено траже продубљено знања из више области (Venville, Rennie, 2010. цитирано у Крњаја, 2014, стр. 189–202). Тако до изражаја долази интердисциплинарност као посебан однос двије дисциплине и мултидисциплинарност као међусобни однос више дисциплина истовремено¹ (Милошевић, 2006, стр. 334). Због тога се савремени приступ кривичним наукама заснива на мултидисциплинарности и преношењу знања између појединих кривичних и других наука како би се предмету истраживања приступило цјеловито и системски (Симоновић, Шикман, 2014, стр. 249–262).

Ипак, изражена динамичност, не само криминалитета већ и друштва уопште, захтјева још новији приступ који је у стању да одговори савременим изазовима, а то је трансдисциплинарност. Наиме, док монодисциплинарни/мултидисциплинарни/интердисциплинарни приступ сваки за себе генерише нова знања, трансдисциплинарност води изван одвојених академских дисциплина дајући нови облик знања кроз интеракције између академске заједнице и цивилнога друштва² (Nicolescu, 1998. цитирано у Церовац, 2013, стр. 20). Овај приступ настоји да отклони недостатке апстрактног и теоријски уопштеног научног приступа, с једне стране, и једностав-

¹ У том смислу Божо Милошевић (2006) наводи да „и у једном и у другом случају више је ријеч о исказаној свијести научника да се неки проблем не може да ријешити 'из угла' неке посебне науке, односно дисциплине, него о томе да се (претходно) утврде и образложе заједничка епистемолошко-теоријска становишта која би потпомогла ту њихову намјеру” (Милошевић, 2006, стр. 334), док Живка Крњаја (2014) сматра да „интеграција знања није само интегрисање научних сазнања него и вриједности на основу којих се учествује у активностима, способности да се размишља на начин који је одговарајући за проблеме и питања са којима се суочава заједница; способности комуницирања о овим питањима и способности да се размишља и укључи у различите начине рјешавања ових проблема и питања” (Крњаја, 2014, стр. 189).

² Наиме, истраживачки процеси који се могу назвати „трансдисциплинарни” имају циљ проширења истраживачког процеса изван уобичајених ограничења дисциплинарног, али и мултидисциплинарних и интердисциплинарних облика знања и метода. У дисциплинарном контексту интеграција се дешава на нивоу (дисциплине) интерно дефинисаних истраживачких проблема; у мултидисциплинарном контексту на нивоу практичних циљева и проблема; у интердисциплинарном контексту на нивоу научних питања која се појављују на простору између различите дисциплине, док се у трансдисциплинарном контексту интеграција дешава на нивоу простора између ових научних питања и друштвених проблема (Bergmann, Jahn, Knobloch, Krohn, Pohl, Schramm, 2012, p. 41).

ног и често некомпетентног практичног поступања, с друге стране³. Заправо, суштина трансдисциплинарности је у интеграцији свих знања која су потребна за разумијевање овако сложених појава као што је, свакако, криминалитет.

Када је у питању истраживање криминалитета, наведени приступ посебно је важан код појединих облика криминалитета, при чему су тероризам, организовани криминалитет и тешки облици корупције и привредног криминалитета најбољи примјери⁴. Наиме, наведени тешки облици криминалитета су засигурно проблем који захтијева, поред осталих, трансдисциплинарни приступ, јер се, прије свега, ради о друштвеном проблему за чије рјешавање теоријска знања нису довољна, већ је неопходан вишедимензионални приступ за његову анализу и друштвену контролу. У том смислу можемо говорити о сарадњи наука у проучавању тешких облика криминалитета (интердисциплинарност) или коришћењу метода различитих наука (мултидисциплинарност), односно интеграцију дисциплинарног и недисциплинарног (укључивање и других облика знања, ненаучног знања), кроз интеракцију науке и друштва (трансдисциплинарност). Још је Водинелић (1985) тврдио да „акцент на цјеловитости и интегративности својстава објеката истраживања тих система који су комплекси узајамно дјелујућих елемената” јесте „најдрагоцјенија тековина општег прихватања самог појма систем” (стр. 46), што се у суштини подудара са трансдисциплинарним приступом у проучавању и контроли криминалитета.

Наведени концепт би требало допринијети сагледавању кривичноправног приступа у контроли тешких облика криминалитета, као и практичне импликације њихове примјене. Овај рад треба да одговори на усклађеност кривичноправног садржаја у теоријском смислу и његову примјењивост у практичном смислу⁵. Методологија за писање рада је стандардна која се корист у овако осмишљеним

³ Исто тако, у потпуности прихватамо ставове да „захтјеви за интер-/мулти- и транс-дисциплинарношћу не могу да пониште значај посебних наука и научних дисциплина у сазнавању њиховог предмета/појава, али су значајни као епистемолошко-методолошки покушаји критичког разматрања њихових сазнајних домета. То само може да оснажи иманентне принципе научног сазнања, а посебно принцип објективности и поузданости” (Милошевић, 2006, стр. 335).

⁴ Не треба занемарити ни чињеницу појаве нових облика криминалитета који се нису до сада испољавали. Прије свега, мислимо на оне облике криминалитета повезане са развојем савремених технологија четврте дигиталне револуције.

⁵ На примјер, у ранијим истраживањима смо недвосмислено утврдили да казна политика судова не одговара казненој политици законодавца, када су у питању кривична дјела организованог криминалитета, што се, прије свега, огледа у изрицању релативно благих казни за ова кривична дјела (види опширније: Симовић, Шикман, 2019).

истраживањима теоријског карактера. Поред тога, у писању рада аутори користе главне налазе истраживања које су објединили и публиковали у монографији „Кривичноправно реаговање на тешке облике криминалитета” у издању Правног факултета Универзитета у Бањој Луци (2017) (Симовић, Шикман, 2017).

ДИСЦИПЛИНАРНИ ПРИСТУП У ПРОУЧАВАЊУ КРИМИНАЛИТЕТА – ТРЕНУТНО СТАЊЕ

До сада је преовладавао дисциплинарни приступ у проучавању криминалитета, уз аутономност науке и/или научне дисциплине, независног оквира дјеловања, посебних метода истраживања, сопственог појмовно-категиорјалног апарата и других специфичности које једну науку и/или научну дисциплину чине науком. Тако је криминалитет као предмет истраживања директно везан за криминологију и њене дисциплине, право, посебно кривичноправне науке, криминалну политику, криминалистику, али и неке друге дисциплине као што је психологија, социологија, филозофија, политичке науке, медицина, економија, историја (Owen, Fradella, Burke, & Joplin, 2014), као и поједине природне и техничке науке, укључујући форензичке науке. У том контексту, примјена разноврсних метода физике, хемије и физичке хемије у сузбијању криминалитета подразумева претходно познавање битних карактеристика савременог криминалитета (Максимовић, Бошковић, Тодорић, 1998, стр. 3).

Криминологија

Криминологија је наука која, користећи сазнања и истраживачке поступке наука о човјеку и друштву, емпиријски проучава криминални феномен, тј. злочин, његовог извршиоца и жртву, криминалитет и начин на који друштво реагује на криминално понашање (Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 21–22), као укупност злочина у датим временским и просторним димензијама. Из овако одређене дефиниције произлази да је криминологија самостална, јединствена и синтетичка наука, теоријско-емпиријског карактера, коју обиљежава интердисциплинарност и мултидисциплинарност. Тероризам, организовани криминалитет и тешки облици корупције и привредног криминалитета су *par excellence* криминолошке теме, при чему је задатак криминологије да одреди шта су ове појаве, који су узроци и услови који погодују његовом настанку, те какви су облици испољавања. Ипак, одговор на ова питања није једноставан. На примјеру организованог криминалитета је то најочигледније, јер је питање концептуализације организованог криминалитета различито третирано у криминолошкој литератури и обично се разматра у поглављу имовинског криминалитета (Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 114; Игњатовић, 2016,

стр. 29) или као посебна врста криминалитета (Barkan, 2006, р. 394). О тероризму се више расправља у наукама безбједности, па чак и међународним односима, док се у правним наукама своди на ниво политичких деликата. Корупција је вишедимензионалан друштвени феномен, која превазилази оквире једне науке, а самим тим и криминологије. Чини се данас да о наведеним феноменима „сви све знају”, уз јасно одсуство систематских и објективних знања, која су кључна особина научно заснованог приступа.

Криминална политика

Криминална политика, у најопштијем смислу, представља основни облик друштвене реакције на криминалитет и она је посебна теоријска и практична дисциплина која се бави спречавањем криминалитета као индивидуалне и масовне појаве⁶ (Милутиновић, 1984). То је систем мјера, начина и поступака које држава – друштво примјењује против учинилаца кривичних (и других кажњивих) дјела (Хорватић, Цвитановић, 1999, стр. 23). У савременим приступима реаговања на криминалитет примјетна је тежња да се са групе репресивних мјера све више прелази у сферу превентивних у смислу предупређења њеног настанка. У том смислу, систем друштвене реакције на криминалитет и у домаћим условима показује све израженије црте контроле, умјесто спрјечавања и сузбијања. Мада се чини да каснимо са пуним учешћем у савременим интегративним процесима и да смо на маргинама глобализације, неки проблеми домаћег кривичноправног система јесу добрим дијелом посљедица промјена глобалистичког карактера (Соковић, 2011, стр. 213). Из тог разлога Снежана Соковић (2011) закључује да савремени кривичноправни систем карактерише и више кажњавања и више превенције истовремено (Соковић, 2011, стр. 212). Наравно, да се „више кажњавања”, тј. строжа кривичноправна реакција односи на тешке облике криминалитета, што је и уочљиво кроз криминалнополитичко одређјење у погледу сузбијања ових кривичних дјела, како у законодавном тако и у институционалном смислу. Друго је питање оправданости, сврсисходности и ефикасности „нових” кривичноправних инкриминација и „нових” субјеката (прије свега, суд-

⁶ У теорији је прихваћен став да Криминална политика има двије димензије: теоријску (теоријско концепирање криминалне политике) и практичну (осмишљавање и спровођење у живот друштвених акција, метода и мјера) (Милутиновић, 1984, стр. 135). У том смислу, Игњатовић (2011) сматра да је уобичајено прављење разлике између криминалне политике као науке, која критички проучава ту дјелатност и као вјештине, као практична, планска дјелатност којом се организује дјеловање друштвених субјеката усмјерених на сузбијање злочина и криминала (Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 28).

ске, тужилачке и полицијске специјализације) у сузбијању ових облика криминалитета.

Кривично право

Кривично право се уобичајено схвата на јединствен начин, комбиновањем његових материјалних и формалних компонената. Оно је законско право (Стојановић, 2009, стр. 3) и представља скуп законских прописа о кривичним дјелима и кривичним санкцијама којима се одређена понашања предвиђају као кривична дјела и за њихове извршиоце прописују казне и друге кривичне санкције које им се уз испуњење одређених услова могу изрећи (Бабић, 2008, стр. 19). Предмет овако дефинисаног кривичног права састоји се из три елемента: кривичног дјела, учиниоца кривичног дјела и кривичне санкције⁷ (Чејовић, 2006, стр. 26). Савремено кривично право засновано је на кривичном дјелу које представља основу укупног кривичног правног система⁸, при чему је учинилац кривичног дјела (физичко или правно лице) његов аутор и на њега се примјењују кривичноправне санкције, што је заправо укупни смисао и функција кривичног права.

Изазов за савремено кривично право је како инкриминисати сва понашања која сматрамо тешким облицима криминалитета, а да истовремено таква норма буде прецизна, јасна и недвосмислена. У том смислу, све више влада забринутост да би експанзија⁹ кривичног права у неким случајевима могла довести у питање и неке основне принципе правне државе (Стојановић, Коларић, 2014), због чега је потребно утврђивање адекватног модела кривичноправног реаговања на тешке облике криминалитета, који би дао очекиване резултате. Наиме, очигледан је проблем кривичноправног експанзионизма јер савремени кривични законодавац, како то наводе Стојановић и Коларић (2015), „све више шири простор у коме интервенише улазећи тако и узону у којој нема оправдања за кривичноправну интервен-

⁷ У проучавању ова три елемента кривично право настоји да открије и објасни њихову садржину и значај полазећи од њихове правне, односно кривичноправне природе, али, исто тако, сагледавајући њихов значај као елеменат који има одређену улогу (Чејовић, 2006, стр. 26).

⁸ Кривично дјело представља исходиште за сва друга кривичноправна питања и стога је оно једини легитимни основ његовог постојања (Бабић, 2008, стр. 20).

⁹ Како то наводе Стојановић и Коларић (2014) „легитимност коришћења кривичноправне репресије у односу на организовани криминалитет, тероризам и корупцију само по себи није спорна, али границе и оштрина те репресије изазива одређене дилеме. Кривично право не може да ријеша проблеме организованог криминалитета, тероризма и корупције и од њега то и не треба очекивати” (Стојановић, Коларић, 2014, стр. 9).

цију што ће у блиској будућности довести до кризе легитимитета кривичног законодавства” (Стојановић, Коларић, 2015, стр. 111).

Кривично процесно право

Кривично процесно право је грана кривичноправних наука која се односи на кривични поступак. Кривични процесни однос развија се између суда и осумњиченог, односно, оптуженог и тужиоца (процесних субјеката): суд има одређена права и дужности према странкама (осумњиченом, односно, оптуженом и тужиоцу), а странке одређена права и дужности према суду и између себе, тј. правни однос је тростран (Васиљевић, 1981, стр. 5). Обавезе једног субјекта су, по правилу, права за другог, поред тога што постоје и самостална права и обавезе појединих субјеката (Симовић и Симовић, 2016). Кључно питање које се поставља пред кривичнопроцесно право јесте одговара ли постојећи кривични поступак сузбијању тешких облика криминалитета или је пак потребан посебан кривични поступак за ова кривична дјела. У овом контексту посебно се разматра питање услова и начина примјене појединих кривичнопроцесних института, као што су посебне истражне радње, одузимање нелегално стечене користи, свједок-сарадник у кривичном поступку и др. Истовремено, питање које се поставља тиче се и кривичнопроцесних субјеката, тј. тога да ли су кривичнопроцесни субјекти који поступају и у другим поступцима (суд, тужилаштво, полиција) „способни” за сузбијање тешких облика криминалитета или је потребна њихова специјализација. Надаље се дискутује о начину и врстама такве специјализације, те о ефектима њихове организације и примјене¹⁰. На овом мјесту долазимо и до кључних питања савременог кривичног процесног права, а то је: У којем обиму је нужно ограничити људска права осумњичених за потребе ефикасног кривичног поступка? На овом степену развоја, ни данас, након више од 70 година прокламованих људских права и слобода и преко 30 година међународног ангажмана на плану сузбијања организованог криминалитета – немамо ријешену наведену ситуацију (Симоновић, Шикман, 2020, стр. 12).

Криминалистика

Криминалистика са својим дисциплинама (тактиком, техником, методиком, оперативом и стратегијом) изучава, усавршава и

¹⁰ Преовладава мишљење да потребу за посебним кривичним поступцима, као и специјализацији државних органа у сузбијању тешких облика криминалитета, детерминиште стање таквог криминалитета у држави (Шикман, 2011), што је пак предмет криминолошких, емпиријских истраживања, која нису посебно развијена код нас.

прилагођава најадекватније и на практичном искуству засноване методе откривања, истраге и доказивања свих кривичних дјела (упореди: Кривокапић, 1996, стр. 101; Симоновић и Матијевић, 2007, стр. 2–22; Симоновић, 2004, стр. 7–8), а самим тим и тешких кривичних дјела. Криминалистичке методе које се примјењују у оперативној дјелатности откривања и истраге тешких кривичних дјела претстављају најефикасније и најрационалније начине обављања оперативно-тактичких радњи које полицијске агенције предузимају усклађујући своје поступање са основним криминалистичким принципима, као и „златним питањима криминалистике”. То је примјењиво према оперативно-тактичкој ситуацији, а све са циљем бржег поступања у откривању и разјашњавању ових кривичних дјела, њихових извршилаца, те доласка до истине као елементарног циља криминалистичке тактике, односно, оперативне криминалистике, као и спречавање криминалне дјелатности (упореди Шикман, 2011; Симоновић, Шикман, 2017, стр. 628). Као што се може видјети, криминалистика и није искључиво везана за кривични поступак, односно онај његов дио истраге већ обухвата и многе значајне аспекте свог предмета изван кривично процесне сфере у широкој криминалистичко-тактичкој дјелатности, која претходни кривичном поступку (Водинелић, 1985, стр. 19).

Ефикасно супротстављање тешким облицима криминалитета, са аспекта криминалистичких метода и средстава, подразумијева више чинилаца. Прије свега, потребно је познавање основних етиолошких и феноменолошких обиљежја и других специфичности ових облика криминалитета. Имајући у виду наведено, али и предмет криминалистике уопште, можемо закључити да криминалистички аспекти откривања и истраге кривичних дјела организованог криминалитета и других тешких облика криминалитета истражују законмјерности значајне за откривање и доказивање кривичних дјела организованог криминалитета и других тешких облика криминалитета и учинилаца тих дјела, као и превенцију примјеном криминалистичких метода (постоје методе превенције које нису криминалистичке) (Симовић, Шикман, 2017, стр. 684).

Кривично извршно право

Кривично извршно право као грана позитивног правног система и као дио кривичног права представља систем правних прописа (законског и подзаконског карактера) који одређује поступак, начин и услове извршења изречених кривичних санкција од стране кривичног суда, чиме се омогућава финални стадијум примјене кривичног права (Стојановић, 2002, стр. 27). Да би одређена кривична санкција, која је прописана у кривичном праву и изречена од надлежног суда могла у потпуности да оствари законом прописану сврху (функцију – заштиту

и обезбјеђење најзначајнијих друштвених добара и вриједности), потребно је да она буде на одговарајући начин и извршена од за то надлежних државних органа. То указује на утилитаристички карактер извршног кривичног права које своје оправдање и *ратуо легис* налази у право у друштвеној корисности (Симовић, Шикман, 2017, стр. 529–530).

Када је ријеч о тешким облицима криминалитета, кривично извршно право бави се уређивањем организације, начина и поступка извршења кривичних санкција, у првом реду казни, и то казне лишавања слободе као најзначајније врсте казне за наведене облике криминалитета. Она заузима најзначајније мјесто, нарочито када су у питању тешка кривична дјела, дјела са елементима насиља, тероризам, као и дјела организованог криминалитета (Бабић, Филиповић, Марковић, Рајић, 2005, стр. 241). Таква позиција ове казне резултат је схватања да је она једини прикладни одговор и најдјелотворније средство реакције на најтеже видове кривичних дјела. Стога је она намијењена првенствено за теже облике кривичних дјела, док се за лакши па, донекле, и средње тешки криминалитет прикладнијим показују друге кривичне санкције које представљају њене замене, прије свих, новчана казна и условна осуда, а у новије вријеме и неке друге кривичноправне мјере алтернативне кривичноправне реакције (Симовић, Шикман, 2017, стр. 539).

МУЛТИДИСЦИПЛИНАРНОСТ И ИНТЕРДИСЦИПЛИНАРНОСТ У ПРОУЧАВАЊУ ТЕШКИХ ОБЛИКА КРИМИНАЛИТЕТА

Мултидисциплинарност и интердисциплинарност је нужан методолошки приступ у проучавања криминалитета, посебно његових тешких облика. Дакле, потребна су знања различитих наука како би се наведени проблем истраживања разумио и разјаснио. Мултидисциплинарност подразумијева дјеловање двије дисциплине или више дисциплина у рјешавању постављеног проблема, при чему је полазиште, као и оквир дјеловања, матична дисциплина. Код мултидисциплинарног приступа стручњаци за поједине дисциплине раде заједно, задржавајући притом своје дисциплинарне приступе и погледе (Церовац, 2013, стр. 17). Интердисциплинарност подразумијева дјеловање двије дисциплине или више дисциплина кроз сарадњу различитих наука и научних дисциплина у рјешавању заједничког проблема истраживања. Интердисциплинарно истраживање стога захтијева заједничку формулацију проблема и, барем донекле, заједнички методолошки оквир за истраживање различитих тема или аспеката истраживања проблема (Церовац, 2013, стр.18).

