

ТЕМЕ

JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ЧАСОПИС ЗА ДРУШТВЕНЕ НАУКЕ

UDC 1+3

1
—
2023

ISSN 0353-7919

ТЕМЕ 1/2023

Published by
UNIVERSITY OF NIŠ

Editorial Board
SUZANA ĐUKIĆ

University of Niš
JORDANA MARKOVIĆ

University of Niš
SLOBODAN MILUTINOVIĆ

University of Niš
ZVEZDAN SAVIĆ

University of Niš
MILADIN KOSTIĆ

State University of Novi Pazar
GORAN OBRADOVIĆ

University of Niš
ZORICA MARKOVIĆ

University of Niš
IGOR MLADENOVIĆ

University of Niš
SUZANA MARKOVIĆ KRSTIĆ

University of Niš
DRAGANA STANOJEVIĆ

University of Niš
DARKO DIMOVSKI

University of Niš
SRDAN MILAŠINOVIĆ

University of Criminal Investigation
and Police Studies, Belgrade

International Editorial Board
FRED DERVIN

University of Helsinki,
Department of Teacher Education, Finland

ÁGNES KACZIBA

University of Szeged, Hungary
HRISTO BONDOLOV

St Cyril and St Methodius University
of Veliko Turnovo, Bulgaria

OCTAVIA NEDELUCU

University of Bucharest, Romania
JASMINA STARC

Faculty of Business and Management,
Novo Mesto, Slovenia

Editor-in-Chief
SUZANA ĐUKIĆ

Associate Editor
JORDANA MARKOVIĆ

Editorial Secretary
TATJANA TRAJKOVIĆ

Cover Design
DRAGAN MOMČILOVIĆ

Computer Support
MILE Ž. RANĐELOVIĆ

Secretary
ALEKSANDRA GOLUBOVIĆ

English Text Proofreading
MARIJA BUDIMSKI

Publication frequency – four issues per year
Circulation: 100

The journal is available via Index Copernicus,
"Central and Eastern European Online Library"

(CEEOL), EBSCO Information Services and
Serbian Citation Index

Referred to DOAJ, ERIH PLUS

Editorial office address: Univerzitetski trg 2,
18000 Niš, Serbia. Phone (+381 18) 257-095

Printed by ATLANTIS DOO, Niš, Serbia

Издаје
УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У НИШУ

Редакција

СУЗАНА ЂУКИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ЈОРДАНА МАРКОВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

СЛОБОДАН МИЛУТИНОВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ЗВЕЗДАН САВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

МИЛАДИН КОСТИЋ

Државни универзитет у Новом Пазару

ГОРАН ОБРАДОВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ЗОРИЦА МАРКОВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ИГОР МЛАДЕНОВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

СУЗАНА МАРКОВИЋ КРСТИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ДРАГАНА СТАНОЈЕВИЋ

Универзитет у Нишу

ДАРКО ДИМОВСКИ

Универзитет у Нишу

СРЂАН МИЛАШИНОВИЋ

Криминалистичко-полицијски универзитет,
Београд

Међународна редакција
ФРЕД ДЕРВИН

Универзитет у Хелсинкију,
Република Финска

АГНЕС КАЦИБА

Универзитет у Сегедину, Мађарска

ХРИСТО БОНЦОЛОВ

Универзитет „Св. св. Кирило и Методије”,

Велико Трново, Република Бугарска

ОКТАВИЈА НЕДЕЛКУ

Универзитет у Букурешту, Румунија

ЈАСМИНА СТАРЦ

Факултет за бизнис и менаџмент,
Ново Место, Република Словенија

Главни и одговорни уредник

СУЗАНА ЂУКИЋ

Помоћник уредника

ЈОРДАНА МАРКОВИЋ

Секретар редакције

ТАТЈАНА ТРАЈКОВИЋ

Ликовна опрема

ДРАГАН МОМЧИЛОВИЋ

Компјутерска обрада

МИЛЕ Ж. РАНЂЕЛОВИЋ

Технички секретар редакције

АЛЕКСАНДРА ГОЛУБОВИЋ

Лектура текстова за енглески језик

МАРИЈА БУДИМСКИ

Часопис излази тромесечно

Тираж: 100 примерака

Часопис је доступан преко Index Copernicusa,

„Онлајн библиотеке централне и источне Европе”

(CEEOL), EBSCO базе

и Српског цитатног индекса

Реферисан у DOAJ, ERIH PLUS

Адреса редакције: Универзитетски трг 2,

18000 Ниш. Тел. (018) 257-095

Штампа ATLANTIS DOO, Ниш



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

**Publication of the Teme journal is co-financed by
the Ministry of Science, Technological Development and Innovation
of the Republic of Serbia.**