Наведени приступ у већој (нпр. криминологија, криминалистика) или мањој (кривичноправне науке) мјери подразумијева комбиновање постојећих методолошких приступа, укључујући и ко-

ришћење метода других наука (мултидисциплинарност) и међусобну сарадњу (интердисциплинарност) у односу према проблему истраживања, са одговарајућим структурним и функционалним особеностима и облицима интеракције, задржавајући притом своје дисциплинарне приступе и погледе. Најбољи примјер је Криминологија, која је, иако самостална наука, у исто вријеме и синтетичка наука у којој се сустичу и интегришу сва сазнања која о криминалном феномену постоје (Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 22). Посебно је значајан њен мултидисциплинарни карактер, кроз обједињавање мноштва знања из различитих дисциплина у проучавању конкретних проблема истраживања. То су: антропологија, биологија, медицина, психологија, психијатрија, право, филозофија, социологија, етнологија, економија, етика и политичке науке. Неке од њих проучавају појединца, док друге проучавају средину у којој он живи и дјелује (Schmallegger, 2004. цитирано у Игњатовић, 2011, стр. 22).

Ипак, како наводи Сабо (2010), „епистемиолошки раскорак у друштвеним наукама и његове последице на криминологију представљају феномен двоструког раскорака: прва, инфериорност теорија друштвених наука, дјелимично је последица слабости њиховог концептуалног апарата и друга, концептуални апарат криминологије, пати од још већег раскорака у односу на напредна истраживања која се одвијају у биолошким и хуманистичким наукама” (Сабо, 2010 стр. 13). Слично је и са криминалистиком, која користи методе формиране у другим наукама, методе преузете у криминалистици и изворне криминалистичке методе. Тако, велики је број наука од којих криминалистика преузима методе и примјењује их при остваривању својих задатака, (општенаучне, универзалне методе, посебне методе, специјалне методе), али не треба ни занемарити ни оне методе које је формирала криминалистика, само за њу карактеристичне и које проистичу из специфичности њеног предмета проучавања (Симоновић, 2004, стр. 10–11). Овај приступ разумијевању криминалитета је од суштинског значаја, а кључна је интеграција података, теорија и општих ставова сваке дисциплине (Бартол, 1999), јер без примјене правила криминалистичке норме кривичног права (материјалног и процесног) не могу доћи у праву функцију коју им је намијенио законодавац¹¹ (Корајлић, 2012, стр. 5).

¹¹ На примјер, криминалистичко учење о фиксирању доказне информације представља значајан теоријски концепт којим се објашњава процес стицања доказног карактера криминалистичких информација. Значај криминалистичког учења о фиксирању доказне информације најбоље илуструје Водинелићева сентенца: „Криминалиста стоји и пада са (не)организованомшћу, (не)систематичношћу, (не)доследношћу очувања сигнала у њиховом тоталитету и откривању нових

Према томе, приступ који се заснива на строгој подвојености, изолованости, између кривичних наука у бављењу предметом свога изучавања сматра се превазиђеним. Криминални феномени, нпр., кривично дјело, фактори који доприносе његовом настанку, третирање феномена од стране органа контроле (формалне и неформалне), међусобно су повезани и међуусловљени (на разним нивоима посматрања) и у коначном исходу су мјерљиви са аспекта успјешности контроле криминалитета¹² (Симоновић, Шикман, 2014, стр. 249–262).

Када су у питању тешки облици криминалитета, мултидисциплинарност и интердисциплинарност имају своју примјену. Нема никакве дилеме да се ови криминални феномени могу искључиво посматрати или схватити са становишта различитих наука и дисциплина. Заправо, инкриминације појединих кривичних дјела (кривично право) не могу се ваљано дефинисати уколико не познајемо његове облике испољавања (криминологија), нити ће откривање и доказивање ових кривичних дјела (кривично процесно право, криминалистика) бити довољно без коришћења и примјене знања природних и техничких наука (форензичке науке). Дакле, повезивање различитих наука и научних дисциплина неопходно је у цјелокупном процесу стицања знања о тешком криминалитету, с једне стране, и његовом супротстављању, с друге стране.

информација у сталном (дис)континуитету” (Водинелић, 1985, цитирано у Шикман, 2016, стр. 17–24).

¹² На примјер Симоновић и Шикман су у раду под називом „Мултидисциплинарни приступ контроли разбојништва” (*Правни живот*, Београд, 9/2014, стр. 249–262) поставили основну тезу да је неопходно постојање трансфера знања између различитих кривичних наука како би се разумјели феноменологија и различите типологије извршилаца разбојништва. На основама трансфера знања између криминологије, криминалне психологије, виктимологије, кривичног права и криминалистике, могуће је сачинити квалитетније репресивне и превентивне стратегије контроле кривичног дјела и његових извршилаца. У раду су актуелизовали питање заштитног објекта кривичног дјела разбојништва и аргуменују се разлози за измјену постојећег рјешења. Приказују се новији резултати криминолошких и криминалопсихолошких истраживања у вези са мотивационим карактеристикама извршилаца кривичног дјела разбојништва, што може да има утицај на криминалистичке приступе овом кривичном дјелу. У раду се анализирају неке основне типологије извршилаца кривичних дјела разбојништва и указује на њихов значај за више кривичних наука истовремено (Симоновић, Шикман, 2014, стр. 249–262).

КА ТРАНСДИСЦИПЛИНАРНОСТИ У ИСТРАЖИВАЊУ ТЕШКИХ ОБЛИКА КРИМИНАЛИТЕТА – НОВИ КОНЦЕПТ

Како смо у уводу навели, трансдисциплинарност је најпогоднији „радни оквир” за означавање савремених научних и културних процеса, које карактеришу комплексност, хибридниост, нелинеарност и хетерогеност (Thompson-Klein, 1998, цитирано у Milošević, 2006, str. 5–6). Дакле, за сложене процесе је потребно, како то наводи Божо Милошевић (2006), многоструко сазнање, сазнање које „трансцендира” теоријско-методолошке границе сваке дисциплине (Милошевић, 2006, стр. 336). Овај приступ омогућава да се схвати сложеност проблема истраживања, узму у обзир различити научни и друштвени приступи проблема истраживања, укључе друга специфична знања, те развијање знања и праксе који промовишу општи интерес (Pohl, Hirsch Nadorn, 2008, p. 111). У суштини овог тренда је растућа потреба за новим врстама знања, осим оног које се ствара у једној дисциплини или у привременој сарадњи између дисциплинама, с обзиром на то да су проблеми савременог друштва сувише сложени за једну дисциплину (McGregor, 2004, p. 2).

У том смислу, Су Мекгрегор (2004) наводи да је трансдисциплинарно истраживање конципирано као и: „(а) посебна врста интердисциплинарних истраживања, укључујући научне и ненаучне изворе или праксе и (б) нови облик учења и рјешавања проблема који укључује сарадњу међу различитим дијеловима друштва, укључујући и академску заједницу, ради испуњавања комплексних изазова друштва” (McGregor, 2004, p. 2). Кроз заједничко учење, знање свих учесника се повећава и ова нова учења користе се да колективно осмисле рјешења за замршене друштвене проблеме који се преплићу. Од дијалога између универзитета и других дијелова друштва нови резултати и нове интеракције се производе, нуди нову визију природе и стварности (McGregor, 2004, p. 2). Поред тога, методолошки изазови, различите перспективе, специфична знања, промовисање заједничких вриједности (Pohl, Hirsch Nadorn, 2008, p. 111–121), као и конкретни интегративни приступ, укључујући интегративни метод, процедуре и инструменте (Bergmann, et.al., 2012) – само су нека од питања која су обухваћена овим новим концептом.

Трансдисциплинарна истраживања се усредсређују на широк спектар питања, почевши од климатских промјена, одрживог развоја (Bernstein, 2015), али и многих других питања која се тичу друштвених проблема као што су криминал, загађење, СИДА, сиромаштво или глад како унутар тако и изван граница дисциплине, уз могућност нових перспектива (Fradella, 2014, p. 1–13). Наиме, потпуно је јасно да је криминалитет, као сложен друштвени проблем који захтијева свеобухватне политике и праксе његовог разумијевања и сузбијања (Klein, 2003), јесте она врста друштвених проблема који неће бити

ријешени без трансдисциплинарне сарадње и разумијевања (Fradella, 2014, р. 1–13). Тероризам, организовани криминалитет, корупција и тешки облици привредног криминалитета управо су такви криминални феномени. Не само да су нарочито изражени и друштвено штетни већ су изразито сложени, динамични криминални феномени, чије су главне карактеристике управо хибридноста и хетерогеност.

С тим у вези, Хенри Фрадела (Fradella, 2014, р. 10) истиче да је од суштинског значаја за криминологију и кривичноправне науке да прихвате методе и знања многих других дисциплинарних приступа, али и да олакшају трансдисциплинарне интеракције између теоретичара, емпиријских истраживача, практичара, друштвених активиста и заинтересованих грађана¹³. Стјуарт Хенри (Henri, 2012, р. 77) то назива „оквиром за интегративни плурализам”, при чему као важно истиче „прво, да се размотре значење мултидисциплинарних приступа у односу на дисциплинске приступе, прије преласка на интердисциплинарна, а затим да се укаже на вриједности трансдисциплинарних приступа који препознају мноштво облика и нивоа производње знања” (Henri, 2012, р. 84).

Тешки облици криминалитета као предмет трансдисциплинарних истраживања

Тешки облици криминалитета су, као предмет проучавања, једно од најсложенијих питања из више разлога. Наиме, сâм појам тешког криминала је доста дискутабилан и подложен расправама различитог карактера (научним, практичним итд.), а самим тим и отежано одређење појма тешког криминала (Стојановић, 2009). Уобичајно се под тешким облицима криминала могу подразумевати кривична дјела и они облици кривичних дјела који су квалификовани тежим околностима за чије извршење је предвиђена тежа кривична санкција (казна затвором¹⁴), као одговарајућа друштвена реакција на учињено кривично дјело. С тим у вези, у кривичном законодавству Босне и Херцеговине, у којем је примијењен систем релатив-

¹³ Аутори *Приручника за трансдисциплинарна истраживања* (2008) наводе да је коришћење научних знања најчешће био једносмјеран процес, при чему су озбиљне последице проузроковане игнорисањем знања корисника, ка којима су усмјерена научна знања. У том смислу, циљ трансдисциплинарних оријентисаних истраживања јесте да се превазиђе неслагање између стварања знања у академским круговима, с једне стране, и захтеви за знањем за рјешавање друштвених проблема, с друге стране (Hoffmann-Riem et al, 2008, р. 4).

¹⁴ У систему казни и кривичних санкција уопште, казна затвора заузима најзначајније мјесто, нарочито када су у питању тешка кривична дјела, дјела са елементима насиља, тероризам, као и дјела организованог криминалитета (Бабић, 2008).

но одређених казни (одређујући доњу и горњу границу казне), као тешке облике криминала могли би сматрати она кривична дјела и оне облике кривичних дјела за које је као доњи минимум предвиђена казна затвора у трајању од најмање три године¹⁵. За сва ова кривична дјела може се рећи да представљају тежа кривична дјела, односно кривична дјела која се манифестују кроз насиље и напад на основне вриједности човјека и друштва¹⁶. Поред тога, за најтеже облике тешких кривичних дјела учињених умишљајно може се прописати и затвор у трајању од 20 до 45 година или, како га закон назива, дуготрајни затвор (Бабић и др., 2005, стр. 250), односно доживотни затвор у Републици Српској¹⁷.

Ипак, при одређивању тежине кривичног дјела, постоје и одређене ограничења. Овај критеријум није најпрецизнији и изазива одређене дилеме јер се поставља питање да ли се ова казна може прописати и за основни облик дјела или само за његове квалификоване или тешке облике¹⁸. Дакле, као што се може уочити, одређење тешког криминалитета на наведени начин било би доста екстензив-

¹⁵ Одређивање доњег минимума казне затвором од три године као референтне тачке за одређење тешког облика криминала – врло је дискутабилно јер додатно шири круг кривичних дјела која се могу сматрати тешким облицима криминала. У другим кривичноправним системима (нпр. Србија) тешким кривичним дјелима сматрају се она дјела за која је запријеђена казна затвором од пет година или строжа казна. У прилог овој тези говори и чињеница да је Палермо конвенцијом из 2000. године као тешко кривично дјело одређено дјело за које је предвиђен доњи минимум кажњавања од четири године.

¹⁶ Када је ријеч о посебном дијелу кривичног законодавства, основна су питања у вези са тешким криминалитетом она попут: Обухватају ли описи постојећих кривичних дјела све облике овог криминалитета?; Одговарају ли санкције предвиђене за њих потреби за сузбијањем тог облика криминалитета? (Бабић и др., 2005; Симовић, Шикман, 2017, стр. 93).

¹⁷ Тако је последњим измјенама Кривичног законика Републике Српске из 2021. године уведена казна доживотног затвора која се може прописати за најтежа кривична дјела и најтеже облике тешких кривичних дјела (члан 45) (*Кривични законик Републике Српске – КЗ РС*, Службени гласник Републике Српске, бр. 64/2017 и 104/2018 – одлука УС и 15/2021).

¹⁸ Иако је она у највећем броју случајева предвиђена за квалификоване случајеве кривичних дјела, постоји и извјестан број кривичних дјела код којих то није случај, јер се она и не појављују у тежим облицима. Из законске формулације према којој се ова казна може прописати само за најтеже облике кривичних дјела, произлазило би закључак да се казна дуготрајног затвора не може прописати за основне облике кривичних дјела, па се одмах поставља питање оправданости њеног прописивања за неке основне облике. Ипак се чини да законодавац оваком формулацијом није подразумијевао само квалификоване облике кривичних дјела, већ је првенствено мислио на тешка кривична дјела, односно најтеже случајеве таквих дјела. На овај начин законодавац је сâм изабрао случајеве када се може изрећи ова казна (Бабић и др., 2005).

но, неодређено и непрецизно. Због тога, све чешће се тешка кривична дјела прецизно наводе посебном листом кривичних дјела¹⁹. Из тог разлога сматрамо оправданим одређење таквих кривичних дјела, прихватајући неке од познатих начина, и то комбинацијом листе кривичних дјела (каталога дјела) тешког криминала и одређењем минималне границе казне затвором од најмање пет година. На овај начин имали бисмо прецизније и јасније одређење тешких кривичних дјела, сузили бисмо круг тих кривичних дјела, те ускладили наше законодавство са стандардима међународних правних аката (Симовић, Шикман, 2017). Узимајући у обзир све наведено, као тешке облике криминалитета издвојили смо тероризам, организовани криминалитет и корупцију, те тешке облике криминалитета у привредно-финансијском пословању.

Тероризам је феномен који се данас посматра са више аспеката. Он је истовремено облик угрожавања безбједности, облик политичког насиља и врста криминалитета. Ако у обзир узмемо наведене перспективе, јасно је да је тероризам предмет трансдисциплинарних истраживања. Наиме, интеграција знања о тероризму којим се угрожава безбједност држава, али и међународне заједнице у цјелини (облик угрожавања безбједности), који се користи ради остваривања, прије свега политичких циљева (облик политичког насиља²⁰) и све то се испољава у одређеном простору и у одређеном времену (врста криминалитета²¹) – може нам помоћи да схватимо о каквом се феномену ради, шта чини његову структуру и како се испољава. То је важно да би се на што адекватнији начин одговорило тероризму, као тренутно највећем изазову данашњице.

У кривичноправном смислу, питање је шта се сматра тероризмом у смислу деликата кривичног права и на који начин проце-

¹⁹ Тако, на примјер, у Енглеској и Велсу тешко кривично дјело (*serious offence*) јесте „једно од оних кривичних дјела наведених у Листи 1, Прилога 1 или дјело за које суд сматра да је довољно озбиљно да буде третирано као тешко кривично дјело”. Листа 1 Прилога 1 обухвата следећа кривична дјела: трговина дрогом, трговина људима, трговина оружјем, проституција и дјечија проституција, оружана пљачка, прање новца, превара, пореска утаја, корупција и мито, уцјена, кривична дјела против интелектуалне својине, еколошка кривична дјела, као и завјера и покушај завјере, односно подстицање и помагање завјере [Serious Crime Act 2007 (Commencement No. 1) Order 2008].

²⁰ У последње вријеме све се више говори о насилном екстремизму и радикализацији који воде ка тероризму, при чему се терористичка радикализација сматра процесом у коме појединац постепено прихвата терористичко насиље као могућ, можда чак и легитиман, начин дјеловања (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, 2014).

²¹ У литератури, терористичким криминалитетом назива се врста делинквенције и типологија криминалних појава усмјерених на нарушавање опште сигурности људи и остваривање других криминалних циљева (Бошковић, 1999, стр. 355).

сно реаговати на таква понашања²². Ипак, бројни су проблеми с којима се сусреће кривичноправна наука приликом дефинисања тероризма. Они превазилазе проблеме дефинисања тероризма уопште, будући да кривичноправна дефиниција тероризма треба ову појаву да дефинише тачно (недвосмислено), јасно и логички одређено помоћу других појмова. Најтежи проблеми одређивања кривичног дјела тероризма јесу проблеми политичке природе, што је засигурно разлог због чега нема општеприхваћене дефиниције тероризма. Позната су многобројна настојања да се превазиђу ови проблеми – деполитизацијом кривичног дјела тероризма – и њихово претварање у кривична дјела општег права. Оваква настојања нису дала озбиљније резултате (Јаковљевић, 1997, стр. 27–41). С друге стране, ширење криминалне зоне када су у питању кривична дјела у вези са тероризмом (јавно подстицање за тероризам, врбовање, обука и друго) отварају нове дилеме у погледу прикупљања доказа и извођења доказа у конкретним кривичним предметима²³. Управо интеграција знања је кључна за разумијевање овог сложеног феномена, а самим тим и осмишљавање адекватног одговора на њега, при чему ће кривичноправно реаговање бити само један од његових елемената.

Организовани криминалитет је типичан проблем истраживања која захтијевају трансдисциплинарни приступ. Одсуство јасне представе о томе шта се заправо може сматрати организованим криминалитетом²⁴ (Игњатовић, 2016, стр. 29), детерминише и проблеме у

²² „Ова интересовања иницирана су не само практичним захтјевима који се постављају на плану задовољења потреба за изналажењем адекватних превентивно-безбједносних и репресивних ретрибутивних мјера заштите од терористичких кривичноправних понашања, већ и чињеницом да се наше представе о тероризму, као кривичном дјелу *sui generis* кривичног права, налазе још увијек у почетној фази научног сазнања.” (Јаковљевић, 1997, стр. 14)

²³ На примјер, кривично дјело Јавно подстицање на тероризам је у уској вези гарантованим правом на слободу изражавања, те у многим случајевима граница између јавног подстицања на тероризам и слободе изражавања није потпуно јасна, те може представљати основ за битну повреду одредаба кривичног поступка, због чега је потребно наћи равнотежу између ефикасне борбе против тероризма и заштите људских права и слобода (Стојановић, Коларић, 2014, стр. 181).

²⁴ У потпуности смо сагласни са констатацијама да је тешко наћи појам из домена кривичних наука који изазива толико недоумица и спорова као што је организовани криминалитет (Игњатовић, 2016, стр. 15). У том смислу, Ђорђе Игњатовић (2016) закључује „да се научници не могу сложити ни око чега што се на њега односи, осим да је састављен из двије ријечи и да потиче из енглеског језика” (Игњатовић, 2016, стр. 15). Због тога је врло често присутно поједностављено, па чак и банализовано, схватање организованог криминалитета које карактерише одсуство озбиљнијих истраживачких приступа. Управо одсуство објективног научног приступа и детерминише наша „знања” о организованом криминалитету (Шикман, 2013, стр. 347–362).

кривичноправном реаговању на овај криминални феномен. Кривичноправни инструменти су не само изузетно значајни, већ и неизоставан фактор адекватности борбе против ове врсте криминалитета²⁵ (Бејатовић, 2016, стр. 64). У том смислу, Станко Бејатовић (2016) наводи да свако друштво које хоће да се успјешно супротстави овој врсти криминалитета мора поставити три кључна питања, а потом и одговорити на њих: прво, који су фактори кривичноправне адекватности борбе против организованог криминалитета, друго, да ли су они присутни у држави и друштву и треће, ако нису, шта би требало предузети по том питању (Бејатовић, 2016, стр. 64). До одговара на ова и друга питања која се пред нас постављају²⁶ можемо доћи само на основу изучавања која ће на прави начин узети у обзир сложеност и вишезначност организованог криминалитета као феномена (Игњатовић, 2005, стр. 198). Зато и прихватимо ставове Ђорђа Игњатовића (2005) да се организованим криминалитетом потребно, прије свега, бавити као научноистраживачим проблемом, а пред науку поставити задатак да одговори на та питања (Игњатовић, 2005, стр. 198). Јасно је да је трансдисциплинарни приступ најадекватнији оквир, који би обезбједио интеграцију научних спознаја и практичних знања о овом феномену, а самим тим и постизање најефикаснијег начина реаговања на организовани криминалитет.

Корупција и привредни криминалитет, као тешки облици криминалитета²⁷, предмет су и нашег посматрања (Симовић, Шикман, 2017). То се, прије свега, манифестује у спрези корупције, привредног криминалитета и организованог криминалитета и у одређеним односима у којима се испољава та корелација. Врло је мало емпиријских истраживања мјерења утицаја корупције на организовани криминалитет и обратно. Према мишљењу Луиз Шели (2005а, 2005б), традиционалним криминалним групама потребна је држава и привреда како би задржале своје богатство и даље се развијале, док „нове” криминалне групе, које често потичу из постконфликтних зе-

²⁵ Узрочна повезаност између кривичноправних инструмената и адекватности сузбијања криминалитета посебно је изражена код организованог криминалитета, који је данас глобални проблем. Разлог је тај што је управо код ове врсте криминалитета неспорна нужност, неопходност и оправданост што ефикасније примјене мјера кривичне принуде (Бејатовић, 2016, стр. 64).

²⁶ Једно од кључних питања је „зашто је криминално подземље тако успјешно у обезбјеђивању илегалних добара и услуга, да ли је само због своје организације и/или због подршке коју има код представника власти и легитимног бизниса.” (Игњатовић, 2005, стр. 198)

²⁷ Општеприхваћен је став да је корупција појава која је широко распрострањена у свим сегментима друштва и да обухвата широк спектар понашања која се могу манифестовати као кривична дјела, али и као прекршаји, дисциплинске повреде, па чак и етички и морални преступи.

маља, пуних хаоса и слабе владавине права, немају непосредног интереса за успостављање „партнерских” односа са државом. Оне користе институционалне слабости и корупцију како би још више де-стабилизовале државу и њене структуре, а све у циљу лакшег стицања профита (Shelley, 2005a, 2005b, p. 5–13, 101–111). Друга истраживања су прецизнија и указују на пет нивоа инфилтрације организованог криминалитета у јавни сектор, путем корупције²⁸ (Buscaglia, Gonzalez i William, 2005), док неки аутори указују на то да висококорумпирана друштва нуде мало могућности за избор. У таквим околностима, организовани криминалитет може представљати „пожељну алтернативу” за младе људе који су искључени из економских и политичких процеса. То би био типичан примјер Мертонове теорије аномије: у друштвима чији је основни циљ успјех који се мјери богатством, он доводи до стања аномије које појачава притисак да се тај циљ оствари на девијантан начин (цитирано у Barakan, 2006).

ЗАКЉУЧАК

Тешки облици криминалитета у великој мјери утичу на друштво у цјелини, како својом опасношћу тако и начином реаговања. Не само да се од држава очекује адекватан одговор већ се и од међународне заједнице очекује реакција на тероризам, организовани криминалитет и корупцију, с обзиром на то да се наведени феномени означавају и као пријетње за међународни мир и безбједност. Заправо, у времену конфузије, свакодневних терористичких напада, растуће тенденције трговине опојним дрогама, људским бићима, оружјем и експлозивним направама, страхом од ових облика криминалитета, те очекивањима од државе, трансдисциплинарни приступ се намеће као логичан начин да се наведене појаве што боље схвате и разумију, што је с јасан предуслов реаговања на њих.

Требало би да се сазнања о тешким облицима криминалитета и савременом кривичноправном приступу у њиховој контроли темеље, прије свега, на знањима о криминалном феномену, укључујући знања о условима и узроцима који доприносе његовом настанку и развоју, као и облике у којима се манифестује у спољном свијету. Криминологија приоритетно, а затим и друге дисциплине – треба да опишу етиологију и феноменологију тешких облика криминалитета

²⁸ Ово истраживање полази од политичких, друштвених, правних (посебно кривичноправних) и економских фактора, како би се објаснио раст организованог криминалитета везаног за корупцију у јавном сектору, на узорку од 67 земаља, широм свијета. Организовани криминалитет је мјерен кроз сложени индекс објективних индикатора, темељених на криминалним активностима (Buscaglia, Gonzalez i William, 2005).

онаквим каква она јесу. Поред емпиријских истраживања, неопходно је укључити и практична знања о криминалним феноменима, која би била предмет озбиљних анализа и дискусије. Уз то, политици сузбијања криминалитета треба приступити не искључиво у смислу предмета научне дисциплине Криминалне политике, већ у контексту кривичноправног реаговања на криминалитет путем Кривичног права, Кривичног процесног права, Криминалистике, па и шире од тога, укључујући и реакцију неформалних субјеката контроле криминалитета. Ова знања треба да дају одговор који су то начини реаговања на тешке облике криминалитета, укључујући, с једне стране, широк опис дјеловања (превентивно и репресивно), а са друге стране, прецизне и јасне норме кривичног права. Ова знања, такође, треба да обухватају систем научних, али практичних, на искуству заснованих знања.

Интеграција наведених знања је од кључне важности и она мора бити како хоризонтална тако и вертикална. Због тога се приступ који је заснован на трандисциплинарним истраживањима намеће као логично рјешење и очекивано је да ће у будућности бити све више заступљен.

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TOWARDS A TRANSDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN THE STUDY AND CONTROL OF CRIME

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Summary

Crime, as a phenomenon, is extremely complex because its execution is influenced by numerous factors. Therefore, it requires a multidisciplinary approach in order to adequately

understand and thus carry out its prevention by applying adequate measures. Some crimes such as terrorism, organized crime and corruption are even greater in their social danger because they pose a threat to international peace and security. Therefore, the subject of this paper is to observe crime, especially terrorism, organized crime and corruption from the criminal-political, criminological, criminal substantive, criminal procedural law, criminalistic and penal aspects with the goal of overcoming particular knowledge and creating comprehensive knowledge for a more efficient fight. Each of the mentioned criminal sciences should clarify crime from its aspect, but it is necessary to integrate all that individual knowledge in order to increase the safety of citizens.

CASE LAW OF THE EUROPEAN COURT OF HUMAN RIGHTS OF HATE CRIMES^a

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Abstract

The author deals with the case law of the European Court of Human Rights with regard to hate crimes. The paper presents and analyzes the Court judgments entailing the obligation to examine the existence of prejudice in the committed offenses, envisaged in Articles 2, 3 and 8 in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention. The Court's case-law initially pertained to hate crimes committed by state authorities, but it subsequently evolved to cover hate crimes committed by individuals. At the end of the paper, the author presents a normative framework of hate crimes in the Republic of Serbia and points out to the shortcomings in the mode of incrimination, as well as to the problem of not applying the standards established by the Court in investigating the existence of possible prejudice in the committed crimes.

Key words: hate crime, European Court of Human Rights, practice, Republic of Serbia.

ПРАКСА ЕВРОПСКОГ СУДА ЗА ЉУДСКА ПРАВА У ПОГЛЕДУ ЗЛОЧИНА МРЖЊЕ

Апстракт

Аутор се у раду бави праксом Европског суда за људска права у погледу злочина мржње. Његово излагање је структурирано на тај начин да наводи и анализира пресуде на основу којих је створена обавеза испитивања постојања предрасуде код извршених кривичних дела у погледу чланова 2, 3 и 8 у вези са чланом 14 Конвенције. Уједно, аутор истиче да се пракса Суда првобитно односила на злочине мржње почињене од стране државних органа, али да је она после еволуирала и обухватила злочине мржње извршене од стране појединаца. На крају рада аутор излаже нормативни оквир у погледу злочина мржње за

^a The paper is the result of theoretical research within the project funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the RS (contract registration number 451-03-68 / 2020-14 / 200120)

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Републике Србије, уз указивање на недостатке у начину инкриминације, али и на проблем непримене стандарда установљених од стране Суда у истраживању постојања могућих предрасуде код извршених кривичних дела.

Кључне речи: злочин мржње, Европски суд за људска права, пракса, Република Србија.

INTRODUCTION

Hate crimes fall into the category of violent crimes. They are part of general crime, but they differ from other criminal offences in terms of motivation, which is reflected in the existence of prejudice (bias). Hate crime is not a phenomenon peculiar only to the contemporary society because hate crimes have been part of human history since ancient times. Yet, this form of violent crime became the subject matter of interest of scientific thought only in the 1980s. Numerous criminal law and criminological studies on hate crimes have been published since then, but there is still room for further study of this phenomenon. Lately, the need to examine prejudices against people who are "different," as the essence of this form of crime, have been intensified with the outbreak of the migrant crisis, the war in Syria, the so-called the Arab Spring, and more.

In 2008, the European Union Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) adopted the so-called Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia - with special attention to the rights of victims of crime, obliging the Member States to effectively investigate and punish the existence of prejudice in the commission of crimes. Over the last decade, the European Court of Human Rights (hereinafter: the Court) has argued on several occasions that victims of hate crimes have the right not only to be generally recognized as victims of crime but also to have been victimized as a result of the perpetrators' prejudices. Based on the Warsaw Declaration of the Council of Europe (2005), there is a commitment to ensure a greater complementarity between the legal texts of the European Union and the Council of Europe. In this regard, the European Union has undertaken to transpose the aspects of the Council of Europe Conventions into the normative framework of the European Union. In other words, the EU Member States have undertaken to align their legislation with the obligations arising from the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (hereinafter: the Convention). According to Article 52 (3) of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2000/C 364/01), the meaning and scope of the rights protected by the Charter (such as Article 21 on the right to non-discrimination) should be interpreted in the same way as the corresponding right provided by the Convention (EU FRA, 2018, 2). In order to observe what obligations are envisaged for the EU Member States and for the Council of Europe member states, the paper will present the relevant practice of the Court on hate crimes and discuss the relevance of the observed cases for further practice.

*THE COURT'S CASE LAW ON ARTICLE 2 OF THE CONVENTION
CONCERNING HATE CRIMES*

In terms of Article 2 of the ECHR (right to life), we will first observe the case *Menson and Others v. UK* (app.no. 47916/99). In this case, Michael Menson, an African-American, was attacked by a racist gang in January 1997, when he sustained severe bodily injuries. He died on 13 February 1997, as a result of the attack. The attackers were soon arrested and sentenced to prison terms. Although they were convicted, a later investigation revealed that the actions of the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) were accompanied by numerous shortcomings, the most serious of which were reflected in their attitude that the victim set himself on fire. It was only two years later that the Metropolitan Police Service accepted that the victim had died as a result of an attack by a gang.

The court found that there were very serious shortcomings in the investigation into Mr Manson's death, which was contrary to the requirement of an effective investigation. Despite declaring the application in this case manifestly ill-founded, as the perpetrators were convicted and punished, the Court emphasized that the respondent State's legal system had properly demonstrated, in its final analysis and with reasonable expedition, its ability to enforce criminal law against those who unlawfully took the life of another, regardless of the racial background of the victim. However, in spite of the Court decision, the significance of this case is reflected in the fact that the Court has once again emphasized that Article 2 of the Convention imposes a procedural obligation to conduct an effective official investigation which should be able to determine the causes of violations and identify the responsible persons in view of punishment. Where death occurs, as in the case of Michael Manson, the investigation becomes even more important, given the fact that the essential purpose of such an investigation is to ensure the effective application of domestic laws that protect the right to life (*Paul and Audrey Edwards v. the United Kingdom*, § 69). At the same time, the greatest significance of this case is reflected in the Court's view that, where the attack is racially motivated, it is particularly important that the investigation be conducted vigorously and impartially, taking into account the need to continuously confirm the condemnation of racism in society, and preserving the confidence of minorities in the government's ability to protect them from the threat of racist violence.

This Court stance created the basis for determining the new duties of state bodies in connection with criminal offenses committed out of prejudice. This duty derives from Article 14 of the Convention (prohibition of discrimination) and is reflected in the obligation to investigate and discover racial motives. In this regard, we will present a case in which such a duty was promoted by the Court (EU FRA, 2018, 3).

In the case *Nachova and others v. Bulgaria* (app. no.3577/98 and 43579/98), the Court found that there had been a violation of the negative obligation under Article 2 of the Convention because, on 19 July 1996, the military police forces killed two Bulgarian nationals of Roma origin, Mr Angelov and Mr Petkov, while attempting to arrest them. The two men were members of a military construction unit. Due to unjustified absence, they were arrested and sentenced to prison terms, but they soon managed to escape. Military police were soon sent to deprive them of their liberty. However, during the arrest, the military police opened fire and killed them. The Court emphasized that Article 2 not only protects human life from intentional deprivation but also covers situations where the use of force is permitted, and which may result in the deprivation of life of a person. It was also emphasized that, in examining the alleged violation of Article 2 of the Convention, the Court must take into account not only the state authorities conduct but also all the circumstances of the case. The use of force must be absolutely necessary to achieve one or more of the objectives set out in Article 2 of the Convention (Dimovski, Jovanović, 2019: 80).

At the same time, the Court examined the existence of a violation of Article 2 in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention. In the present case, the Grand Chamber of the Court pointed out that it had not been established whether the killings were racially motivated, and no violation of Article 14 regarding the negative obligation envisaged in Article 2 of the Convention had been established. However, the Grand Chamber found that the domestic authorities had failed to conduct an adequate investigation into possible racist motives; the state failed to take all necessary measures and to investigate whether discrimination played a role in the critical event, thus violating Article 14 in relation to procedural obligations under Article 2 of the Convention. Thus, although it was not established before the Court that the members of the military police were racially motivated, it was the task of the respondent State authorities to investigate this matter, in accordance with its procedural obligation under Article 2.

When there is deprivation of a person's life, the Court emphasized that Articles 2 and 14 of the Convention impose a duty on public authorities to conduct an effective investigation, regardless of the racial or ethnic origin of the victim. At the same time, the authorities have an additional obligation to take all reasonable steps to detect the possible existence of a racist motive in an incident involving the use of force by civil servants. In the present case, notwithstanding the existence of the statement of witness M.M. on racist verbal abuse, which should have been a sufficient sign to domestic authorities of the need to investigate racist motives, such an investigation had not been conducted. Accordingly, the Court found a violation of the right to non-discrimination under Article 14, in conjunction with the procedural obligation, as one aspect of Article 2 of the Convention.

The Court considered that, when the domestic authorities did not conduct investigations to establish the existence of discrimination, thus neglecting the evidence on possible discrimination, strong conclusions and indications of a violation of Article 14 of the Convention could be drawn, which shifts the burden of proof to the respondent State. Concurrently, relying on the case facts, the Court emphasized that the domestic authorities failed to invoke a number of disturbing circumstances, such as excessive use of force and racist statements, and that it was justified to shift the burden of proof to the respondent State. In other words, it is up to the domestic authorities to prove, on the basis of additional evidence or a convincing explanation of the facts, that the specific events were not caused by discrimination by the state authorities.

The Court later found in its case-law that there had been a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 2 in procedural terms in a number of other cases. Suffice it to mention, for example, *Ciorcan and others v. Romania* (app. no 29414/09 and 44841/09) or *Angelova and Iliev v. Bulgaria* (app. no 55523/00). In addition, we should mention the cases of *Ognyanova and Choban v. Bulgaria* (app. no 46317/00), *Vasil Sashov Petrov v. Bulgaria* (app. no 63106/00) and *Mižigárová v. Slovakia* (app. no 74832/01), in which the Roma were deprived of their lives by the police and the Court found a violation of the procedural obligation under Article 2 of the Convention, but it did not find a violation of Article 14 of the Convention, because in specific cases there were no circumstances showing that the authorities “had in front of them information sufficient to warn them of the need to investigate possible racist pretensions in specific events“. In other words, unlike the case of *Nachova and others v. Bulgaria*, the domestic authorities in these three cases did not have before them any concrete elements that could suggest that the applicants’ victimization was a consequence of racial prejudice. Although there were reports of prejudice against Roma in those countries, the Court did not consider that the domestic authorities in the particular circumstances had sufficient information before them to warn them of the need to investigate possible racist scenes in the events leading to death.

For the sake of correct understanding of the obligations of state authorities in determining the existence of prejudices, we will cite a separate opinion of Judge David Thór Björgvinsson from the case of *Mižigárová v. Slovakia* (app. no 74832/01). Judge Björgvinsson considered that numerous reports show that “police brutality against persons of Roma origin at the relevant time was systemic, widespread and a serious problem in Slovakia.” On the other hand, most judges stressed that with regard to persons of Roma origin, this would not exclude the possibility that in a particular case the existence of independent evidence of a systemic problem, in the absence of any other evidence, would be sufficient to warn the authorities of a racist motive (*Mižigárová v. Slovakia*, §122). However,

although concerned about these reports, most judges were not convinced that the objective evidence itself was strong enough to suggest the existence of a racist motive. It should also be noted that dissenting opinions can be very important, as they indicate the direction of further change of the Court's practice, and it is not impossible for the Court to revise its understanding of this issue in the future.

In its practice, the Court has established the obligation to investigate the existence of discriminatory motives in criminal offences committed not only by state authorities but also by private persons. In this regard, we will return to the judgment of *Angelov and Iliev v. Bulgaria*, in which members of the Roma population were attacked by seven young men on 18 April 1996, when Angel Dimitrov Iliev was seriously injured. Reiterating the views taken in the cases of *Nachova and others v. Bulgaria* and *Ciorcan and others v. Romania*, the Court pointed out that it was completely unacceptable that the domestic authorities had not expeditiously conducted a preliminary investigation against the attackers, given the fact that the racist motives for the attack on the applicant's cousin were known to the domestic authorities at a very early stage of the investigation. As the investigation had been delayed for over 11 years, the statutory period of limitation had expired for a large number of attackers; the Court also noted that the perpetrators had not been charged with any racially motivated crime. Accordingly, the Court concluded that the domestic authorities did not make a clear distinction between this racially motivated crime and other non-racially motivated criminal offenses, which is incompatible with Article 14 of the Convention. Therefore, in the present case, the Court found that the applicants had infringed Article 14 in conjunction with Article 2 of the Convention in procedural terms.