ТЕМЕ

JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ЧАСОПИС ЗА ДРУШТВЕНЕ НАУКЕ

ТЕМЕ, Vol. XLVII, N° 1, January – March 2023, pp. 1–211

ТЕМЕ, г. XLVII, бр. 1, јануар–март 2023, стр. 1–211

UDC 1+3

ISSN 0353-7919

C O N T E N T S C A Д P Ж A J

- Lana Jerkić Rajić, Mirna Zelić, Jelena Milisavljević,
Tatjana Mentus Kandić, Nevena Strizak, Ivana Obrenović Ilić
THE RISK OF BURNOUT SYNDROME IN SPEECH-LANGUAGE
PATHOLOGISTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA 1-16
- Лана Јеркић Рајић, Мирна Зелић, Јелена Милисављевић,
Татјана Ментус Кандић, Невена Стрижак, Ивана Обреновић Илић
РИЗИК ОД ПРОФЕСИОНАЛНОГ САГОРЕВАЊА
КОД ЛОГОПЕДА У РЕПУБЛИЦИ СРБИЈИ 1-16
- Ivana Marković, Marina Janković-Perić, Tatjana Dugošija
THE INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN BRANDING ON THE CONSUMERS’
PERCEPTION OF PRODUCT QUALITY AND ORIGIN,
AND THEIR PURCHASE DECISION 17-31
- Ивана Марковић, Марина Јанковић-Перић, Татјана Дугошија
УТИЦАЈ СТРАНОГ БРЕНДИРАЊА НА ПЕРЦЕПЦИЈУ ПОТРОШАЧА
О КВАЛИТЕТУ И ПОРЕКЛУ ПРОИЗВОДА,
И ЊИХОВУ ОДЛУКУ О КУПОВИНИ 17-31
- Gordana Dobrijević, Slavko Alčaković
INTRAGROUP CONFLICT AND COHESION
IN INTERACTIVE SPORTS TEAMS 33-47
- Гордана Добријевић, Славко Алачковић
ИНТРАГРУПНИ КОНФЛИКТ И КОХЕЗИЈА
У ИНТЕРАКТИВНИМ СПОРТСКИМ ТИМОВИМА 33-47
- Ranka Perućica, Sanja Živanović, Olivera Kalajdžić
THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS
OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS’ RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS 49-68
- Ранка Перућица, Сања Живановић, Оливера Калајдџић
СОЦИО-ДЕМОГРАФСКЕ ДЕТЕРМИНАТНЕ
УЧЕНИЧКИХ ПРАВА И ОБАВЕЗА У ОСНОВНОЈ ШКОЛИ 49-68
- Monica Huțanu, Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković
CHANGING THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE:
VLACH ROMANIAN IN EASTERN SERBIA 69-86
- Моника Хуцану, Анемари Сореску-Маринковић
ПРОМЕНА ЈЕЗИЧКОГ ПЕЈЗАЖА:
ПОЈАВА ВЛАШКОГ НА НАТПИСИМА У ИСТОЧНОЈ СРБИЈИ 69-86

Tanja Milić	
CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS AND PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOUR AS COMPETITIVENESS FACTORS IN SERBIA: CURRENT STATE OF DEVELOPMENT AND KEY DRIVERS ...	87-104
Тања Милић	
КОРПОРАТИВНА ЕКОЛОШКА СВЕСТ И ПРОЕКОЛОШКО ПОНАШАЊЕ КАО ФАКТОРИ КОНКУРЕНТНОСТИ У СРБИЈИ: ТЕКУЋЕ СТАЊЕ РАЗВОЈА И КЉУЧНИ НОСИОЦИ	87-104
Jelena Andrašić, Vera Mirović, Branimir Kalaš, Nada Milenković, Milica Inđić	
MEASURING VAT EFFICIENCY IN VISEGRAD GROUP COUNTRIES	105-123
Јелена Андрашић, Вера Мировић, Бранимир Калаш, Нада Миленковић, Милица Инђић	
МЕРЕЊЕ ЕФИКАСНОСТИ ПДВ-А У ЗЕМЉАМА ВИШЕГРАДСКЕ ГРУПЕ..	105-123
Miloš Marjanović, Rastko S. Marković, Nemanja Tomić, Ninoslav Golubović, Zlatko Langović, Aleksandar R. Radivojević	
THE POSSIBILITY OF PROMOTING THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF SERBIA THROUGH A CULTURAL ROUTE OF FORTIFIED TOWNS.....	125-142
Милош Марјановић, Растко С. Марковић, Немања Томић, Нинослав Голубовић, Златко Ланговић, Александар Р. Радивојевић	
МОГУЋНОСТ ПРОМОЦИЈЕ КУЛТУРНОГ НАСЛЕЂА СРБИЈЕ КРОЗ КУЛТУРНУ РУТУ УТВРЂЕНИХ ГРАДОВА	125-142
Jovana Lončar, Slobodan Čerović	
THE FACTORS INFLUENCING OVERALL GUEST EXPERIENCE IN HOTELS IN SOUTHEAST EUROPE	143-156
Јована Лончар, Слободан Черовић	
ФАКТОРИ КОЈИ УТИЧУ НА СВЕУКУПАН ДОЖИВЉАЈ ГОСТИЈУ У ХОТЕЛИМА У ЈУГОИСТОЧНОЈ ЕВРОПИ	143-156
Mile Šikman, Velibor Lalić	
CRIMINAL GROUPS – CRIMINOLOGY AND SECURITY PERSPECTIVES (CASE STUDY: BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA)	157-173
Миле Шикман, Велибор Лалић	
ОРГАНИЗОВАНЕ КРИМИНАЛНЕ ГРУПЕ – КРИМИНОЛОШКИ КОНТЕКСТ И БЕЗБЕДНОСНЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВЕ (СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА: БОСНА И ХЕРЦЕГОВИНА)	157-173
Aleksandra Ilić Petković, Vesna Nikolić, Tamara Vukić	
THE AWARENESS OF REGULATIONS IN THE FIELD OF OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY OF HEALTHCARE PROFESSIONALS – A CASE STUDY	175-190
Александра Илић Петковић, Весна Николић, Тамара Вукић	
ПОЗНАВАЊЕ ПРОПИСА О БЕЗБЕДНОСТИ И ЗДРАВЉУ НА РАДУ ЗДРАВСТВЕНИХ РАДНИКА – СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА	175-190
Jelena Vučković, Sonja Lučić	
HATE SPEECH AND SOCIAL MEDIA	191-207
Јелена Вучковић, Соња Лучић	
ГОВОР МРЖЊЕ И ДРУШТВЕНИ МЕДИЈИ.....	191-207
Jordana S. Marković	
INDEXING OF DIALECT TEXTS	209-211
Јордана С. Марковић	
ИНДЕКСИРАЊЕ ДИЈАЛЕКАТСКИХ ТЕКСТОВА	209-211