THE COURT'S CASE LAW ON ARTICLE 3 OF THE CONVENTION CONCERNING HATE CRIMES

In its case-law, the Court has established an obligation to examine the existence of prejudice among other articles of the Convention. Thus, for example, the judgment in *Bekos and Koutropoulos v. Greece* (app. no 15250/02) reported that on 8 May 1998, at around 00:45, police officers responded to a telephone call concerning an attempt of two men of Roma origin, the applicants Bekos and Koutropoulos, to break into a kiosk. The incident was reported by Mr. Pavlikis, the grandson of the kiosk owner. The first applicant was trying to break into a kiosk with an iron bar, while the second applicant was guarding. Mr Pavlikis fought with the applicants, hitting the second applicant in the face (as alleged by the second applicant). At that moment, three police officers arrived at the scene. The first applicant first claimed to have been deprived of his liberty without being beaten. Then, one of the policemen took off his handcuffs and hit

him several times with a truncheon on his back and head. Following the arrest, the applicants were taken to the Mesolongi police station. During being taken to a cell, the first applicant was allegedly hit twice with a truncheon by one police officer, while another police officer hit him in the face. In the morning, he was taken to the interrogation hall, where he was allegedly beaten by three police officers in order to extract confessions for other criminal acts and information about who was involved in the sale of psychoactive substances in the given area. The second applicant stated that he had been abused throughout the hearing; he was first beaten with a stick, which was then pushed into his buttocks over his pants, and asked to smell the stench. Both applicants stated that could hear each other's screams during their interrogation.

The applicants claimed a violation of Article 3 (prohibition of torture) as well as Article 14 (prohibition of discrimination) in conjunction with Article 3 of the Convention. Applying the criteria developed in its case-law to this case, the Court considered that the serious physical injuries suffered by the applicants by the police, as well as the feelings of fear, pain and inferiority resulting in the disputed treatment, must have led to the specific police conduct be cruel enough to be categorized as inhuman and degrading treatment within the meaning of Article 3 of the Convention. On the basis of the above, the Court concluded that there was a violation of Article 3 of the Convention in a negative light. At the same time, the Court assessed whether there had been a violation of the procedural obligation under Article 3 of the Convention. Although it was established that the applicants had been ill-treated while in custody, no police officer had ever been punished, either in criminal proceedings or in internal disciplinary proceedings for the applicants' ill-treatment. In these circumstances, given the lack of an effective investigation into the applicants' credible allegation' that they had been ill-treated in custody, the Court considered that there was a violation of the procedural obligation laid down in Article 3 of the Convention.

The Court ultimately examined whether there had been a violation of Article 3 in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention. As the domestic authorities did not investigate the possible racist motives behind the incident, even though the authorities had credible information that the alleged attacks were racially motivated, the Court concluded that the authorities had failed to fulfill their duty under Article 14 in conjunction with Article 14 to take all possible steps to investigate whether discrimination may have played a role in the events. Thus, there was a violation of Article 3 in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention.

Another interesting case is *Šečić v. Croatia* (app. no 40116/02). This case concerned Šems Šečić, the applicant of Roma origin, who was attacked in Zagreb on 29 April 1999 while collecting scrap metal together with several other individuals. The police were soon notified, spoke to

people at the crime scene and toured the neighborhood in order to find the attackers. The applicant was taken to hospital, where the doctors found that there were no broken bones and prescribed painkillers. However, during the night, Mr. Šečić went to another hospital due to severe pain, where doctors diagnosed him with multiple rib fractures. As a result of this attack, the applicant visited the Psychiatric Clinic until the beginning of June 1999, where he was treated for a post-traumatic stress disorder, characterized by depression, tension, panic attacks, fear for his own safety and the safety of his family, insomnia and nightmares. This judgment is significant because it was for the first time that the Court established an obligation for domestic authorities to effectively investigate possible motives for bias in criminal cases involving private individuals rather than public authorities. Thus, the Court emphasized (in paragraph 67) that in investigating violent incidents, the State authorities have an additional obligation to take all reasonable steps to expose any racist motive, and held that this obligation also exists in cases of acts contrary to Article 3 of the Convention. In addition, the Court found it “unacceptable that the police were aware that the disputed event was most likely caused by ethnic hatred, but still allowed the investigation to last longer than seven years without taking any serious action to identify or criminalize prosecution of the perpetrator” (*Šečić v. Croatia*, §70). Therefore, the Court concluded that there had been a violation of Article 14 in relation to the procedural obligation stemming from Article 3 of the Convention.

The court extended the obligation of the state to establish certain motives for the commission of a criminal offense by the judgment in *Milanović v. Serbia* (app. no. 44614/07). Zivota Milanovic, an applicant of Roma origin, from the village of Belica in the municipality of Jagodina, is the most prominent member of the religious community called Hare Krishna. During 2000 and 2001, the applicant began receiving anonymous telephone calls, including a threat to be burned “for spreading the gypsy religion.” In late 2001, the applicant reported the threats to the Jagodina Police Department, stating his suspicion that the threats were coming from members of a nationalist organization called “Obraz”. In addition to receiving telephone threats, the applicant was the victim of several physical attacks in the period from 2001 to 2007, involving the use of a cold weapon (a wooden stick and a knife).

In this case the Court, found a violation of the positive obligation under Article 3 of the Convention because the police authorities had not taken justified and effective steps to prevent the applicant's ill-treatment again, despite the fact that there was a real risk of such an outcome. However, the significance of this judgment is reflected in the fact that the Court has considered the existence of a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3 of the Convention in procedural terms. The Court emphasized (in paragraph 96) that, when investigating violent incidents such

as racially motivated attacks, state authorities have an additional obligation to take all reasonable steps to expose any religious motive and to determine whether religious hatred or prejudice may have played a role in the events. Admittedly, proving such motivation can be difficult in practice. The obligation of the respondent State to investigate possible religious scenes of the violent act is not absolute but it implies an obligation of the state authorities to exert their best efforts and do what is reasonable in the circumstances of the case. In paragraph 97, it was pointed out that “the Court considers that the above is also true in cases where private individuals act contrary to Article 3 of the Convention. Equally treating religiously motivated violence and brutality with cases that do not have this kind of oversight would interfere with the specific nature of acts that are particularly destructive of fundamental rights. Failure to differentiate between the way in which substantially different situations are handled may constitute unjustified conduct incompatible with Article 14 of the Convention. On the basis of all the foregoing, the Court concluded that there had been a violation of Article 14 in respect of the procedural aspect of Article 3 of the Convention (Temperman, 2015: 157-158).

In the case of *Virabyan v. Armenia* (app. no 40094/05), the Court extended the grounds of prejudice to ideology. The applicant Grisha Virabyan was a member of the opposition People's Party of Armenia. During the February and March 2003 presidential elections, the applicant was an authorized election assistant to an opposition candidate. Following the elections, the International Election Observation Mission ruled that the election process was not conducted in accordance with international standards. The opposition candidate addressed the Constitutional Court, which recommended that a referendum on confidence in the re-elected president be held within a year. As the one-year deadline approached, the opposition began organizing protests across the country to challenge the legitimacy of the re-elected president. The applicant took part in the protests, which resulted in his arrest. During his detention, according to the applicant, he had been subjected to treatment contrary to Article 3 of the Convention. At the same time, the Court considered whether the ill-treatment could be linked to the applicant's political views and, therefore, considered discriminatory. In this regard, the Court concluded that it could not be ruled out that the violent behavior of the police may have been motivated by other reasons. With regard to the existence of a procedural violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3, the Court was of the view that the authorities had before them credible information sufficient to alert them to the need for initial verification and, depending on the outcome, investigation of possible political motives for abuse. The domestic authorities did not attempt to investigate the circumstances of the applicant's arrest, including a number of inconsistencies and other elements indicating the possible politically motivated nature of the meas-

ure, and no conclusions were drawn from the available materials. Therefore, the Court concluded that the authorities had failed to fulfill their duty under Article 14 of the Convention in conjunction with Article 3 to take all possible steps to investigate whether or not discrimination may have played a role in the applicant's ill-treatment.

In its practice, the Court has also established that disability can also be a basis for prejudice. In the case of *Djordjevic c. Croatia* (app. no 41526/10), applicant Dalibor Đorđević (a person with a disability) and his mother Radmila Đorđević were victims of abuse by pupils for the period of four years. As most of the abusers were children in the criminal law sense (persons under the age of 14), which made it impossible to impose criminal sanctions against them, the Court could not consider a violation of the procedural obligation under Article 3 of the Convention. Notably, in that particular case, it is probable that none of the offenses complained of by the applicants constitute a criminal offense, and that the incidents of harassment are entirely incompatible with Article 3 of the Convention. This case refers to the issue of positive obligations of the state in quite a different situation, outside the sphere of criminal law, when the competent state authorities are aware of the situation of serious harassment and even violence against a person with a physical and mental disability.

On the basis of all the above, the Court was satisfied that the domestic authorities were aware of the constant harassment of the first applicant by children from his neighborhood and children attending a nearby school. The Court found that the competent authorities had not taken sufficient steps to determine the extent of the problem and to prevent further abuse. Accordingly, here was a violation of Article 3 of the Convention in respect of the first applicant. Although the Court did not find a violation of Article 14 of the Convention because the applicants had not exhausted domestic remedies, the Court emphasized that disability constituted grounds for discriminatory treatment.

The next case which will be analyzed is *Identoba and Others v. Georgia* (app. no 73235/12). The significance of this judgment is reflected in the fact that the Court has established homophobia as the basis of prejudice. The applicant in this case was the non-governmental organization Identoba, whose goal is to promote and protect the rights of members of sexual minorities. At the same time, 14 other Georgian citizens applied as applicants. The controversial event was related to the celebration of the International Day against Homophobia on May 17. In this regard, on 8 May 2012, Identoba asked the state authorities to provide sufficient protection in terms of possible violence against the participants in the event, having in mind the hostile attitude towards sexual minorities in Georgia. Counter-demonstrations were organized on the day of the event. On that occasion, counter-demonstrators shouted derogatory slogans at the expense of sexual minorities, and physically attacked the participants, which

resulted in injuries to several applicants. Although members of the internal affairs were present, they did not react adequately, despite the fact that the participants in the march demanded to be provided with protection. Also, several participants were arrested with the explanation that the police wanted to provide them with protection from counter-demonstrators. In that case, the Court held that there had been a violation of Article 3 of the Convention.

In that case, the Court also considered that there was a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3 of the Convention. As the organizers warned the police of the possibility of violence, and considering the existing reports on the negative attitude towards sexual minorities in some parts of society, the local authorities had a positive obligation to protect the protesters. At the same time, domestic authorities violated a procedural obligation to investigate developments during the demonstrations, with particular emphasis on identifying motives for bias and identifying those responsible for committing homophobic violence. Thus, the Court concluded that there had been a violation of the respondent State's positive obligations under Article 3 taken in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention.

In the case *B.S. v. Spain* (app. no 47159/08), the Court broadened the scope of prejudice based on gender. The applicant was a woman of Nigerian descent, working as a prostitute at the time. In July 2005, she was stopped for questioning by police on three occasions, during which she claimed she was beaten and racially abused each time. After the third such incident, she filed a criminal complaint, and she had to go to the hospital. After being interrogated for the fourth time, she filed a new criminal complaint in which, among other things, she claimed that women with a "European phenotype" were not stopped and interrogated by the police.

The Court found that the investigation was inadequate in many respects: the authorities refused to organize the identification of the suspects using two-way mirrors, and the medical reports were not taken into account. Consequently, the investigation was not sufficiently thorough and effective to meet the procedural requirements of Article 3 of the Convention. It is important to note that the Court did not find a violation of the negative obligation under Article 3 of the Convention, as the medical reports were inaccurate and unclear. The Court also dealt with the existence of a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3 in respect of a procedural aspect. In this regard, the Court reiterated the obligation of local authorities to investigate whether there is any link between racist attitudes and an act of violence in the context of the procedural obligations under Article 3 of the Convention, and stated that the implicit part of Article 14 of the Convention is to ensure respect for fundamental values set out in Article 3 of the Convention without discrimination. The applicant's arguments were not examined by the domestic courts, which also failed to take into account her particular vulnerability inherent in her situ-

ation as an African woman working as a prostitute. The authorities thus failed to fulfill their obligation to take all possible measures to determine whether a discriminatory attitude could play a role in the events. Although the Court did not use the term intersectionality (gender) in the reasoning of its decision, it is clear that it referred to discrimination based on gender.

Mudric v. the Republic of Moldova (app. no 74839/10) is another gender-based case. After the divorce from her husband, the applicant Lidia Mudric continued to live in a house in the immediate vicinity of her ex-husband's house. On 31 December 2009, her ex-husband broke into her house and beat her. A few months later, he beat her again, but this time he remained to live in the applicant's house, and she had to seek accommodation in her neighbors' houses.

The Court concluded that the manner in which the state authorities acted in this case, in particular the long and unexplained delays in the execution of the domestic court's eviction order and the submission of A.M. to compulsory medical treatment, constituted a failure to fulfill their positive obligations under Article 3 of the Convention. Accordingly, the Court held that there had been a violation of that provision. In this case, the Court also dealt with a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3, as the applicant considered that the authorities had not applied domestic legislation intended to provide protection against domestic violence, as a result of preconceived notions of the role of women in the family. According to the Court, there were clear facts indicating that the actions of the authorities were not a simple failure or delay in action, because they repeatedly approved of such violence and reflected a discriminatory attitude towards her as a woman. Thus, in the circumstances of the case, the Court found that there had been a violation of Article 14 in conjunction with Article 3 of the Convention.

The next case concerning the violation of Article 14 of the Convention in conjunction with Article 3 of the Convention is *Škorjanec v. Croatia* (app. no 25536/14). The applicant was born in 1988 and lives in Zagreb. On 9 June 2013, the Zagreb police received an emergency call on the attack of two men against a Roma man and a Croat woman. At the crime scene, the police found the applicant Maja Škorjanec, her partner Š.Š. and another individual (I.M.), with whom the victims of the attack had an oral and physical conflict. Everyone present had visible injuries. Police soon arrested another attacker (S.K.). The initial police report showed that the applicant and her Roma partner had an argument with I.M. and S.K., where the second attacker said, "all Gypsies should be killed, we will exterminate you." At that point, the applicant's partner was attacked by I.M. and S.K. Although Maja Škorjanec and her partner tried to escape, the attackers caught up with them. Then, S.K. threw the applicant on the ground and struck her in the head. The attackers then kept beating Maja's partner, and injured his hands/arms with a knife.

Although the applicant had also been beaten and inflicted with bodily injuries, the perpetrators were not charged with a racially motivated crime against her; as she was not a Roma woman herself, the prosecution claimed that there was no indication that she had been attacked for racial hatred. The Court reiterated that, when evidence of racist verbal abuse is discovered in an investigation, this must be proven and, if confirmed, a detailed examination of all matters should be undertaken in order to discover possible racist motives. Thus, the context of the attack must be taken into account. In real life, some people become victims of hate crimes not because they possess a certain trait but because of their connection to another person who actually or probably possesses the given trait. This connection may take the form of the victim's association with a particular group, or the victim's actual or perceived affiliation with a member of a particular group (e.g. a personal relationship, friendship or marriage). In the specific case, the competent prosecutor's office limited the investigation into the potential hate crime only to Maja's partner (Mr. Š.Š.). This led to an inadequate investigation by the domestic authorities into the applicant's allegations of a racially motivated act of violence against her to an extent incompatible with the State's obligation to take all reasonable steps to detect possible racist motives behind the incident. Given the failure of the senior public prosecutor to carry out the necessary supervision of a particular case as required by the Convention, the Court concluded that the domestic authorities had failed to fulfill their obligations under the Convention when dismissing the applicant's racially motivated violence against her without prior investigation before taking their decision. On the basis of all the above, the Court concluded that there had been a violation of Article 3 in its procedural aspect in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention.

THE COURT'S CASE LAW ON ARTICLE 8 OF THE CONVENTION CONCERNING HATE CRIMES

R.B. v. Hungary (app. no 64602/12) was the first case where the Court found the existence of racist motives as a ground for a violation of Article 8 of the Convention (right to respect for private and family life). The facts of the case relate to a series of protests against members of the Roma population during 2001 in Göngyöspata, organized by right-wing parties and organizations. The applicant and her child were victims of racist outcries and threats. In addition to being a victim of a violation of Article 3 of the Convention, the applicant alleged that the domestic authorities had failed to take relevant criminal measures against the participants in the anti-Roma rallies in order to deter them from the racist harassment that had ultimately occurred, and failed to properly investigate

the occurrences of racist verbal abuse, thus disregarding the positive obligation under Article 8 of the Convention.

Finding the existence of a minimum level of severity as a ground for a possible violation of Article 3 of the Convention, the Court found that the event in question did not reach that level and rejected the application as manifestly ill-founded in respect of Article 3 and Article 3 in conjunction with Article 14 of the Convention. The Court then analyzed whether there had been a violation of Article 8 of the Convention, as the applicant had been the victim of a racist attack, which necessarily affected her private, in terms of ethnic identity. In this regard, the Court emphasized that, “when an individual makes credible allegations that she has been subjected to harassment by motivated racism, including verbal attacks and physical threats, domestic authorities have a similar obligation to take all reasonable steps to expose any racist motive and determine whether ethnic hatred or prejudice may or may not play a role in the disputed events.”

In the Court's view, these positive obligations require an even higher standard of state response to alleged incidents motivated by bias in situations where there is evidence of patterns of violence and intolerance towards ethnic minorities. The Court held that the respondent State had failed to provide the applicant with adequate protection against attacks on her integrity and had shown that the manner in which the criminal law mechanisms had been enforced in this case was incorrect to the point of violating the respondent State's positive obligations under Article 8 of the Convention.

CONCLUSION

In general, the presented case law of the Court illustrates the obligation of the state authorities to do everything reasonable in the given circumstances to gather evidence if the motive indicates the existence of a possible prejudice. It can be concluded from the presented practice that the obligation to investigate prejudice is related to various articles of the Convention, and it also illustrates how the Court has expanded the legal grounds of prejudice. In this way, the Court has created standards which need to be met in order to conduct an effective investigation in case of a suspected hate crime.

In the Republic of Serbia, the amended Criminal Code of 2012 (Krivični zakonik Republike Srbije, 2005) includes Article 54a, which prescribes a special circumstance for sentencing the criminal offender of a hate crime. Namely, Article 54a of the Criminal Code stipulates that if the criminal offense is committed out of hatred based on race and religion, national or ethnic origin, gender, sexual orientation or gender identity of another person, the court will assess this circumstance as an aggravating circumstance, unless it is prescribed as a feature of a specific crim-

inal offence. In this way, the Serbian legislator has expanded the range of criminal offences (in addition to criminal acts of inciting national, racial and religious hatred and intolerance and racial and other discrimination) where hatred is a motive for committing criminal acts. This has intensified state repression against hate crimes.

A careful analysis of the legal text shows that Article 54 of the Criminal Code prescribes general rules on sentencing, emphasizing that the incentive for the commission of a criminal offense will be taken into account in the sentencing process. In that way, hatred could be taken as an incentive for criminal conduct when sentencing offenders. However, by explicitly prescribing hatred as an aggravating circumstance, the legislator intended to raise criminal protection to a higher level in relation to particularly vulnerable social groups whose members have been victims of various hate crimes as a result of belonging to such social groups. At the same time, it should be emphasized that the legislator should not have been guided by the exhaustive enumeration of the legal grounds for the existence of hatred, without stating in sufficient detail the grounds of hatred (hate crimes). Namely, the question justifiably arises as to whether this provision could be applied if the hatred was aimed against persons with certain mental or physical disabilities. The linguistic interpretation of provision 54a of the Criminal Code yields a conclusion that there is no place for the application of a more stringent punishment if the criminal offense is committed out of hatred against persons with disabilities. However, even in such cases, it is possible, without changing the provision of Article 54a of the Criminal Code, to strengthen the criminal protection of persons with disabilities by applying the provisions on general sentencing rules.

In order to overcome this shortcoming, in addition to listing the specific characteristics that are protected by law, the legislator should envisage that some other characteristics may also appear as a basis for qualifying a certain act, which would ultimately provide for the imposition of a more stringent punishment for hate crimes. Another option is to expand the grounds of hatred, which has been done in defining the terms “discrimination” and “discriminatory conduct” in Article 2 of the Act on the Prohibition of Discrimination (Anti-Discrimination Act).

In addition to the fact that the normative framework of the Republic of Serbia has certain shortcomings regarding the grounds of hate crimes, and despite the existence of the General Mandatory Instruction to the Republic Public Prosecutor on Hate Crimes, it should be noted that only one hate crime verdict was passed in Serbia in November 2018, even though there are numerous crimes where there is a reasonable suspicion that prejudice is the basis for the commission of these criminal offences. This clearly indicates that the prosecutor's offices in the Republic of Serbia should not only declaratively adopt but finally start implementing the standards created by the Court.

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ПРАКСА ЕВРОПСКОГ СУДА ЗА ЉУДСКА ПРАВА У ПОГЛЕДУ ЗЛОЧИНА МРЖЊЕ

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Резиме

Злочин мржње, иако је као феномен почео да се јавља још у античко доба, тек су у другој средини XX века државе почеле да правно препознају. Поред држава широм света, и међународне организације почеле су да доносе акта којима се нормира начин реакције државе на кривична дела извршена услед постојања мржње (предрасуде). Тако је, на пример, Агенција Европске уније за основна права 2008. године обавезала државе чланице доношењем Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia – with special attention to the rights of victims of crime да ефикасно истражују и казне постојање предрасуда приликом извршења кривичних дела. С тим у вези, Европски суд за људска права је у својој пракси почео да препознаје предрасуде везане за различите карактеристике жртава када је разматрао постојање повреда одређених чланова Конвенције.

Аутор је у раду представио прве пресуде из богате судске праксе Европског суда за људска права које се односе постојање мржње (предрасуде) у вези са повредом чланова 2, 3 и 8 Конвенције. Из наведених пресуда проистекле су одређене обавеза држава чланица Савета Европе. На крају рада аутор наводи позитивна нормативна решења у Републици Србији у погледу злочина мржње. Уједно, аутор истиче мане постојећег решења, изражавајући бригу да је већи проблем то што држава не примењује сопствене законе у погледу реакције на вршење кривичних дела мотивисана мржњом (предрасудом).

ФИЛОЗОФИЈА
PHILOSOPHY

ФИЛОЗОФСКИ ОСНОВИ МЕНАЦМЕНТА ИНСТИТУЦИОНАЛИЗАЦИЈЕ ЗНАЊА

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Апстракт

У раду се разматра феномен знања и његове институционализације у друштву и држави. Анализирају се носећа својства две парадигме знања у историји филозофије: античка и модерна. На основу тих анализа разматра се проблем институционализације знања као саставни део концептуализације знања уопште, али и проблем отуђења знања од људског оквира његовог вредновања. Тиме се рефлектује потреба за новим приступом који је у раду формулисан као хуманолошки менаџмент-приступ концепту знања као најважнијој одлици људских ресурса. Унутар овог филозофског оквира, примена менаџмента на друштвено-хуманистичкој, а не само техничкој основи – омогућује перспективу транспарентне повратне везе употребе и дистрибуције знања у светлу развоја људских потенцијала. Тиме овај концепт постаје како теоријски тако и практични образац науке за човека.

Кључне речи: знање, филозофија, менаџмент, институционализација, хуманологија.

PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS OF THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Abstract

This paper is concerned with the phenomenon of knowledge and its institutionalization in the context of society and state. The analysis deals with two paradigms of knowledge, known in history of philosophy as the ancient and the modern one. On this basis, the institutionalization of knowledge is questioned as an inherent part of the conceptualization of knowledge, but at the same time, as the problem of alienation of the concept from the human frame of understanding it. Consequently, the reflection of the need for a new approach to the problem emerged and it is actually formulated in this work as the Humanological Management approach. This philosophical frame enables the Management of the (institutionalization of) knowledge on the socio-humanistic basis. In this context, the

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concept of knowledge as the most important human resource becomes theoretical, as well as practical framework of the Science for humans.

Key words: Knowledge, Philosophy, Management, Institutionalization, Humanology.

УВОД

Постоји ли веза између знања и његове институционализације која не би била само случај случајности или повременог међусобног утицаја?

Карактеризацијом две парадигме знања, тј. начина на које се знање разуме и поима у мишљењу, започећу анализу која испитује њихову унутрашњу међузависност. Закономерност те међузависности води ка закључку о последицама, пре свега (не)разумевања саме природе знања, његове институционализације и хуманолошког приступа концепту знања као људском ресурсу.

Хуманолошки приступ (о овом приступу видети: Бодин, 2002) како питању знања тако и менаџменту као научној дисциплини претпоставља филозофску, а онда и научну заинтересованост за концепте и профиле знања који рефлектују људску димензију, с једне стране, и тзв. деконструкцију таквих концепата знања који у име знања као човекове моћи воде у отуђење знања, његове дистрибуције и употребе, од људског оквира смисла. У приступу менаџменту то је могуће разлучити на нивоу терминологије јер се о знању не говори као о људској моћи, већ о људском ресурсу. Иако и овај други појам може бити тумачен на различите начине, њиме се артикулише веза између човека као укупног бића ресурса и знања као најважнијег. О улози и значају људских ресурса у промени парадигме менаџмента нарочито инструктивно пише Шибер (1999, стр. 9–32).

У том светлу, менаџмент се знањем испоставља као примењена дисциплина друштвених наука, али заснована на филозофском промишљању знања као *differentia specifica* људског начина бивања у свету. Проблеми ове дисциплине везани су за друштвене и људске феномене, интерпретацију друштвеног окружења, понашања група и појединаца, процену вредности и конструкцију институција знања које артикулишу перспективе развоја и промена уопште. Можда је ипак за нас најважније да ова научна дисциплина методолошки интегрише теоријску и практичну раван сазнања, чиме исходи знања бивају транспарентни (Јовановић, 2004).

ДВЕ ПАРАДИГМЕ ЗНАЊА

Античка парадигма

Један појам знања везујем уз сократовско-платоновску парадигму, јер је настала из суочавања са свим релевантним начинима мишљења о знању свог времена и постала родно тле једне културне повести, у коме појам знања игра важну улогу.

Међутим, водећи став о знању који је Сократ „породио” – јесте онај о незнању: „Знам да ништа не знам“.

„Знање о незнању” у дијалектичком достизању као сећању, слагању ума и идеја омогућују „истинско знање”. „Знање о незнању” само је симптом стања у коме се логос налази, а то је стање непрестаног присуства оног неприсутног – „истинског знања”. Та напетост (божанског порекла) у еротско-љубавној динамици тежње за спајањем која има своју нужност у онтолошком бићу човека и бића ствари уопште, чини логос знања везаним за *филеин софон*, а знање фундаментално везаним за филозофију. Тежња за истинитим знањем стоји у напетости неприсуства знања и практичне егзистенције у видоцима оног што *јесте* као бивање – чији је израз и „љубав према мудрости”.

У Платоновим дијалозима речи *филозофско* или *филозофска* (као придеви у грчком језику) добијају именички облик *филозофија*, чији је смисао од тада везан за онтолошки карактер знања човека и знања, тј. за човеково достизање истинског знања.

То „истинско знање” филозофије има даљу онтолошку релевантност у бивственој хијерархији идеја, којој одговара бивствено-егзистенцијална хијерархија душевних моћи. На врху те хијерархије је идеја добра, која је у свим идејама и њој одговара највиши степен умне моћи који прожима све душевне моћи.

Идеја добра, као и идеја правде, потврђују се у животу човека са другим људима, тј. у заједници као тежњи ка људској добробити. Потврђивање идеје добра у заједници има онтолошко-егзистенцијални смисао израза као специфично одређење човека да он јесте *зоон политикон*, тј. да је биће (*он*) живо (да уопште бива) уколико је биће заједнице (*политикон*). Из такве врсте онтолошког потврђивања тек је могуће разумети значење речи *идиот* у том времену као оног човека који не учествује у политици (питањима живота заједнице). Из овог разумевања заједнице разматраћемо један појам институције знања. Овде још треба истаћи да идеја заједнице одговара хијерархијској повезаности, заједници – идеја, човекових душевних моћи и људске заједнице – организације и институционализације знања у смислу живе целине, тј. организма.

Као што су организоване идеје, организоване су и душевне моћи човека, а тако треба да буду организовани и људи у стицању,

дистрибуцији и употреби знања. Организација знања треба директно да буде под утицајем истинског знања филозофије. Од мњења полиса мора се доћи до знања *политеиа* – заједнице-државе, чија је претпоставка институција знања.¹

Поред практичних напора да утиче на формирање добре државе, Платон је основао школу која је пратила идеју истинског знања, школу која је постојала скоро осам векова и која је била претеча будућих високих школа – универзитета. Била је то Академија.

Академија је, такође, била један организам који је био институција довођења до знања. Изучаване дисциплине биле су хијерархијски распоређене у изучавању тако да се ученик поступно и систематски успињао ка дијалектици. Ниједна дисциплина (као што су геометрија или аритметика) није имала значај ван динамичке целине. Из ње нису излазили тек образовани људи, већ посвећеници „истинског знања”, филозофи који нису били теоретичари одвојени од практичног живота, јер теорија је била само врхунски начин практичног живота. Платон је Академију као филозофску школу истинског знања наменио добробити државе, као организоване људске заједнице, и тиме довео до свести међузависност знања, учења и добра које се остварује у држави.

Академија, међутим, није била никаква „институција” државе, нити је ико био обавезан да одлази у школу знања филозофије. Напротив, разумевање и појам слободе човека полиса везивани су за отвореност логоса и „природност” избора његовог упознавања у школи знања. Слобода, односно слободан живот, добијали су пуније значење достизањем знања јер је то био начин живота који је био најбољи и за човека и за полис-државу. Тиме је, међутим, остала неповезана идеја институционалног важења знања са његовом фактичком дистрибуцијом.

Модерна парадигма

Други појам знања посматраћу у парадигми „модерног знања”. Које су најважније одреднице произашлог појма знања?

Прво, знање се схвата превасходно као научни појам (знање у складу са препознатљивом научном процедуром), унутар кога појам знања губи онтолошки, односно бивствено-егзистенцијални, карактер релевантан (у првој парадигми) за поимање заједнице и државе.

Друго, знање се као научно издваја у теоријско и практичко, чиме се омогућује „ослобађање” живота у држави и уопште погледа на свет.

¹ Пресудну улогу за артикулацију античке парадигме знања имало је, вероватно најзначајније, Платоново дело *Држава* (Платон, 1976).

Треће, знање се не види као јединствен појам који изнутра чини целину, већ као мноштво знања која се организују по неком основу у систем знања.

1. Одвајањем наука од филозофије дошло је до динамизације виђења „свега што јесте” са утицајем на смисао како науке тако и филозофије. То одвајање постаје процес који своје кретање осведочује и, историјски захватајући, потврђује као прогрес што постаје битна одредница модернизације.

Ипак, да ли је овим процесом одвајања наука од филозофије успостављена разлика између појма знања филозофије и знања наука која везу међу њима чини ирелевантном за евентулни закључак о међузависности тих појмова?

И данас се за све науке користе грчка имена, њихово именовање остаје у духу грчког језика. Чак је и реч *академија* широко распрострањена у институционалном осведочењу знања, али се, иронијом судбине знања, говори о „академском звању”, а не о академском знању.

Логос очуван у називима наука треба не само да именује него и да одреди научност – знанственост именоване дисциплине да каже да она јесте знање. Не именује се дисциплина ни преко речи *ratio* ни преко речи *empiria*, иако су оне одлучујуће у језику модернизације знања.

Логос је прећутно остао уграђен у науку под плаштом и у форми именовања. Да би знања уопште било, оно мора да буде разумевано као знање. Како да буде схваћено знање било које дисциплине ако оно не говори о нечему што „јесте” у том знању? Њен смисао потиче из одређене врсте или одређеног сегмента оног што јесте. Везаност знања и говорења, тј. разумевања и смисла, и то у онтолошкој равни, очувана је иако потиснута у наукама. То је одлучено када *Ratio* подразумева *Логос* у (рационалној) моћи расуђивања и емпиријској моћи евиденције и експерименталног истраживања. Тај сегмент смисла, према ономе што јесте, остаје по страни много актуелнијих унутрашњих потреба за све већом специјализацијом, а коју прати потреба за техничким усавршавањем метода истраживања, при чему је одлучан замајак том процесу технологизација. За напредак човека у свету се најчешће и данас говори као развоју – прогресу технологија, тј. технолошком напретку.

Смисао знања налазио се унутар структуре појма. Постизање знања као кретање ка знању садржавало је смисао јер се то кретање разумевало као усклађивање живота са оним што јесте, тј. са истином као непрекривеношћу бића, које омогућује истину бића било које ствари.

Технологија није, међутим, пратећи (спољашњи) продукт напредовања које би било, рецимо, чисто научно. Напредовање науке је развијање њене унутрашње законитости, а знање науке по уну-

трашњој „логији” – техно-логија. Чак и тзв. инвентивност научника зависи од тога колико ће савладати унутрашњи говор вештине (у којој мери ће овладати техничким знањем методологија истраживања, почев од познавања математике до познавања најсложенијих инструмената „високе технологије”).

Логика овог процеса и његове закономерности је да се и сâм логос *технику* је као закономерни спој говора и мишљења са истином у смислу формалне логике која је у потпуном „духу” сцијентизма лишеног сваког садржаја по себи (већ садржај задобија у форми која „обликује” изнутра науке, постајући њихова методологија/технологија).

У том потиснутом стању, у једном општем подразумевању први појам знања остаје уграђен у други.

Стварност је за тако схваћену науку поље које има два пола; пол познатих, научно објашњених, ствари и пол познатих и још научно необјашњених ствари (оно што није ни једно ни друго не може бити могуће као стварно, већ спада у ирационално или фантастично). На другом полу су тзв. феномени, ствари које су део стварности које нису успешно уграђене у систем научног знања. Грчка реч *phainomenon* сведена је на значење појаве која искаче из познатог. Међутим, грчка реч у духу искуства тог језика хоће да прати, али и очува у феномену, унутрашњу нужност показивања оног што се показује као ствар. У тој разлици можемо да разумемо Хусерлов позив „назад к стварима самим” односно његов став да феноменологија завршава свој посао тамо где наука започиње – а то је тачка где феномен постаје предмет објашњења неке засебне науке (Хусерл, 1991).

Ово раздвајање наука од филозофије у контексту питања о знању доведено је до „логичног” закључка у ставу „Наука је оно што знамо, а филозофија оно што не знамо”. Међутим, већ у првој одредници видљиво је да „одвајање” не говори само о разлици два појма знања, већ указује на њихов „са-живот” као траг њихове међузависности.

2. Одвајањем и осамостаљењем (као последицом „самодовољности” научног знања) раздваја се и поимање знања на теоријско и практично. Теоријско знање припада „сфери” бављења науком, а практичкој „нејасној” сфери припадају питања о „људским стварима” која траже одговоре о „животу” људи у целини и у „свакодневици”.

Ово раздвајање сфера прати логику модернизације означену у супстанцијалном разликовању субјекта и објекта. Самоизвесност субјекта и извесност објекта у „евиденцији” говоре да они (као супстанције) постоје. Рационална моћ субјектовог улажења у свет објеката раздваја их, разврстава, анализира – сазнаје их у разликовању, али и у њиховој вези која шири тло „подлегања и сабирања” света објеката ка „објективном знању” које основна супстанца уопште постојећег (*subiectum*) као таква захвата. То хватање (и „носивост”

субјекта) дају смисао изразу „имање, тј. поседовање знања”. Да би субјект имао знање, он мора да (јасно) разликује објекте, тј. да учини везу међу њима објашњивом. Објашњивошћу објеката, односно могућношћу објашњења, објекат постаје предмет сазнајних моћи субјекта, предмет знања.

Тек такав објект постаје субјекту (у имању знања) расположив. Располагање објектима у знању потврђује субјекта у његовој супстанцијалној самоизвесности из чега прозлази унутрашњи разлог, смисао ширења опсега знања.

То и такво ширење знања постало је основа рационалне диференцијације поља знања, из чега су произашле засебне науке и научне дисциплине, чија је даља специјализација захтевала „развијање” (одвијање) све усавршенијих техника, којим се супстанцијално – изнутра располаже објектима као предметима знања.

Покушај да се накнадно обједине сегменти знања, теоријски и практички интерес, те знање уопште – покушаји су да се „обједињавањем” премости супстанцијално-разликујуће разумевање уопштепостојећег као оног што једино као такво – јесте. Ти покушаји су нужно посредовани погледом на свет као потврдом моћи сагледавања свега што јесте и потврђивања те моћи у преношењу тог свеопштег бивства у оно што је присутно. Ипак, тај бивствено-егзистенцијални захтев изведен је увек из засебних виђења, односно идеја, које у неопходној реконструкцији целина творе идејни систем који мора да доминира над другима (конкурентским пројекцијама) да би као владајући задобио важење као реалан (само оно што постоји као реално замењује грчко *он*, јесте).²

Зато модерно знање тек у политичком деловању, правећи идеологије, увек покреће обједињавање које тежи да замени некадашњу једност онога што јесте. Смењују се победе и порази „погледа на свет”, који за неко време бивају кључ тумачења света живота и знања у њему, а у појединцима или групацијама настављају свој засебни живот.

Свеопштим одвајањем, смештањем у засебне сфере развијају се како различити погледи на свет тако и интереси у њему, стварају се како теоријски тако и практички интереси. Сваки човек може имати већи или мањи интерес како за теоријско тако и за практичко деловање и све то у контексту све већег „ослобађања” општег деловања. Не одвајају се само науке од филозофије, већ и оно најопштије у човеку, а захваћено у филозофији. *Зоон политикон* престаје да буде ознака једног бића, јер се и та општост у деловању издваја у засебан

² Једну од најзначајнијих студија о фундаменталним проблемима модерне парадигме знања представља књига Едмунда Хусерла (Хусерл, 1991).

интерес за такозвано политичко деловање. И она у општем тренду одвајања задобија „аутономију”, али и она изражава неопходну потребу за знањем.

Практично знање, у одвојености од теоријског, дели са њим исту логику која води и трећој одредници „модерног знања”.

3. Појам модерног знања у себе укључује знање у множини, њихову различитост и засебност. Ипак, да би се знање „ширило” (потврђивало као знање), оно се и окупља да би постигло снагу објашњавања све сложенијих веза унутар предмета знања. То окупљање означава систем знања. Систем знања функционализује засебна знања у јединствену раван ефективно-прагматичког располагања самим знањима.

Све већа успешност системске снаге знања потврђује моћ знања. Оно обухвата све сегменте живота и дели се и аутономизује у мери у којој одређени сегмент задобија већи значај (до интегритета) у функционалном поретку.³

Знање које захтева политичко деловање, међутим, највише се приближава знању које захтева уважавање моћи. Да ли модернизација знања обухвата „истом логиком” и појам државе?

Уколико институционализација знања прати први појам знања, требало би да она следи идеју заједнице-организма (пратећи структуру знања), како је то парадигматично Платон описао у „Држави”. Модерна институционализација пак прати модерну структуру знања, организује се као систем ширења, али и неузнемиравања различитих појединачних знања. Институције знања у држави се потврђују у потреби за функционисањем слободних активности, привређивања, освајања политичке моћи, у слободном (препуштеном вештини) успешном пласману како новца тако и идеја. Смисао институционализације не види се у потврђивању заједнице, већ као потврђивање правила игре конкурентских група моћи. Знање држављана о самој држави у којој живе претрпело је грађанску модернизацију, тако да они знају за државу посредством потребе да она функционише онолико колико је потребно (а никако више од тога) за неузнемиравање слободне утакмице моћи.