THE RISK OF BURNOUT SYNDROME IN SPEECH-LANGUAGE PATHOLOGISTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Lana Jerkić Rajić^{1*}, Mirna Zelić², Jelena Milisavljević³,
Tatjana Mentus Kandić¹, Nevena Strižak¹,
Ivana Obrenović Ilić¹

¹Faculty of Special Education and Rehabilitation, Belgrade, Serbia

²Terapika Center, Belgrade, Serbia

³Health Center Zvečan, Zvečan, Serbia

Abstract

Burnout is a current topic which many researchers are dealing with. This syndrome is most commonly considered to occur in people who are engaged in 'helping professions'. Since speech-language pathologists belong to the helping professions, the goal of this study was to assess the extent to which burnout symptoms are present among speech-language pathologists in the Republic of Serbia. The sample of this research included 150 speech-language pathologists employed in state institutions and private centres throughout the Republic of Serbia. The assessment of burnout symptoms was performed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), which measures three different dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal achievement. The use of statistical procedures confirmed the majority of the research hypotheses. This population displays burnout symptoms, which are usually low (on the Depersonalisation and Personal Achievement scales) or high (Emotional Exhaustion) in degree. According to the findings of this study, while older speech-language pathologists report a high level of emotional exhaustion, they also report a higher level of personal achievement. Respondents with more work experience report a greater level of exhaustion. Lower levels of emotional weariness and a lower degree of personal achievement were reported by speech-language pathologists with less work experience. Satisfaction with one's level of income was found to be the most significant predictor of burnout symptoms. Marital status and the number of children have not been associated with burnout symptoms.

Key words: professional burnout, speech-language pathologists, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, personal achievement

* Corresponding author: Lana Jerkić Rajić, Faculty of Special Education and Rehabilitation, Visokog Stevana Street 2, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia, jerkiiclana@yahoo.com

РИЗИК ОД ПРОФЕСИОНАЛНОГ САГОРЕВАЊА КОД ЛОГОПЕДА У РЕПУБЛИЦИ СРБИЈИ

Апстракт

Сагоревање на послу једна је од актуелних тема данашњице и све више истраживања се њоме бави. Сматра се да су јој нарочито подложни професионалци из такозваних „помагачких професија“. С обзиром на то да професија логопеда спада у помагачке професије, циљ истраживања био је да се утврди степен у којем су симптоми сагоревања на послу присутни код ових стручњака у Републици Србији. У овом истраживању учествовало је 150 логопеда запослених у државним и приватним установама широм Републике Србије. Испитивање симптома сагоревања обављено је помоћу Упитника сагоревања на послу за помагачка занимања (енгл. *Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS)*) који мери различите димензије: емоционалну исцрпљеност, деперсонализацију и лични успех. Применом статистичких поступака потврђена је већина истраживачких хипотеза. Симптоми сагоревања, углавном ниског (на скалама деперсонализације и личног успеха) или високог степена (емоционална исцрпљеност), постоје у овој популацији. Резултати овог истраживања указују да старији логопеди пријављују виши ниво личног професионалног успеха иако осећају и висок ниво емоционалне исцрпљености. Већи степен исцрпљености се појављује код испитаника са дужим радним стажом. Код логопеда са краћим радним стажом уочени су нижи нивои емоционалне исцрпљености, али и мањи ниво личног успеха. Као најзначајнији предиктор симптома сагоревања показало се задовољство висином прихода. Показало се да брачни статус и број деце нису повезани са симптомима сагоревања.

Кључне речи: професионално сагоревање, логопеди, емоционална исцрпљеност, деперсонализација, лични успех

INTRODUCTION

In the last few years, burnout syndrome has captured the attention of numerous researchers. In literature, it is defined as a state of chronic stress leading to emotional and physical exhaustion, depersonalisation, and feelings of inefficiency and unfulfillment, which prevents successful functioning both personally and professionally. It develops as a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors in the workplace. Its three dimensions were singled out to be: excessive exhaustion, depersonalisation, and lack of personal achievement. This three-dimensional model is significant because it places an individual's stress experience in a social context and implies a person's perception of himself and others (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). As emotional capabilities are wasted, individuals feel that they have nothing to offer on a psychological level (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 2012). In terms of long-term consequences, overworking and high levels of stress can lead to burnout (Tucker, Weymiller, Cutshall, Rudy, & Lohse, 2012).