Функционализација знања показује се као закономерни процес модернизације, тј. „унутрашње сврхе”, као смисла парадигме модерног знања. Зато функција као својство улази у модеран појам знања, тј. знање се поима и као систем знања. Одговарање појма знања његовом новом карактеру, потврђивању и признавању – води институ-

³ Једно од најубедљивијих студија посвећених феномену отуђења знања кроз модерну парадигму промишљања и сазнавања људске егзистенције јесте и дело Мартина Хајдегера – *Биће и Време* из 1927. године (Хајдегер, 1985).

ционализацији знања. Институције „поучавања”, стицања знања, на чијем је врху универзитет, на различите начине су функционализоване у систем државе.

И саме те институције представљају одређене системе који се и даље декларативно позивају на организацију (значање је наравно удаљено од грчког – „организма”), која се, међутим, своди на унутрашње разврставање научних дисциплина и систематику радних функција универзитета. Људи знања се, у свакодневном животу, виде као стручњаци, управо као зналци неке одвојене, засебне дисциплине, што им не смета да говоре о томе као о универзитетском образовању. И реч *универзитетско*, и реч *образовање* – обраћају се у грчком духу нечем целовитом, а не издвојеном, или засебном. Ипак, то је само један од симптома противречности које носи са собом парадигма модерног знања.

Са новом концепцијом универзитета, модерна институционализација знања задобија дефинитивне обресе (Цветковић, 1995). Универзитет не само што окупља него и разврстава различите дисциплине науке које функционишу у настави засебно или се по потреби допуњују. Са друге стране, најважнија тековина те концепције јесте аутономија институције универзитета, тј. одвијање живота универзитета неометаног од стране државе, односно, неузнемираваног текућим и променљивим политичким утицајима. На таквом универзитету филозофија има статус отмене старине која се преузима из прошлости наука. Очигледна је и фундаментална разлика између некадашње школе истинског „знања” – Академије, са једне стране, и модерног Универзитета „стручног знања”. У првој се ствара човек који зна себе као биће заједнице и знање уопште, па и зна да знање о животу у држави није независно од онтолошког сегмента знања. Тај ученик и зналац слободан је уколико се потврђује као биће заједнице.

У другој се ствара човек одређене врсте знања који се у својој квалификацији или звању потврђује у функционалном препознавању унутар система знања и живота у друштву. Његова слобода се тумачи као и слобода сваког елемента функционисања система – као аутономија оног засебног. Трећа одредница парадигме модерног знања открива не само међузависност два појма знања већ и повезаност унутрашњом логиком парадигме (аспект међузависности који изнутра повезује) појмове знања, модерне државе и институција знања универзитета.

Процесуалност непрекинуте модернизације у рефлектованом потврђивању такође је својство знања парадигме модерног знања. Ипак, и то знање је у основи својство потврђивања које лежи у почетку „модерног знања” и мера је његове снаге. Зато модерни човек знања може да утврди: *Знање је моћ*.

Тако се у случају прве парадигме знања испоставља проблем нерелевантне институционализације знања као последица предлоге о моћи логике знања, а у случају модерне парадигме, проблем се изокреће и постаје одсуство рефлексивности на нивоу механизма институционализације знања у представи логике моћи знања.

Филозофски основи два менаџмент-приступа знању

Проблем који се појављује у претходним парадигмама знања јесте нерелевантан, а онда и нетранспарентан, институционализација знања као саставни део концептуализације знања. Реч је о начинима на које се оно препознаје, па и дизајнира, у друштву и држави, како се нетематизованом логиком моћи отуђује од сопствених основа настајања, а то је људски ум и уопште људски оквир артикулације смислености знања.

У том смислу или, прецизније, недостатку смисла, рађа се опасност од продубљивања поделе на теоријски и практични интерес у концептуализацији знања. Једновремено разматрање хуманолошког филозофског приступа знању уопште, с једне стране, и менаџмент-приступа институционализацији знања, с друге стране, ставља питање теоријског и практичног аспекта знања у оквир рефлексивности претходно дефинисаног проблема. Знање се разматра као ресурс који суштински припада човеку јер га и одређује као биће у свету, односно ресурс реартикулације и човека и света. Знање се испоставља у овом приступу као најзначајнији људски ресурс.

Према хуманолошком менаџмент-приступу, анализа обухвата како затечени институционални оквир примене знања тако и осмишљавање укупне динамике промена и прилагодљивости универзитета општим променама у окружењу. То захтева темељно знање о феномену и праћење промена у његовој структури.

Институционализација подразумева широку друштвену организацију (препознавања, обликовања и дистрибуције) знања. Менаџмент знања у овом раду сагледава (уосталом, као и менаџмент уопште) као један начин размишљања који доприноси развоју једног хуманолошког модела поимања људског знања.

Потреба за овим моделом рефлектује раније разматране недостатке парадигме знања. У првој се подразумева и *de facto* не укључује у поимање знања фактор институционализације као веза са његовим људским смислом. У другој се институционализација појављује као директан фактор отуђења од концепта људског знања. Основи у којима се стиче знање у хуманолошком моделу заснива се на троделној, међузависној структури чиниоца концепта људског знања. То су фундаментални (теоријски) чиниоци, оперативнотехнички (практични) и прагматични (сврховити) чиниоци. Институционализација за циљ има дистрибуцију знања који достиже ниво ко-

лективног знања као друштвеног ресурса организације и која на тај начин подиже ниво претпоставки и појединачног знања.

Видели смо раније да поимање знања и његове институционализације није заувек дата природна константа, већ је променљива структура која зависи од људске перцепције и деловања. Сагледан у том светлу, овакав менаџмент-приступ представља осмишљену рефлексију развојног карактера феномена. Из те унутрашње потребе за артикулацијом динамичког концепта приступа знању и његове институционализације произлази хуманолошка анализа менаџмента знања (Брњас, 2000).

Класични менаџмент-приступ

Теоријско порекло овог приступа је модел бирократске организације (Weber, 1989). Хијерархија, форма, функција и специјализација послова – кључне су категорије рационалистичко-техничког карактера читаве концепције (Taylor, 1911). Појединац је схваћен као члан организације са формалним положајем у њој, повезан са другима такође формалним каналима.

Унутар овог приступа препознаје се доминација тзв. сцијентизма, односно покушаја да се на основу подразумевања универзалне научне парадигме заснује и наука о менаџменту. Сама научна парадигма је у знаку тзв. објективног знања и за нормативном претпоставком валидности посредством искључења субјективног фактора сазнања. Таква је и објаснидбена функција у представи знања о организацији пословања и поступцима управљања унутар организације и њом као целином.

Идеална верзија те представе подсећа на самоодрживи механизам функција које воде успешном пословном резултату (Fayol, 1949). Услед тога, у организацији је пренаглашена подела рада по уским специјалностима, чија је најпознатија илустрација *покретна трака* производње, где је људски фактор сведен на једну функцију у ланцу доласка до коначног производа.

Одсуство сваког креативног доприноса повезано је са техницистичким и квантитативним својствима рачунања производног резултата. У том и таквом контексту развијају се, поред раних класичних теорија Тејлора и Фајола, и новије концепције *функционализма* и *теорије система*.

Свима њима заједничко је да је улога људи (људских ресурса) споредна. Примат има шематска форма радних задатака и јака управљачка контрола послова схваћених као контролисани (прорачунљиви) процеси. Људи су схваћени инструментално, односно према претходно објашњеној представи читавог научног модела, као заменљиви делови машине. Међусобни односи запослених у функцији

изворишта информација за процену продуктивности или конкуренције међу запосленима за опстанак на послу.

Овај приступ показао се не само као суштински нехуман већ и као неконкурентан на дужи рок. Крутост организације послова и прејако хијерархијско управљање показало се мање успешним у односу на флексибилније приступе стратегији пословања. Ови потоњи комуницирали су више и боље са друштвеним контекстом и амбијентом пословања који се стално мењао.

Међутим, већ унутар класичне парадигме рађају се теоријски приступи који ће довести до промене у научном приступу менаџменту.⁴

Цео приступ је, дакле, „боловао” од крупног дефицита у разумевању друштвене природе како животног карактера (тј. људског печата) феномена знања тако и његове дистрибуције. Друштвене установе, организације које промовишу знање, а поготову сâм универзитет – нису у довољној мери прихваћени као део променљивог амбијента, али ни као друштвени ресурси позвани на артикулацију „унутрашњег” обликовања њихових циљева и успеха.

Овај теоријски приступ, међутим, и данас одговора у ширем теоријском пољу сагледавања, сцијентистичким концепцијама које виде научно нормативизовано знање, па и институције као што је универзитет, као самодовољан систем. Такве институције треба да служе заступању и примени интереса знања као доктринарно одређеног тзв. научног знања, а не знању као људској вредности. Кроз класични приступ се, дакле, подлеже интринзичној, али спољашној, фактичкој подобности, односно, суштински, екстерној легитимацији.

Последица тога је не само споро прилагођавање промењеним изазовима функционисању институција знања већ и својеврсна „бирокупатизација” концепта научног знања који је све више зависан од технологије не само у процесу достизања до знања већ и у процесу његове дистрибуције. Из тих разлога је неопходно формулисати суштински другачији приступ.

Хуманолошки менаџмент-приступ

Потребе да се темељно одговори на изазове конкурентности и друштвеним променама и одговарајућа улога менаџмента људског знања уз реafirмацију природе феномена као ресурса који одређује људску природу и њене потенцијале – омогућиле су нови, хуманолошки менаџмент-приступ знању.

Термин *хуманолошки* означава одређење научне дисциплине слично хуманој медицини, психологији или биологији. Унутар овако

⁴ Реч је о *структурално-функционалистичким* и *бихевиористичким* концепцијама (прим. аут.).

названих наука, приступ истраживању феномена саображава се специфичности њихове људске природе (Бодин, 2002). У овом случају, ради се о развоју приступа менаџменту уопште, произашлог из значаја менаџмента људских ресурса као научне дисциплине. Пре свега је реч о проширењу концепта ресурса, тако да се у хуманолошком приступу ради о менаџменту људских и друштвених ресурса.

За разлику од класичног приступа, хуманолошки се ослања на другачију научну парадигму знања. Не умањујући значај објективности сазнања, оно укључује и субјективни елемент, и то у његовој изградњи као вредности. То додатно значи да се исписује улога човека у конципирању знања јер без те улоге није могуће вредновати знање као оно које је једино за човека и вредно уопште.

Теоријске промене наговештене унутар доминације класичног периода менаџмента у другој половини двадесетог века ставиле су акценат на далеко флексибилнија теоријско-практична решења, па и на мобилност организационих делова. То је значило да се мора поклонити дужна пажња субјективној (људској као једино могућој) полози управљања променама које подразумевају вредновање циљева и мобилизацију читаве организације.

Научни приступ, за разлику од модела машинског склопа, носи представу (идеју) *живог организма* као суштине организације и зато преиспитује улогу човека и његових потенцијала. У том смислу га и називамо *хуманолошким* (Бодин, 2002).

Не само да је положај човека у организацији виђен другачије већ се сматра да је тзв. људски капитал најважнији ресурс за дуго-рочни успех организације. Отуда у овом менаџмент-приступу у први план избијају људске димензије пословања као што је тимски рад, заједничко артикулисање циљева, учествовање у прегледу радних достигнућа, као и интеграција различитих способности насупрот строгој специјализацији послова.

Улога људских ресурса, као и друштвених ресурса за обликовање знања о могућности унапређења резултата, истовремено указује и на могућности људског развоја у организацији, али и људског развоја у организацији са општенаучног становишта, као и развоја човека уопште.

Флексибилност и мобилност као суштинске потребе организације упутиле су на истраживања људских потенцијала кроз истраживање мотивације, комуникације према унутра и према споља и нарочито важно – управљања променама.

Дакле, класичан приступ насланао се на исто тако класичну парадигму (научног) знања којој одговара (компатибилна јој је) доминација нехуманог увећања знања. На тај начин она генерише отуђење људских бића од суштинског смисла знања. Улога знања изобличава се управо у вредносном смислу, она се испоставља људима

у датости технологије знања, а не у развоју добробити људске заједнице као идеји хуманологије знања.

Када је реч о најзначајнијем аспект у људских ресурса – о знању, онда се ради о тематизацији менаџмента знања (Award, 2004). У оквиру тога разликују се три носећа фактора: људски ресурси (творци и носиоци знања), различите врсте технологија (примарно информационе технологије) и организацијски процеси (дистрибуције и преклапања) (Машић, 2004).

Када говорим о институционализацији знања, мислим на друштвене токове формирања „крвне” организације друштва – државе.

Ширина и квалитет људског знања стиче се у организационој култури, односно тзв. организационом знању, или у националној култури на нивоу друштвеног живота једне земље. То се пре свега односи на способност идентификације људи са знањем, односно разумевањем да је то знање, на непосредан или посредан начин, њихово знање. Ради се дакле, о концепту знања који наменски утиче на отуђења, чинећи знање људским и у смислу производа и у смислу исхода (као људско добро). На тај начин се култура знања осведочава у спровођењу теоријских основа (људских потенцијала), практичних форми у којима се *потенцијал претвара у људске ресурсе* и користи оплодњом људских ресурса као *људско добро*.

Способност да се менаџмент знања, али и постојећи институционални носиоци (као универзитет) динамички позиционирају у окружењу ради постизања својих циљева, али и опстанка и стабилног развоја – циљ је овог концепта.

Хуманолошки модел менаџмента институционализације знања

Сам универзитет је једна форма трансферне институције знања као кључног сегмента људских ресурса једног друштва, а менаџмент институционализације знања се хуманолошки посматра као облик исказивања виталног организацијског и, шире гледано, националног интереса да се међу другим организацијским и националним ентитетима опстане и развија.⁵

Суштинска веза између људскости знања манифестује и повезаност концепата људских ресурса и менаџмента знања. Знање је, у ствари, и стратешка и оперативна карактеристика оформљења људи као ресурса организације (и друштва уопште). Дакле, не само да се модел институционализације знања може сагледати кроз повезаност

⁵ Хуманолошки менаџмент-приступ, заправо, представља интегрални приступ развоју организацијских и уопште националних капацитета у погледу успостављања конкурентске снаге међу другима (на „тржишту”), и то оптималном употребом природних, људских, друштвених и институционалних ресурса.

менаџмента људских ресурса и менаџмента знања, организационе културе и успешности примене знања или улоге менаџмента знања и лидерства организација и менаџера (Ђорђевић-Бољаковић, 2009) него је у проширеном концепту друштвених ресурса основа за концепт институционализације знања у друштву и држави.

У том смислу, треба разумети и (шири) смисао једне од најприхваћенијих дефиниција менаџмента знања, односно оне дефиниције да представља „примењивање и спровођење структуралног процеса које потпомаже информацијама и знању да доспеју до правих људи у право време, како би поступали ефикасније и ефективније у проналажењу, разумевању, делењу и коришћењу знања у циљу креирања вредности”. (APQC, 2015). Затим, друга дефиниција је „менаџмент знања филозофија менаџмента која користи експлицитне предности знања како би организација пословала и наступала интелигентније” (Целетовић, Машић, Николић, Нешић, 2014).

Из претходног је готово очигледно да знање није схваћено ни апстрактно нити да је уопште могуће као изоловано од организације у којој су људи најважнији ресурс. Оно је у том смислу (према хуманолошком приступу и парадигми „живог организма”) увек органско и као феномен холистичко у наведеном ширем смислу, тј. контексту сазнавања. Тиме менаџмент знања, односно осмишљавање организацијског знања, представља подмодел истраживања и развоја укупног, хуманолошког модела институционализације знања.

Према општем хуманолошком менаџмент-приступу, може и менаџмент институционализације знања да се моделира према принципу повратне спреге (енгл. *feedback*). То значи да се успоставља непосредан однос теоријског и практичког аспекта знања кроз поступке вредновања (евалуације). Они су саставни део рефлексивне равнотеже у процесу концептуализације свебухватног разумевања (холистичког) шта је уопште знање за људску употребу. Знање се унутар тог модела сагледава кроз везу људских потенцијала сазнавања и учења и људске добробити. Томе служи и мерило оцењивања кроз показатеље тзв. људске безбедности, као и корелација ширења капацитета знања, с једне стране, и одрживости људског развоја, с друге стране рефлексивне равнотеже. То, у суштини, значи да модел узима у обзир фундаменталну страну знања као целовитог теоријског и практичког интереса у смислу превазилажења положаја човека који га чини недостојним живљења. У развоју самоспознаје потенцијала за превазилажење таквих стања кључну улогу има изградња и надоградња институционалних форми знања.

То укључује, поред Универзитета и Института, и наменске форме дистрибуције знања као што су Академије за пренос стручног знања или лиценциране Агенције са нарочито мобилним карактеристикама. Модел, дакле, укључује корелацију организационе и без-

бедносне културе на управном нивоу институција знања као оперативну подршку како дистрибуцији знања тако и њеној евалуацији.

Зато институционализација знања карактеристична за хумано-лошки менаџмент-приступ претпоставља рефлексију људског (организацијског и општенационалног) интереса посредством рефлексије вредности које могу да се преточе у организациону културу, рефлексије мотива који могу да се операционализују у мотивациони механизам достизања до знања као и његове употребе. И, најзад, рефлексије циљева како оних фундаменталног тако и оних прагматичног или инструменталног карактера – у служби управљања процесима дистрибуције знања.

Претходно речено треба да назначи улогу институционализације знања унутар процеса њеног настанка као препознатљивог концепта. Ако је у античкој парадигми препуштеност уму и природи његовог уређења – *логосу* претерану тежину ставила на *теорију* и док је у модерној парадигми знања *пракса* временом постала синоним за *техничко знање* које теорију своди на рационалистичке поставке, дотле у описаном приступу знање настаје међузависношћу теоријског и практичког садржаја концепта.

Знање, као најважнији аспект људских ресурса, постаје институционализовано као људско знање, у повратној вези са друштвеним ресурсима (организацијама, друштвеним установама, универзитету, држави). Уколико установимо (институционализујемо) оквир знања кроз сврху која је људски мотивисана, нпр. унапређење положаја у организацији (или у друштву, држави), онда ће заинтересовани људи вредновати знање као своје и настојати да га добро разумеју и да њим што боље располажу. На тај начин се теоријско и практично сусрећу у општим оквирима концепта *људског знања*. Концепт се саображава развоју људске свести (моћи сазнања) у динамичкој, троједној целини: људски потенцијал – људски ресурси – људска добра. Три сегмента су елементи повратних веза који утичу на квалитативни искорак, исход који бих назвао људском самосвешћу. Знање које у рефлексији људског концепта јесте уједно и сазнање о људском носиоцу знања на различитим нивоима институционализације у друштву (појединачном, организацијском, универзитетском или другим).

На тај начин хумано-лошки менаџмент институционализације знања представља оквир за превазилажење недостатака описане две парадигме знања, као и за развој треће, „људскије” парадигме.

ЗАКЉУЧАК

У свету противречног статуса знања и његове употребе, која мења и представе о људској природи, а не само о цивилизацији, поставља се питање не само успешне употребе знања већ и његовог ка-

рактера. Све више научних дисциплина додатно се дефинишу као људске, тј. *хумане* јер настоје да рефлектују оно специфично људско у доменима својих општих одређења. На један или други начин, директно или индиректно, овај тренд представља реакцију на симптом отуђења знања од оквира промишљања људског света.

Знање је, као људско, повезано са променама спознаје о људским потенцијалима, утицају на живот човека, као и на могућност изградње света према идеји људске добробити. Институционализација концепта људског знања, пре свега, подразумева поступак признавања тог концепта као друштвене вредности.

На тај начин знање манифестује институционалну улогу усмеравања промена у људском друштву (Alibabić, 2010).

У раду сам користио уопштено искуство обликовања менаџмента знања као дисциплине посвећене сврховитом подруштвљавању знања. Како та искуства пренети на национални план образовања и дистрибуције знања кроз институционалну афирмацију концепта људског знања (Деспотовић, 2013)?

Теоријски и практични аспект у овом концепту прате идеју људских ресурса чија је носећа нит управо менаџмент знања. Институционализација знања, с једне стране, чини транспарентним повратну информацију о односу теоријског и практичног садржаја концепта.

С друге стране, чини конститутивним критеријумом (а не само регулативним) хуманолошку суштину менаџмента знања, а то је институционализација људске сврхе знања. То је својеврсни критеријум, вододелница на којој се огледа стање људског знања – да ли се увећавају друштвени ресурси (пре свега они културни) који вреднују исходе знања.

Можда ћемо у перспективи моћи да говоримо о трећој парадигми знања која рефлектује претходне две, а нарочито њихове проблеме у вези са институционализацијом знања која је уграђена у питање смисла самог знања.

У сваком случају, у хуманолошком менаџменту знања ради се о приступу који покушава да попуни празнину у третирању знања. Знање се у новој форми отуђује и институционализује као *diferentia specifica* људског бића.

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PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS OF THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

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Summary

In what way can one understand the relationship between knowledge and its social validity or the content of the concept of communication and its institutionalization? In addition to analyzing the basic philosophical paradigms of thinking of this relationship, the issue of the institutionalization of knowledge is considered within the perspective of the theoretical and practical aspects of the concept of knowledge.

If institutionalization of knowledge follows the ancient concept of knowledge, it would have to follow the idea of community-organism as paradigmatic. Modern institutionalization, however, understands the modern structure of knowledge is organized as a system of different particular knowledge. Knowledge institutions in the country are certified, including the need for the functioning of free activities, economy making, conquest of political power in free (left to skill) and successful placement of both, money and ideas. The meaning of institutionalization is not seen in the confirmation of the community but as confirmation of a competitive power in the market. The first paradigm of knowledge emphasizes the theoretical and the other the practical aspect.

Scientific field management methodology integrates theoretical and practical approaches to the phenomenon of knowledge looking at knowledge as the most important human resource. From this point of view the relationship of knowledge and its institutionalization becomes a relationship that is characterized by feedback on its possible use on the one hand, and the increase in overall human and social resources on the other. Knowledge management is proving to be a matter of (re) distribution of human resources as the most important prerequisite to improve human welfare in general.

Humanological access to the knowledge and management as a discipline is assumed and then the philosophical and scientific interest in the concepts and skills profiles that reflect the human dimension. Moreover, the so-called deconstruction of these concepts of knowledge on behalf of a man's knowledge can lead to alienation of knowledge, its distribution and use of the human frame point. The management approach makes it possible to discern the level of terminology because it does not speak of knowledge as humanly possible for the human resource. Although the latter term can be interpreted in different ways the connection is articulated between the man as being total resource and knowledge as the most important.

Since the conceptualization characteristic of the humanological management approach assumes that the reflection of national interest through the reflection of values can be translated into the organizational culture, reflection motifs that can be operationalized in motivational mechanisms of the organization of knowledge, reflection and goals as those of fundamental and those pragmatic or instrumental character - in the service management processes of knowledge distribution.

Humanological institutionalization of the knowledge management model provides features of simultaneously theoretical and practical interest in order to build institutional networks and the establishment of internal management culture of institutions.

У СУСРЕТ ЛИДЕРСТВУ У ОБРАЗОВАЊУ КРОЗ ИНИЦИЈАТИВЕ И ТРЕНДОВЕ У ОДАБРАНИМ ЕВРОПСКИМ ЗЕМЉАМА ^а

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Идеја о публикацији *Лидерство у образовању – Иницијативе и трендови у одабраним европским земљама* појавила се као резултат учешћа на ТЕМПУС пројекту Мастер програм Лидерство у образовању *EdLead* (2013–2017), којим је координирао Факултет педагошких наука у Јагодини Универзитета у Крагујевцу и чији је циљ био стварање мастер програма, курсева стручног усавршавања и других ресурса за директоре образовних установа у Србији.

Циљ ове публикације је праћење развоја и јасније сагледавање тренутних проблема и статуса лидерства у образовању у контексту образовне политике и праксе одабраних европских земаља, уз пружање обухватног прегледа савремених и релевантних проучавања на овом пољу. На основу стицања увида у изузетно значајна искуства о лидерству у образовању у дванаест земаља (Србије, Црне Горе, Северне Македоније, Босне и Херцеговине, Хрватске, Словеније, Бугарске, Мађарске, Чешке, Словачке, Аустрије и Финске), можемо приметити да је учешће великог броја аутора из разних земаља креативан пример да наука не познаје границе.

Зборник радова *Лидерство у образовању – Иницијативе и трендови у одабраним европским земљама* приредиле су Славица Шевкушић и Душица Малинић, обе са Института за педагошка истраживања у Београду, и Јелена Теодоровић, са Факултета педагошких наука у Јагодини Универзитета у Крагујевцу. Аутори који су својим радовима дали допринос овој публикаци-

^а *Leadership in Education – Initiatives and trends in selected European countries* (Лидерство у образовању – Иницијативе и трендови у одабраним европским земљама), 2019. Уреднице: Славица Шевкушић, Душица Малинић и Јелена Теодоровић. Београд: Институт за педагошка истраживања; Јагодина: Педагошки факултет Универзитета у Крагујевцу; Сегедин: Мађарско-холандска школа за менаџмент у образовању, Универзитет у Сегедину, 242 стр.

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ји истакнути су стручњаци у области школства и посебно лидерства у образовању, са познатих универзитета, института и истраживачких центара.

У уврштеним расправама можемо уочити елементе који се тичу: 1) правног оквира 2); тренутног стања образовања; 3) и посебно, као својеврсног печата аутентичности, визије будућности лидерства у образовању, стручних мишљења аутора, као и препорука о корацима неопходним за побољшање и унапређење лидерства у образовању у поменутих земљама. Поједини радови одражавају сличности и разлике у развојним трендовима у лидерству кроз бављење разноврсним суштинским питањима као што су: поступци, формално-правни оквири и законски регулативи избора и именовања директора школа, њихове аутономије у одлучивању и руковођењу, разрађивање иницијатива које побољшавају подршку директорима школа, институцијама, садржајима програма обуке, иновативним моделима истраживања које користе у те сврхе, евалуацијом тих специјализованих програма за обуку и стручно усавршавање.

Аутори из дванаест земаља објединили су резултате, на основу приказаних података, дискутовања о разноврсним темама у домену лидерства у образовању, скрећући пажњу на многа ограничења и домете, али и пружајући веома корисне и недвосмислене смернице и упуте за даље стратешке, истраживачке и практичне напоре за његово унапређивање и промовисање.

Завршне странице публикације сачињавају основни подаци о свим ауторима радова у публикацији, као и целовит индекс уврштених и цитираних аутора.

Наглашавамо да су др Илзе Иванова и проф. др Хенрик Мизерек својим предлозима, запажањима и стручним виђењем, одабиром чланака који су се нашли, не само по сродности тематике, актуелности већ и по строгом критеријуму њиховог квалитета, свакако значајно допринели квалитету ове публикације. Текстови су писани на енглеском језику, што додатно доприноси њиховој доступности широкој интернационалној научној и стручној јавности.

У уводном чланку „Principalship in Austria: Balancing accountability and improvement”, аутора Кристијана Виснера и Михаела Шраца понуђена су сазнања о историјској перспективи и правним оквирима аустријског образовног система. У даљем исказу истакнуте су кључне компетенције за ефикасно руковођење као што су: вођење и управљање учењем и подучавањем; вођење и управљање променама, вођење и управљање собом; вођење и управљање другима; вођење и управљање институцијом, али и значај рефлексивности у спирално обликованим фазама. Тиме је кроз истраживање лидерства у образовању у Аустрији дат добар увид у аустријски школски систем, који је у прошлости окарактерисан као високобироократски, хијерархијски организован и мало оријентисан ка резултатима. Систем карактерише снажан утицај структуре социјалног партнерства, синдиката учитеља и представника наставника, док родитељи, студенти, истраживачи и други (мање формално организовани) актери мало имају право гласа. Иако се школама у Аустрији локално управља, Влада и даље одлучује шта представља добро организовану школу. Увођење националног тестирања довело је до неких круцијалних промена. Аустријско учешће у међународним пројектима омогућило је покретање истраживачког потенцијала у школском лидерству. У последње време, трансформација школског управљања постала је главни

фокус реформе образовања, што је подстакло истраживања процена различитих националних стратегија школског управљања с обзиром на њихов допринос квалитетном развоју школског система, истичу Кристијан Виснер и Михаел Шрац.

Образовно управљање и стање управљања у школском систему у Босни и Херцеговини (*Educational management and state of management in the school system in Bosnia and Herzegovina*) тема је чланка чији су аутори Хариз Агић и Жанета Џумхур, који између осталог истичу да је образовни процес једна од најсложенијих социјално оријентисаних услуга, те да у образовном процесу актери нису само студенти већ и њихови родитељи, локална заједница, али и шира друштвена заједница. Стога је у демократским земљама образовање од великог значаја јер напредак сваке друштвене заједнице зависи од осигурања квалитета у образовању. Податак да 90% квалитета рада школе чине њени компетентни запосленици даље указује на значај оних који воде, образују, охрабрују, прате и вреднују студенте, напомињу Агић и Џумхур. Овај рад за предмет има анализу стања и могућности управљања образовањем у Босни и Херцеговини (БиХ) са становишта структуре образовног система, правног оквира, са посебним фокусом на положај директора школских институција. Закључци се темеље на теоријским разматрањима истраживања у области управљања образовањем изван и унутар БиХ. На крају, на основу резултата позитивне локалне праксе, аутори наводе начине за побољшање стања лидерства у образовању, значај едукације и сталног професионалног развоја директора школа у БиХ. При томе су наглашени приоритетни задаци на које би директори школа требало да усмере веће напоре: побољшање образовног рада, усавршавање наставника и менаџмента, рад на мотивацији запослених и стварање повољне климе у школи. Све то указује на чињеницу да би требало радити на сталном побољшању образовног рада, усавршавању наставника и менаџмента, мотивацији запослених и стварању повољне климе у школи. На крају, аутори изводе опширан закључак, констатујући да однос према управљању образовањем није адекватан на нивоу локалних заједница, као и да он неминовно мора бити ствар друштвеног и политичког договора у складу са стратегијама високог образовања. Агић и Џумхур даље наглашавају да је у БиХ од изузетне важности: планирање, спровођење и континуирано унапређивање система сталног стручног усавршавања, као и основне обуке у управљању образовањем. Окупљање свих стручњака и њихов заједнички рад на побољшању статуса менаџмента образовања били би од пресудног значаја за будуће активности и трендове ка повољнијем статусу менаџера/директора и бољим позицијама лидерства у образовним институцијама.

Божидара Кривирадева у чланку „*Educational Leadership in the Republic of Bulgaria*” предочава тренутно стање правног оквира образовног лидерства у Бугарској. У уводу рада Кривирадева истиче да је у последњој деценији у Републици Бугарској извршен низ реформи, од којих је најважнија била примена новог Закона о предшколском и школском образовању, који је ступио на снагу у августу 2016. године. Реч је о променама у систему школског образовања, у професионалним компетенцијама наставника и школских руководилица, као и променама у школским програмима. Бугарска се обавезала да ће развити флексибилнији образовни систем, чинећи национални контекст ближи европској образовној политици. У склопу закључних напомена ауторка

наглашава да би школски директори као лидери у образовању требало да имају висок потенцијал за лидерство и да би у том контексту било изузетно пожељно започети развијање тренинга социјалних вештина, обука за лидерство и тимски рад, заснованих на интерактивним методама подучавања, које ће повећати не само лидерски потенцијал чланова школске заједнице већ и њихово задовољство послом и статусом професије на глобалном нивоу.

Весна Ковач и Стјепан Станичић су у раду „Educational leadership in the Republic of Croatia” направили преглед лидерства у образовању у Хрватској, који је заснован на анализи његовог развоја, увиду у постојећа истраживања, као и на опису релевантних активности на овом пољу експертизе. Наглашена је потреба институционалног образовања директора пре преузимања улоге, дефинисање стандарда компетенција, прецизних, јасних и мерљивих критеријума за избор директора и прикладнијег система професионалног развоја лидера образовних установа. Анализа коју су аутори извршили у области развоја образовног лидерства у Хрватској указала је на то да су изведене бројне студије, створени су бројни концептуални и оперативни документи, обезбеђен је и стручни оквир за увођење позитивних промена у област експертизе, што је дало вредан допринос образовном лидерству у протеклих тридесет година. При томе је дат осврт на следеће историјске периоде: прва фаза (1990–1999), друга фаза (2000–2009) и трећа фаза (2010–2019). Преглед студија у домену школског лидерства у Хрватској аутори групишу у следеће категорије с обзиром на кључне теме и садржаје: 1) активности, улоге и функције школског руководства; 2) надлежности директора; 3) професионално оспособљавање и развој директора; 4) однос директора и одређених интересних група; 5) модели школског лидерства и њихово функционисање у организационом контексту. У закључним напоменама наглашена је неопходност подизања улоге директора школа у Хрватској на виши ниво професионализма, као и потребу улагања напора у идентификовање захтева чије би испуњавање повећало ефикасност рада директора, а самим тим и квалитет целокупног институционалног образовања.

Милан Пол и Бохумира Лазарова обрађују тематику лидерства у образовању у Чешкој Републици (*Leadership in education: The case of the Czech Republic*). У уводном делу аутори нам предочавају да је лидерство у образовању питање које је добило на значају након политичке и друштвене трансформације крајем 1980-их. Демократска ера створила је нове амбијенте у школама, а као последица тога створена су нова очекивања везана за директоре школа као својеврсне и препознатљиве лидере. У овој новој ситуацији школе су убрзо стекле релативно висок степен аутономије у многим аспектима свог пословања, посебно у погледу њиховог правног статуса и повећаних овлашћења директора у разним менаџерским активностима, управљању особљем, раду са наставним планом и програмом. Пол и Лазарова истичу следеће домене професионалних компетенција које су од круцијалне важности за директоре школа: 1) лидерство и управљање у школовању и образовању; 2) лидерство и управљање на основу вредности и визије; 3) управљање људским ресурсима; 4) управљање организацијом; 5) лични и професионални развој. Истраживачки подаци о тренутном стању лидерства у образовању у Чешкој говоре да су директори јавних, односно државних, школа провели више времена на менаџерским и административним пословима и састанцима него директори приватних школа. Директори гимназија

посветили су више времена администрацији и лидерским пословима него директори основних школа. У закључним напоменама аутори подвлаче да се, с обзиром на огромну одговорност коју носе директори основних и средњих школа, у будућности све више мора стављати акценат на успостављање стратегија и поступака који ће довести до адекватног правног оквира, континуираног образовања, евалуације њиховог рада, али и ослобађања од административног преоптерећења.

Повећање капацитета лидерства у образовању и имплементирање педагошког лидерства у Финској тема је рада аутора Јука Алаве (*Increasing leadership capacity and implementing pedagogical leadership in Finland*). У расправи се говори о недавним достигнућима у пракси школског лидерства и великим променама у оквиру образовних парадигми које су имале свој снажан утицај. Теоријска дискусија заснива се на налазима истраживања, као и на метаанализи 30 докторских дисертација коју је са сарадницима спровео аутор овог рада 2012. године, у склопу истраживања које је подржала финска национална комисија за образовање. Неки од кључних налаза у овој студији били су потреба за јачом оријентацијом у будућности, важност лидерства у образовању, његовог разумевања и сагледавања као ресурса. Највећа промена у образовној администрацији и школском управљању у Финској догодила се у периоду од 1970. до 1999. године, када је цео систем доживео извесне трансформације. Аутор истиче следеће кључне елементе који су омогућили развој система образовања у целости, а то су: структура и сарадња међу школама; дијалог између општинских менаџера образовања и директора школа; мултипрофесионална сарадња; редефинисање наставних планова и програма који би укључивали и родитеље са активном партиципаторском улогом. Аутор на крају сумира неколико кључних ставки да: ако се школе желе побољшати, особље – наставници и сами директори школа као осведочени лидери – морају развити способност да функционишу као професионалне заједнице за учење; ако школе треба да функционишу као професионалне заједнице за учење, оне морају да развију културу сарадње; и да ако желе да превазиђу традицију изолације наставника у одлучивању и активном руковођењу, морају научити да раде у ефикасним, високоуспешним тимовима које подржавају и подстичу лидери у школама.

Тибор Барат, Ласло Хорват, Атила Нобик и Ева Вердербер представљају групу аутора који се у раду под називом *Лидерство у образовању у Мађарској (Educational leadership in Hungary)* баве образовним лидерством тако што пружају историјску перспективу поменуте тематике у овој земљи. Чланак за предмет има аутономију школе и лидерства као споне националних образовних система, при чему се анализирају различите улоге (рад, контрола, одржавање, професионализам) различитих интересних група (школе, директора, наставног особља). Поглавље о правном оквиру детаљно и исцрпно описује периоде пре 1990. и после 1990. године, када је у школском систему демократска Влада 1991. године додатно уклонила државни монопол, преносећи одговорност за школство на локалне самоуправе. Иако се школски систем и даље финансирао из централног буџета, децентрализација администрације и надзора осигурала је да локалне агенције – општинске владе, цркве или фондације – могу спроводити своје интересе. Аутори нас са посебним нагласком упознају са оснивањем ХУНСЕМ-а 1998. године, чији циљ је био да: 1) успостави организационо-институционалну поза-

дину образовног менаџмента у оквиру холандско-мађарског билатералног програма; 2) осигура научну основу и развој ове професионалне области; 3) осигура одрживост и развој обуке у складу са захтевима тржишта; 4) продуби и ојача међународне односе у овој области. Аутори напоследку у кратким цртама закључују да се школско руководство у Мађарској мора суочити са разним изазовима у будућности, који углавном произлазе из контекстуалних и законодавних фактора (на пример, смањење броја наставника, питања њихове надлежности и одговорности и сл.), а као правовремени и адекватан одговор тим изазовима треба помоћи директорима школа да боље искористе и истраже могућности хуманијег и на учење усмереног приступа лидерству у образовању.

Лидерство у образовном систему Црне Горе (*Leadership in the education system of Montenegro*) тема је чланка ауторки Биљане Масловарић и Јелене Ивановић. На основу препознавања значаја, сложености и утицаја функције директора у читавом образовном процесу, главни циљ рада усмерен је на приказивање слике стања руководећих функција у образовном систему Црне Горе. У уводном излагању ауторке нас упознају са чињеницом да је читав систем стручног усавршавања наставника у Црној Гори успостављен у периоду од 2005. до 2009. године у оквиру пројекта *Развој система професионалног усавршавања наставника у Црној Гори*, којим је управљао Биро за образовање. У наведеном процесу су учествовали наставници, педагози, директори и помоћници директора, саветници и супервизори Бироа за образовне службе, као и страни стручњаци. Једна од улога лидера је да иницира и покрене процес увођења иновација у школске организације, што уједно представља процес увођења прекопотребних промена и реформи. Развој школских организација подразумева буђење, реализацију, активирање и иновацију свих техничких и људских ресурса, са циљем да се сви аспекти школске организације прилагоде таквим променама. Први од три дела чланка бави се правним оквиром, компетенцијама и доминантним подручјима рада директора у образовним установама. Други део описује тренутно стање у образовном лидерству у земљи и даје историјски осврт на развој програма за обуку и професионални развој директора. Циљеви и садржаји програма усмерени су на развој низа способности неопходних за успешан, квалитетан рад лидера образовних установа. Истраживања у овој области показују да образовни лидери троше око 40% свог радног времена на административна питања, што значи да улоге руководиоца образовних институција морају бити редефинисане како би своје време и енергију преусмерили на унапређење обуке наставног особља и квалитет наставе. Школско лидерство могло би да се ојача укључивањем у педагошке активности, па је стога потребно омогућити менаџерима школа да се више усредсреде на побољшање процеса учења, а не на администрацију. Претходно наведено указује на све већу потребу за развојем и применом концепата целоживотног учења и професионалног развоја свих актера у образовном систему, посебно директора. Такав приступ и настојања у будућности би у потпуности елиминисали политички утицај на њихов рад, чиме би се коначно успоставио систем професионалног управљања образовним установама, наглашавају Масловарић и Ивановић.