The term was introduced by the American psychologist Freudenberg in the 1970s. It is included in the 11th revision of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11) under the code 'QD85'. It specifically refers to phenomena in a professional context, and should not be used to describe experiences in other areas of life (WHO, 2018). Some of the risk factors associated with the syndrome are negative aspects of work (such as overworking, conflicts in the workplace, job insecurity, reduced resources, imbalance between effort and reward, etc.), occupational causes (excessive demands, years of service, organisational requirements, etc.), and demographic variables (younger people, unmarried people, personality traits, unrealistically high expectations, low income, etc.) (Carold-Artar & Vázquez-Cabrera, 2013).

People who suffer from burnout usually manifest psychosomatic disorders (weakness and sleep disorders), emotional problems (anxiety and depression), relationship disorders (hostility, mistrust, and apathy), or behavioural disorders (aggression, irritability, and isolation) (Cañadas-De la Fuente, Vargas, San Luis, Garcia, Cañadas, & De la Fuente, 2015). Domestic authors point out the importance of differentiating burnout from stress and depression. Occupational burnout syndrome differs from stress in that it lasts longer and has the clinical picture of a chronic disorder (Baić, 2017). It differs from depression in that it manifests exclusively in the workplace, but not in other areas of an individual's life, because, at least at the beginning of the process, the symptoms are triggered by circumstances in the workplace. At the same time, burnout syndrome is exclusively related to the content of work, which is the opposite of depression which can be associated with all areas of human life (Dedić, 2005).

Some studies indicate that this syndrome occurs more commonly in people under 30 or 40 years of age, unmarried people, and people with a higher level of education, while the study concerning gender differences did not indicate significant differences (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Research on the impact of marital status on professional burnout was also conducted on samples of respondents working in other helping professions. For example, married nurses in Nigeria showed lower levels of job burnout than widows (Ifeagwazi, 2006). Unmarried educators showed a higher level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation than married ones, while married educators had a higher degree of burnout on the personal achievements scale (Kış, 2014).

Professionals who work in helping professions often spend a long time with other people. Client problems are often difficult to recognise and treat, which can lead to frustration with therapists. For people who work in such conditions for a long time, chronic stress can be emotionally exhausting and can lead to burnout at work (Maslach et al., 2012, p. 11).

A speech-language pathologist is an expert in the area of prevention, detection, diagnosis, and treatment of speech, language, social

communication, cognitive-communication, and swallowing disorders in children and adults (ASHA, 2016). There is a wide range of institutions where it is possible to seek speech and language pathology help and counselling (speech pathology centres, health centres, developmental counselling centres, geriatric centres, school dispensaries, hospitals, institutes, preschool, and primary schools, private practices, etc.). Areas in which the speech-language pathologist provides services are primary, secondary, and tertiary health care, and the educational system, as well as social care institutions, and private practices. The speech-language pathology profession usually necessitates many years of work, an excessive workload, a lack of autonomy at work, and a physical environment that is out of proportion to the quantity of work and income. These factors can discourage the professional, leaving him with no time to expand his knowledge, skills, and abilities, which can lead to mechanical service provision (Menghini, Paz & Lautert, 2011).

By researching literature on the presence of burnout symptoms in this population, it can be concluded that there is a very limited number of studies that have addressed this issue. Furthermore, the smaller number of studies published in this field in the Republic of Serbia implies that the examination of professional burnout is relatively overlooked in our country, and that it is mainly focused on helping professions (Ivanović, Ivančević, Trajković, & Maričić, 2020). Available research in foreign and domestic literature has been mainly based on the examination of occupational overload in medical workers (e.g. Vićentić, Jovanović, Dunjić, Pavlović, Nenadović, & Nenadović, 2010; Dedić, 2005; Medisaukaite & Kamau, 2019; Zhang, Wang, Xie, Yin, Shi, & Zhang, 2020; Zotović, Ukropina, Mijatović-Jovanović, & Harhaji, 2022; etc.), students (e.g. García-Flores, Vega Rodríguez, Farias Fritz, Améstica-Rivas, & Aburto Godoy, 2018; Ilić Živojinović, Backović, Belojević, Valčić, Soldatović, & Janković, 2020; etc.), and the population of special educators and rehabilitators (e.g. Duli, 2016; Jovanović, Karić, Hinić, Stojanović, Džamonja-Ignjatović, & Mihajlović, 2019; Zdravković, 2015; etc.).