Аутори Константин Петковски и Зоран Христовски у раду „Лидерство у образовању – услови и изазови у Републици Северној Македонији”

(*Leadership in education – conditions and challenges in the Republic of North Macedonia*) указују на то да је питање лидерства у школама посебно актуелан проблем у Републици Северној Македонији. Имајући у виду сазнање да не може бити успешне школе без доброг руковођења, они истичу да је потребно успоставити систем и механизме за обуку директора школа како би се њихова функција професионализовала. Резултати истраживања показују да директори школа наводе следеће теме за усавршавање: 1) Доношење одлука и решавање проблема; 2) Управљање емоционалном интелигенцијом; 3) Управљање временом; 4) Коучинг; 5) Организационо учење; 6) Управљање знањем; 7) Управљање талентима; 8) Асертивна комуникација; 9) Пројектни менаџмент. Ово истраживање спровели су аутори овога рада 2018. године путем технике анкетаирања међу директорима 109 основних и 27 средњих школа у Републици Северној Македонији. За побољшање лидерства у образовању у земљи, Петковски и Христовски наглашавају да је најпре потребно извршити измене у законима о основном и средњем образовању, као и у Закону за полагање испита за директора школа, како би се створио целовит, доследан концепт за њихову почетну обуку, као и за њихов професионални и каријерни развој. Такође, аутори закључују да је потребно боље дефинисати стручно усавршавање директора школа и успоставити јасне стандарде и критеријуме за њихово каријерно напредовање.

Јелена Теодоровић, Славица Шевкушић, Душица Малинић и Јасмина Белић су ауторке рада који се бави лидерством у образовању у Србији (*Leadership in education: the case of Serbia*). Узимајући у обзир чињеницу да је потражња за бољим и ефикаснијим лидерством у образовању доследно део програма реформе образовања у целом свету, циљ овог рада је да представи најважније иницијативе и активности предузете у области унапређивања лидерства у образовању у Србији, почев од правног оквира, преко пружања обуке кроз курсеве професионалног развоја и припремних програма, па све до стварања ресурса за подршку директорима школа у њиховим свакодневним подухватима. У Србији је последњих година донето мноштво регулатива, међу којима се, као најбитније, издвајају Стратегија развоја образовања у Србији до 2020. године (2012), Стандарди компетенција директора установа образовања и васпитања (2013), као и Закон о основама система образовања и васпитања (2017). У чланку се наглашава значај директора, као кључне фигуре у обезбеђењу ефикасног функционисања васпитнообразовне установе и чињеница да важећа законска регулатива у Републици Србији дефинише широки круг његових овлашћења као руководиоца. Међутим, у пракси долази до великог броја деформација у остваривању те функције. Због тога је неопходно предузимање важних стратешких мера за унапређивање система руковођења. Те мере су: деполитизација избора директора, прецизнија законска регулатива функција директора, обука директора за различите улоге и успостављање система за евалуацију рада директора. Као други аспект, дат је преглед спроведених истраживања о лидерству у образовању у Србији које су имале за циљ испитивање улога, задатака, потребних компетенција, али и проблема са којима се сусрећу директори током обављања својих дужности. На основу прегледа спроведених истраживања, аутори закључују да су у протекле две деценије директори образовних установа у Србији указали на главне препреке за ефикасно вођење школа, као и да су нагласили потребу за усавршавањем својих професионалних вештина

у циљу успешног обављања бројних и сложених задатака и улога. Последњи аспект односи се на преглед припремних програма и подржавајућих активности за директоре у Србији. Наведено је да су се први семинари и тренинзи за директоре појавили почетком 2000-их, али се таква пракса није наставила. Аутори наводе да је усвајање Стандарда компетенција за директоре представљало покретач развоја ове праксе. Након овога, 2016. године уводи се мастер програм *Лидерство у образовању* као главни циљ ТЕМПУС пројекта (EdLead), као и акредитовани програми за професионални развој директора. Аутори указују на то да би приоритет образовне политике у овој области требало да буде дефинисање, промовисање и охрабривање таквих процедура и вредности које представљају демократску културу као врховни вредносни оквир за функционисање целокупног образовног система. Имајући у виду све акције и мере које се спроводе у циљу побољшања праксе лидерства у образовању, истраживања у овој области требало би да се интензивирају и усредсреде на испитивање ефеката постојећих обука, као и на испитивање задовољства директора квалитетом и корисношћу овакве врсте едукације.

Аутономијом школе и одговорношћу директора у Словачкој бави се ауторка Алена Хашкова у раду *Balancing school autonomy and head teachers' accountability for schools in Slovakia*. Хашкова истиче да је процес трансформације кроз који је прошао систем образовања у Словачкој током последње три деценије имао за циљ оснаживање школских заједница давањем школама веће аутономије у одлучивању о кључним аспектима њиховог рада, као што су особље и буџети. Измењени услови и повећана аутономија школа значили су да школе и њихови директори морају да се суоче са новим задацима и изазовима. Захтев за професионализацијом функције директора постао је део широког покрета школских реформи. Претходно је директор могао бити наставник коме су додата техничка и административна задужења, док је сада директор морао бити професионалац, менаџер са пуним радним временом одговоран за развој наставних, финансијских и физичких ресурса којима се обезбеђује одрживи квалитет образовања које школа обезбеђује.

Ауторка предочава чињеницу да је дефицит наставника један од најозбиљнијих проблема основних и средњих школа у Словачкој. Озбиљан проблем је што из године у годину значајан број наставника напусти посао због тзв. неатрактивности професије и ниских прихода наставника. Последњи део рада приказује главне резултате истраживања усмерене на процену обима аутономије школа и овлашћења која се дају директорима са аспекта оптималног обима ове аутономије у односу на стварне потребе и захтеве. У закључним напоменама Хашкова истиче да се постизање оптималног модела аутономије који се нуди школама показало као врло тежак задатак, будући да одговарајући ниво аутономије зависи и од времена и од социјалних услова, али се ипак покушај приближавања реалног стања оптималном стању у будућности назире, што се очигледно примећује у образовним системима разних земаља, не само у Словачкој.

Напоследку, чланком о трендовима и изазовима лидерства у образовању у Словенији на основу изабраних пројеката (*Trends and challenges in leadership in education in Slovenia based on some selected projects*) у публикацији узимају учешће ауторке Мајда Ценцич и Јустина Ерчуљ. У контексту поменутих изазова, у раду су представљене три актуелне теме. Прва тема

односи се на развој програма управљања и водећа иновативна окружења учења. Друга тема односи се на пројекте из области квалитета, а трећа је усмерена ка предузетничким компетенцијама директора школа и руководећих тимова. Упркос различитим пројектима и програмима у којима директори учествују у циљу стицања нових компетенција, они се и даље свакодневно суочавају са бројним изазовима. Подстицање и обезбеђивање професионалног развоја директора један је од кључних фактора који утичу на квалитет учења и подучавања младих у школама и другим образовним установама. Тренутно стање образовног лидерства у Словенији је тема другог поглавља, а у склопу њега ауторке нам илустративно предочавају интересантан податак да према подацима Министарства образовања, науке и спорта, у Словенији тренутно има 853 директора. Жена је више него мушкараца, а просечан период запослења је 27 година. Као неке од главних проблема, ауторке истичу прегршт бирократских задатака, недостатак времена за бављење педагошким лидерством, непримерен развој каријере школских директора и сл. Тренутно је положај директора прилично сложен и захтева нека системска решења. Пре свега се то односи на велики притисак родитеља са којима ће се морати успоставити дијалог и партнерски однос, тако да школа може да заштити своју професионалну аутономију, а да и сами родитељи буду укључени у стварање школске политике. Стога Ценцич и Ерчуљ очекују решење које ће бити довољно демократско и истовремено допринети већој професионализацији посла директора школа, постизања довољне аутономије, али и мање оптерећености административним пословима.

Иницијативе и трендови у одабраним европским земљама, којима се тематски бави ова опсежна публикација, на јасан начин пружају мноштво теоријских и практичних примера који говоре о развоју и изазовима лидерства у образовању, о образовним политикама, тежњи ка њиховим променама, критички сагледавајући тренутни „пејзаж” реалног стања лидерства у образовању и извесне стручне пројекције будућег развоја. Публикацију сачињавају пажљиво одабрани радови оних аутора који су веома значајни за бављење лидерством у образовању као есенцијалним фактором у унапређивању образовања и покретања реформских промена у контексту савремених друштвених тенденција. Истраживање при томе покрива 12 земаља источне и централне Европе, што доприноси квалитативно-садржајном богатству ове публикације.

Овим зборником, заједничким снагама Институт за предашко истраживања из Београда, Педагошки факултет у Јагодини Универзитета у Крагујевцу, те Мађарско-холандска школа за менаџмент у образовању Универзитета у Сегедину, на систематичан, студиозан начин, покрили су аналитичко-синтетичким приступом читаво поље актуелне образовне проблематике. По научној утемељености, може послужити подједнако свим истраживачима педагошко-психолошке провенијенције, као и бројним другим аналитичарима проблема у сфери образовања, а свакако и студентима високообразовних установа које школују наставнике.

На основу бројних изнетих мишљења и налаза, можемо констатовати да, уграђено у темеље савременог друштва, лидерство испољава свој утицај и на пољу образовања и тако намеће захтеве који се односе на нужност и неминовност спровођења реформских промена како би се одговорило на потребе савременог друштва. Адекватно повезивање, интензивна сарадња и

координација свих актера образовних промена и институција, почевши од законодаваца и доносилаца одлука о јавним образовним политикама, преко практичара (наставника, стручних сарадника, школске администрације), па све до ученика и њихових родитеља – представља императив у процесу унапређивања квалитета школе и образовног система. Окупљање аутора који се баве овом тематиком, размена нових сазнања и увида, који су објављени у овом зборнику, изузетно су значајни за модернизацију образовања, а самим тим и друштва у целини.

У зборнику је указано на незадовољство директора школа због недостатка аутономије, административног оптерећења, непотпуних могућности професионалног развоја, све израженије политизације њиховог положаја, као и на нужност промовисања децентрализације и демократизације свих образовних структура за постизање квалитетнијег школства. Интензивирања истраживања у области лидерства у образовању су неопходна, јер су студије у овој области релативно малобројне у већини описаних земаља. Будућа истраживања која би додатно продубљивала и расветљавала ову надасве актуелну и изузетно важну проблематику, између осталог, требало би усредсредити на проучавање ефеката постојећих програма обуке, неопходних компетенција директора школа, као и нових трендова на пољу лидерства у образовању.

Све ово упућује нас на закључак да међународни тематски зборник радова *Лидерство у образовању – Иницијативе и трендови у одабраним европским земљама (Leadership in education – Initiatives and trends in selected European countries)* представља значајан допринос у настојањима да се начини напредак у проучавању актуелних проблема лидерства у образовању.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS ON PAPER PREPARATION

Formatting. Papers should be sent as *Microsoft Office Word* files (version 2000, 2003, 2007), font *Times New Roman*, font size 12. Page setup margins should be 2.5 cm (top, bottom) and 2.5 cm (left, right), paper size A4 (210 mm x 297 mm). Paragraphs should be formatted with line spacing 1.5, and justified (Format, Paragraph, Indents and Spacing, Alignment, Justified). Do not break words at the end of the line.

Paper length. Research papers should not exceed 37.000 characters (spaces included), and reviews should not be longer than 8.000 characters (spaces included).

Language, alphabet. The languages of publication in the TEME is English (font *Times New Roman*). Contributions be rejected if the language is not at the appropriate level of correctness and style. If the authors wish to increase the visibility of their papers, they are supposed to submit Serbian version of the article as well (as Supplementary file - Word format, using the Cyrillic alphabet).

PAPER

The author should remove from the text of the paper all the details that could identify him/her as the author. Authors must enter all the necessary data during the electronic submission of the paper.

PAPER STRUCTURE

- **Paper title in English**
- **Abstract in English** 100 to 250 words, followed by 5 key words.
- The title and the abstract of the paper should be directly linked to the paper content, with no information that would identify the author(s) of the paper.
- **Paper title in Serbian**
- **Abstract in Serbian**, followed by 5 key words.
- The paper should follow the **IMRAD** structure (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion), when it presents an empirical study
- **Paper body** should not contain more than three levels of subdivision into *sections* and *sub-sections*. Level one sections should be introduced by headings printed in *Italic* and in **CAPITAL LETTERS**, formatted as centred. Level two sections should be introduced by headings in *Italic*, with the initial capital letter, formatted as centred. Level-one and level-two headings should be separated from the previous text by one line. Level three sections should be introduced by a heading printed in *Italic*, but placed as a regular paragraph, separated by a full-stop from the text that follows.

Each paragraph should have the first line indented (1 cm).

In-text citations: Whenever referring to a source (monograph, article, statistical source), the author should cite the source in the text, using the

author-date system (Surname, year of publication, pages referred to, all in brackets) – Please, refer to the table at the end of these *Instructions*.

- When referring to several works by the same author, provide all the years of publication chronologically after the author's name. If there are several works by the same author published the same year, provide further specification using letters (a, b,...) after the year of publication: "...confirming this hypothesis (Wuthnow, 1987a, p. 32)...".

- When referring to several works by different authors, provide the authors' names in brackets following the alphabetical order, separating authors by semi-colon: "... several studies were central to this question (Jakšić, 1993; Iannaccone, 1994; Stark and Finke, 2000)."

Direct quotations can be included in the text if not longer than 20 words. Longer quotations should be given as separate paragraphs, spaced-out from the previous and following text, and with the following formatting: Format, Paragraph, Indents and Spacing, Left 1 cm, Right 1 cm, Line spacing – Single; for instance:

To explain how “culture through language affects the way we think and communicate with others of different background” (Gumperz, 2001, p. 35), Gumperz states:

“Conversational inference is partly a matter of a priori extra-textual knowledge, stereotypes and attitudes, but it is also to a large extent constructed through talk” (Gumperz, 2001, p.37).”

It is crucial that the in-text citations and references should match the literature listed at the end of the paper. All in-text citations and references must be listed in the References, and the References must not contain sources not referred to or cited in the text. The bibliography listed at the end of the paper should contain author names and source titles in original languages and alphabets, without translation.

Tables, graphs, and figures. Tables, graphs and figures should be numbered (sequentially), with captions explaining their content. Captions should precede tables, but follow graphs and figures. Graphs and figures must be clearly visible in the text, so they should be provided in 300dpi resolution. Graphs and figures must be single objects (no Drawing elements added). Where necessary, mathematical formulas should be added to the text using Microsoft Equation Editor.

Appendices. should be marked by *letters* (sequentially), e.g. Appendix A, Appendix B etc., and should contain a title describing the content of the appendix. When there is only one appendix, no letters are necessary in its title (only "Appendix").

➤ **Literature (References).** A complete list of references should be provided as a separate section at the end of the paper. The references should be listed in accordance with the **APA Style**. The references should be listed alphabetically, by the authors' last (family) names. For publication titles in Serbian, the English translation should also be

provided in brackets. The works by the same author should be listed chronologically (from the most to the least recent ones). Wherever possible, provide the DOI number, too, in addition to other reference data.

➤ **Summary in Serbian.** Please provide a summary at the end of the paper, after the References section. The summary should not be longer than 1/10 of the paper (i.e. 2,000 to 3,700 characters). The summary should be formatted as *Italic*, with single line spacing.

EXAMPLES OF SOURCE QUOTING AND REFERENCING:

Journal papers and articles – 1 author

In-text citation:

(Manouselis, 2008), i.e. (Manouselis, 2008, p. 55)

In ‘References’:

Manouselis, N. (2008). Deploying and evaluating multiattribute product recommendation in e-markets. *International Journal of Management & Decision Making*, 9, 43-61. doi:10.1504/IJMDM.2008.016041

Journal papers and articles – 2 to 6 authors

In-text citation:

First reference: (Uxó, Paúl, & Febrero, 2011)

Subsequent references: (Uxó et al., 2011)

In ‘References’:

Uxó, J., Paúl, J., & Febrero, E. (2011). Current account imbalances in the monetary union and the great recession: Causes and policies. *Panoeconomicus*, 58(5), 571-592.

Journal papers and articles – more than 6 authors

In-text citation:

(Cummings et al., 2010, p. 833)

In ‘References’:

Cummings, E., Schermerhorn, A., Merrilees, C., Goeke-Morey, M., Shirlow, P., & Cairns, E. (2010). Political violence and child adjustment in Northern Ireland: Testing pathways in a social-ecological model including single-and two-parent families. *Developmental Psychology*, 46, 827-841. doi: 10.1037/a0019668

Book – 1 author

In-text citation:

(Heschl, 2001, p. 33)

In ‘References’:

Heschl, A. (2001). *The intelligent genome: On the origin of the human mind by mutation and selection*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Book – edited volume

In-text citation:

(Lenzenweger & Hooley, 2002)

In ‘References’:

Lenzenweger, M. F., & Hooley, J. M. (Eds.). (2002). *Principles of experimental psychopathology: Essays in honor of Brendan A. Maher*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Paper or chapter in an edited volume**In-text citation:**

(Cvitković, 2007)

In ‘References’:

Cvitkovic, I. (2007). Katolicizam [Catholicism]. U A. Mimica i M. Bogdanović (Prir.), *Sociološki rečnik [Dictionary of Sociology]* (str. 226-227). Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike.

Encyclopaedia entry**In-text citation:**

(Lindgren, 2001)

In ‘References’:

Lindgren, H. C. (2001). Stereotyping. In *The Corsini encyclopedia of psychology and behavioral science* (Vol. 4, pp. 1617-1618). New York, NY: Wiley.

Papers in Conference Proceedings**In-text citation:**

(Bubanj, 2010)

In ‘References’:

Bubanj, S., Milenković, S., Stanković, R., Bubanj, R., Atanasković, A., Živanović, P. et al. (2010). Correlation of explosive strength and frontal postural status. In: Stanković, R. (Ed.): *XIV International Scientific Congress FIS Communications 2010 in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation* (191-196). Niš: University of Niš, Faculty of Sport and Physical Education.

PhD Dissertations, MA Theses**In-text citation:**

(Gibson, 2007)

In ‘References’:

Gibson, L. S. (2007). *Considering critical thinking and History 12: One teacher’s story* (Master’s thesis). Retrieved from <https://circle.ubc.ca/>

Institutions as authors**In-text citation:**

(Републички завод за статистику, 2011)

In ‘References’:

Републички завод за статистику. *Месечни статистички билтен*. Бр. 11 (2011).

Laws**In-text citation:**

(Закон о основама система васпитања и образовања, 2004, чл. 5, ст. 2, тач. 3.)

In ‘References’:

Закон о основама система васпитања и образовања, Службени гласник РС. Бр. 62 (2004)

Legal and other documents

In-text citation:

(Legal Consequences for States of the Continued Presence of South Africa in Namibia (South West Africa) notwithstanding Security Council Resolution 276, 1971)

In ‘References’:

Legal Consequences for States of the Continued Presence of South Africa in Namibia (South West Africa) notwithstanding Security Council Resolution 276, (1970), ICJ Reports (1971) 12, at 14

Please refer to:

Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th Edition, 2009;

<http://www.library.cornell.edu/resrch/citmanage/apa>

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