Data on professional burnout among speech-language pathologists was scarce until 2014 (Brito da Nobrega & Barboza, 2014). The available data is recent. Thus, according to a study conducted in Iran involving 182 speech-language pathologists, all respondents reported a low or moderate degree of burnout. The burnout degree was higher in respondents with more clients and lower incomes (Kasbi, Kaviani, Mokhlessin, Monshizadeh, Noruzi, & Sadat Kia, 2018). A study of burnout among school speech-language pathologists found significant levels of stress and burnout in the following areas: client number, earnings, and consumption of medication. According to the authors, interventions to help this population should focus on increasing support, reducing the number of clients, and improving salaries (Ferneý Harris, Prater, Dyches, & Allen Heath, 2008). According to Italian researchers, 32.2% of rehabilitation profes-

sionals (including speech-language pathologists) were at high risk on the Emotional Exhaustion scale, 13.8% were at high risk on the Depersonalisation scale, and 9.2% were at high risk on the Personal Achievement scale (Bruschini, Carli, & Burla, 2018). In a study conducted on a sample of 217 Italian speech-language pathologists, another group of authors found that a lack of coherence is a risk factor for the development of symptoms of professional burnout (Galleta et al., 2019).

Due to the growing number of children and adults with speech and language disorders, and the increasing workload, speech-language pathologists are faced with intense business demands and an increasing number of responsibilities, which makes them particularly vulnerable to burnout and job dissatisfaction (Wisniewski and Gargiulo, 1997; according to Matijević, 2020). Given that the speech-language pathologist profession belongs to the helping professions, whose professionals are, according to previous research, particularly exposed to burnout syndrome at work, this study aimed to determine the degree to which burnout symptoms are present among these professionals in the Republic of Serbia.

METHOD

Problem, Aim and Tasks of Research

The basic question in this research was whether speech-language pathologists are at risk of burnout. Accordingly, the research aimed to determine the degree of burnout symptoms in this population.

Based on the subject and the goal of the research, the following tasks related to the connection between socio-demographic variables and the presence of burnout symptoms were set: (1) examine the degree of burnout symptoms in speech-language pathologists; (2) examine whether the appearance of burnout symptoms is influenced by age; (3) examine whether the appearance of burnout symptoms is affected by years of service; (4) examine whether the appearance of burnout symptoms is influenced by the type of institution in which the respondents are employed; (5) examine the influence of marital status on the occurrence of burnout symptoms; (6) examine whether there is a difference in the degree of burnout between persons who have and persons who do not have children; and (7) examine whether salary satisfaction affects the appearance of burnout symptoms.

Research Hypotheses

Based on the research tasks and the previously presented research on the topic (which were performed on a more heterogeneous population), the following hypotheses were formulated: (1) symptoms of burnout are more pronounced in older subjects than they are in younger sub-

jects; (2) symptoms of burnout are reflected in people with longer work experience to a greater degree; (3) symptoms of burnout are reflected in persons employed in private practices to a greater degree than they are in persons employed in state institutions; (4) burnout symptoms are reflected in unmarried people to a greater degree than they are in single or divorced people; (5) symptoms of burnout are reflected in people who have children to a greater degree than they are in people who do not have children; and (6) people who are less satisfied with their level of income will show a higher degree of burnout.

Research Method

Sample. This study included 150 participants. The convenience sample consisted of experts working in private and public institutions throughout the Republic of Serbia who voluntarily consented to participate in the study. The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents in printed form.

The mean age of the respondents was 33.76 years ($SD = 7.808$), while the mean value for years of service was 7.58 ($SD = 6.923$). The mean value of satisfaction with income was 2.89 ($SD = 1.044$), which indicates that the respondents are, on average, indifferent to their income. The demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample structure concerning socio-demographic variables

$n = 152$		f	P	χ^2
Gender	Male	4	2.70%	134.427**
	Female	146	97.30%	
	Total	150	100.00%	
Type of institution	State	89	59.30%	5.227*
	Private	61	40.70%	
	Total	150	100.00%	
Marital status	Unmarried	67	44.70%	1.707
	Married	83	55.30%	
	Total	150	100.00%	
Parental status	No children	77	51.30%	22.680**
	One child	32	21.30%	
	Two and more children	41	27.30%	
	Total	150	100.00%	
Satisfaction with income	Very dissatisfied	17	11.30%	58.867**
	Mostly dissatisfied	30	20.00%	
	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	64	42.70%	
	Mostly satisfied	30	20.00%	
	Very satisfied	9	6%	
Total		150	100.00%	

Note: n - number of respondents; f - frequency; P - percentage; χ^2 - results of the χ^2 test; * - $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$;

Instrument and procedure. First, data on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, years of service, marital and parental status, and satisfaction with the level of income) was collected. Data collection was performed in September 2020.

The research was conducted using MBI-HSS (Maslach Burnout Inventory - Human Services Survey) (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996)¹. It consists of 22 statements divided into three sections, with which respondents express the degree of agreement on a seven-point Likert-type scale from zero (“Never”) to six (“Every day”). To determine the risk of burnout syndrome, this instrument measures three components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal achievement. A score is calculated for each of the listed components. High scores in the first two sections, and a low score in the last section may indicate burnout. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s α) are: 0.90 (Emotional Exhaustion), 0.79 (Depersonalisation) and 0.71 (Personal Achievement).

Data processing. The collected data was processed using the SPSS program (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Methods of descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the results as follows: T-test for independent samples (to examine differences concerning the type of institution and marital status), One-factor analysis of variance - ANOVA (parental status), Correlation analysis (to examine the correlation of age, years of service and satisfaction with income with the results on all scales), and Multiple regression analysis (for the possibility of predicting burnout in relation to age, work experience and satisfaction with income).

RESULTS

After statistical processing, the following results were obtained:

Table 2. Classification of results into categories of burnout

	Classification (%)		
	Low	Moderate	High
<i>n = 150</i>	P (N)	P (N)	P (N)
Emotional exhaustion	30.00% (45)	34.70% (52)	35.30% (53)
Depersonalisation	63.30% (95)	24.70% (37)	12.00% (18)
Personal achievement	90.70% (136)	9.30% (14)	0.00% (0)

Note: P – percentage; N – number of respondents;

Table 2 shows the results of the respondents’ answers concerning the degree of burnout. On the Emotional Exhaustion scale, the highest

¹ Note: The use of the instrument in this research has been approved by Sinapsa edicije d.o.o., Kopernikova 6, 11 000 Belgrade;

percentage of respondents reported a high degree of burnout (35.3%), followed by a moderate degree of burnout (34.7%), while the lowest percentage of respondents reported a low degree of burnout (30.0%).

As concerns the Depersonalisation scale, the highest percentage of respondents reported a low degree of burnout (63.3%), followed by reports of a moderate degree of burnout (24.7%), and the lowest percentage of respondents reported a low degree of burnout (12.0%).

Most of the respondents reported a low degree of burnout on the Personal Achievement scale (90.7%), while none of the respondents reported a high degree of burnout. This indicates that most of the respondent feel a high level of personal achievement.

Table 3. Descriptive measures

<i>n</i> = 150	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>
Emotional exhaustion	22.69	9.429	0.770
Depersonalisation	5.56	5.330	0.435
Personal achievement	38.27	6.903	0.564

Note: *n* - number of respondents; *M* - arithmetic mean; *SD* - standard deviation; *SEM* - standard measurement error;

There was a statistically significant correlation between age and the test results on subtests Emotional Exhaustion ($r = 0.195, p < 0.05$) and Personal Achievement ($r = 0.202, p < 0.05$), while no significant correlation was observed on the Depersonalisation scale ($r = -0.025, p > 0.05$). Older respondents are more emotionally exhausted and experience more personal achievement, while younger respondents experience less emotional exhaustion and less personal achievement.

Using Pearson's correlation, the hypothesis on the connection between the respondents' work experience and burnout was also tested. Statistical analysis showed that there is a statistically significant relationship in terms of the respondents' years of service on the scales Emotional Exhaustion ($r = 0.162, p < 0.05$) and Personal Achievement ($r = 0.212, p < 0.01$), while this relationship was not observed on the Depersonalisation scale ($r = -0.048, p > 0.05$). People with more work experience are more emotionally exhausted and experience more personal achievement.

The T-test for independent samples did not show a statistically significant difference in burnout between the respondents in relation to either the type of institution in which the respondents are employed (Emotional Exhaustion ($t = -0.258, df = 148, p > 0.05$), Depersonalisation ($t = -0.617, df = 148, p > 0.05$) and Personal Achievement ($t = 1.139, df = 148, p > 0.05$)) or the respondents' marital status (Emotional Exhaustion ($t = 0.409, df = 148, p > 0.05$), Depersonalisation ($t = 1.094, df = 148, p > 0.05$) and Personal Achievement ($t = -1.357, df = 148, p > 0.05$)).

Using One-way ANOVA, no statistically significant difference in burnout was observed on the Emotional Exhaustion ($F(2,147) = 0.881$; $p > 0.05$), Depersonalisation ($F(2,147) = 0.959$; $p > 0.05$), or Personal Achievement ($F(2,147) = 0.827$; $p > 0.05$) scales among the subjects in terms of their parental status.

The hypothesis which assumed that persons who are less satisfied with their level of income will show a higher degree of burnout is confirmed. A statistically significant correlation was shown to exist between satisfaction with the level of income and burnout on all subtests, namely: Emotional Exhaustion ($r = -0.430$, $p < 0.01$), Depersonalisation ($r = -0.238$, $p < 0.01$) and Personal Achievement ($r = 0.216$, $p < 0.01$). It has been shown that persons who reported a higher degree of satisfaction with the level of income feel less emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, while experiencing more personal achievement.

Using multiple regression, we examined whether emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal achievement could be predicted by age, years of service, and satisfaction with income (Table 4). Satisfaction with the level of income was shown to be a significant predictor for all three of the examined factors, while statistical significance was not shown for age and work experience in the given models.

Table 4. Possibility of predicting burnout concerning age, years of service and satisfaction with income

$n = 150$		R	R^2	F	df_1	df_2	β	t	p
Emotional exhaustion	Age						0.227	1.032	0.304
	Years of service	0.445	0.198	11.988**	3	146	-0.125	-0.574	0.567
	Satisfaction with income						-0.404	-5.321	0.000**
Depersonalisation	Age						0.084	0.353	0.724
	Years of service	0.257	0.066	3.439*	3	146	-0.173	-0.733	0.464
	Satisfaction with income						-0.252	-3.070	0.003**
Personal achievement	Age						0.121	0.525	0.600
	Years of service	0.337	0.114	6.255**	3	146	0.147	0.638	0.524
	Satisfaction with income						0.269	3.372	0.001**

Note: * - $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$;

DISCUSSION

The convenience sample in this study was made up of professionals working in private and public institutions in the Republic of Serbia who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. The respondents' mean age was 33.76 years, and their mean years of service was 7.58 years. On a scale of 1 to 5, the mean value of satisfaction with the level of income was 2.89, suggesting that, on average, respondents were indifferent to their level of income.

The presence of professional burnout in the speech pathology profession was examined using the MBI-HSS instrument (Maslach Burnout Inventory - Human Services Survey: MBI-HSS) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). So far, it has been applied to experts from numerous professions, but it was only recently, in the last several years, applied to speech-language pathologists. In the future, after gathering sufficient data from different nations, it would be beneficial to analyse the findings of those studies and identify the similarities and differences in burnout among speech-language pathologists from different language areas. The results of this study, which aimed to determine the extent to which burnout symptoms are present among speech-language pathologists in the Republic of Serbia, confirmed most of the hypotheses set in the methodology section of the paper, while it dismissed others.

The gender of the majority of the respondents (97.3%) was a limiting factor in extending the existing studies to the influence of gender on the subject of the study. Other research findings likewise did not show statistically significant differences between genders, due to the samples' disproportionality. Speech-language pathology is a 'female-gendered' occupation since a significantly larger number of women are employed and educated in it. The belief that women more often choose this profession due to their higher levels of empathy and tendency to cope with the challenges required to work with this population is widespread (Mahmutović & Nikolić, 2019; Stringari *et al.*, 2019).

In our study, the highest percentage of respondents reported a high level of emotional exhaustion (35.3%) and a low degree of burnout on the scales of Personal Auccess (90.7%) and Depersonalisation (63.3%). These findings differ from those obtained by Canadian authors, whose results, obtained using a specially designed questionnaire on a bigger sample than the one included in our study, found moderate (26%) and low (50%) levels of burnout in the majority of their respondents (Potter & Legace, 1995). According to Kaegi *et al.* (2002), it is more useful to analyse which components of the job speech-language pathologists are satisfied with, whether these are sufficient reason for one to remain in their current workplace, and which areas require changes. Other authors state that, despite emotional exhaustion, individuals may still feel their work is

worthwhile and may not have a negative attitude toward their clients (Swidler & Ross, 1993).

Certain empirical data shows that the risk of professional burnout is higher among older speech-language pathologists (Severn, Searchfield, & Huggard, 2012). According to our findings, older respondents, and those with more work experience, are more emotionally exhausted, but experience more personal achievement, whereas younger respondents reported less emotional exhaustion, along with a lower degree of personal achievement. Similar data was obtained by Jovanović et al. (2019) on a more general sample of special educators and rehabilitators (and not speech-language pathologists specifically) in relation to the relationship between age and professional burnout, and by Popov and Stefanović (2016) in relation to the relationship between years of service and burnout.

Some authors argue that younger persons are still getting used to working and are eager to prove themselves and secure permanent employment. It is possible that they have different life priorities and do not consider workplace concerns, but older professionals probably feel the cumulative effect of many years of effort, deteriorating working conditions, and possibly a sense of unfulfillment or loss of perspective (Jovanović et al., 2019). Certain empirical findings suggest that younger persons are more likely to experience burnout because they have less professional experience and have not established effective coping strategies for workplace stress (Bilge, 2006; Maslach, 2001).

Lack of autonomy, an unsuitable work environment, and income dissatisfaction are all factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction. To compensate for such negative factors, it is essential to create a working environment in which professionals have greater autonomy, in which they can progress professionally and self-develop, and in which their efforts are rewarded with appropriate salaries (Oh, 2019). According to the findings of our study, dissatisfaction with one's level of income has a significant impact on professional burnout among speech-language pathologists. Individuals who reported higher levels of income satisfaction reported less emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, and a greater degree of personal achievement. Other authors point out that intervention through salary increases would be effective in reducing burnout. Given the fact that speech-language pathologists have a responsibility to children and their families, interventions to reduce burnout symptoms are crucial (Ferne Harris et al., 2008; Stringari et al., 2019).

Due to the nature of their work, speech-language pathologists must take care of their physical and mental health, as the quality of the services they provide is dependent on these factors (Brito da Nobrega et al., 2014). Cooperation with specialists from other fields (such as psychologists) could have an impact on job satisfaction. It was found that speech therapists who collaborated more closely with psychologists were more satisfied (Ocampo & Kennedy, 2019).

CONCLUSION

It should be emphasised that recent reviews of literature indicate a variability of findings and used methodologies when it comes to professional burnout among speech-language pathologists, as well as a scarcity of data in this field (Brito-Marcelino, Oliva-Costa, Sarmiento, & Carvalho, 2019; Ewen, Jenkins, Jackson, Jutley-Neilson, & Galvin, 2021). According to our knowledge, this is the first study which examined professional burnout and its dimensions in this population in the Republic of Serbia in detail. Age, years of service, and level of income were found to be the most significant factors in professional burnout among speech-language pathologists in our country.

Future research should focus on including more male respondents and examining gender differences. We also believe it would be interesting to investigate differences in the manifestation of professional burnout symptoms among professionals in relation to the type of speech-language pathologies in clients to whom speech-language pathologists provide professional treatment and support.

This study contributes to the understanding of the factors that influence the psychological health of speech-language pathologists. Timely detection and management of difficulties produced by the professional context can undoubtedly contribute to each individual's personal satisfaction. Adequate coping techniques for burnout would allow speech-language pathologists to reach the optimal level of psychological and physical well-being, which would certainly contribute to the quality of speech-language pathology services.

REFERENCES

- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA). (2016). Scope of Practice in Speech-Language Pathology [Scope of Practice]. Преузето са www.asha.org/policy.
- Баић, В. (2017). Синдром сагоревања радника запослених у Градском заводу за хитну медицинску помоћ [Burnout syndrome of employees of the City Institute for Emergency Medical Aid]. *Научни часопис ургентне медицине – Хало 194*, 23(2), 71-78.
- Bilge, F. (2006). Examining the burnout of academics in relation to job satisfaction and other factors. *Social Behavior And Personality: An International Journal*, 34(9), 1151-1160. doi:10.2224/sbp.2006.34.9.1151
- Brito-Marcelino, A., Oliva-Costa, E. F., Sarmiento, S., & Carvalho, A. A. (2020). Burnout syndrome in speech-language pathologists and audiologists: a review. *Revista brasileira de medicina do trabalho: publicacao oficial da Associacao Nacional de Medicina do Trabalho-ANAMT*, 18(2), 217-222. doi:10.47626/1679-4435-2020-480
- Brito da Nobrega, C., & Barboza, P. (2014). O fonoaudiólogo adoecido: síndrome de Burnout e fonoaudiologia hospitalar – uma revisão. *Revista CEFAC*, 16(3), 985-991. doi: 10.1590/1982-021620146013

- Bruschini, M., Carli, A., & Burla, F. (2018). Burnout and work-related stress in Italian rehabilitation professionals: A comparison of physiotherapists, speech therapists and occupational therapists. *Work*, 59(1), 121-129. doi:10.3233/wor-172657
- Cañadas-De la Fuente, G., Vargas, C., San Luis, C., García, I., Cañadas, G., & De la Fuente, E. (2015). Risk factors and prevalence of burnout syndrome in the nursing profession. *International Journal Of Nursing Studies*, 52(1), 240-249. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2014.070.001
- Carod-Artal, F. J., & Vázquez-Cabrera, C. (2013). Burnout syndrome in an international setting. In *Burnout for experts* (p. 15-35). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Дедић, Г. (2005). Синдром сагоревања на раду [Professional burnout]. *Војносанитетски Преглед*, 62(11), 851-855. doi:10.2298/VSP0511851D
- Duli, S. (2016). Years of Work Experience, an Important Predictor of Burnout in Special Education. *American Scientific Research Journal for Engineering, Technology and Sciences*, 17(1), 318-322.
- Eksterdt, M., & Fagerberg, I. (2005). Lived experiences of the timepreceding burnout. *J Adv Nurs*, 49(1), 59-67. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03264.x
- Ewen, C., Jenkins, H., Jackson, C., Jutley-Neilson, J., & Galvin, J. (2021). Well-being, job satisfaction, stress and burnout in speech-language pathologists: A review. *International journal of speech-language pathology*, 23(2), 180-190.
- Ferney Harris, S., Prater, M., Dyches, T., & Allen Heath, M. (2008). Job Stress of School-Based Speech-Language Pathologists. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 30(2), 103-111.
- Galletta, M., Portoghese, I., Frau, N., Pau, M., Meloni, F., Finco, G., Contu, P., & Campagna, M. (2019). Association between burnout and sense of coherence among speech and language therapists: an exploratory study in Italy. *Acta bio-medica: Atenei Parmensis*, 90(4-S), 25-31. doi:10.23750/abm.v90i4-S.8261
- García-Flores, V., Vega Rodríguez, Y., Farias Fritz, B., Améstica-Rivas, L., & Aburto Godoy, R. (2018). Factores Asociados al Burnout Académico en Estudiantes de Internado Profesional de Fonoaudiología. *Ciencia & Trabajo*, 20(62), 84-89. doi:10.4067/s0718-24492018000200084
- Ifeagwazi, F. C. M. (2006). The Influence of Marital Status on Self-Report of Symptoms of Psychological Burnout among Nurses. *OMEGA - Journal of Death and Dying*, 52(4), 359-373.
- Ilić Živojinović, J., Backović, D., Belojević, G., Valčić, O., Soldatović, I., & Janković, J. (2020). Predictors of burnout among Belgrade veterinary students: A cross-sectional study. *PLOS ONE*, 15(3), e0230685. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0230685
- Ivanović, T., Ivančević, S., Trajković, T., & Maričić, M. (2021). Do recruiters in Serbia face burnout? The impact of demographic factors, deadlines and work pressure on burnout presence. *Teme*, XLIV(4), 1351-1367. doi:10.22190/TEME190404080I
- Јовановић, В., Карић, Ј., Хинић, Д., Стојановић, Г., Џамоња-Игњатовић, Т., и Михајловић, Г. (2019). Синдром сагоревања дефектолога запослених у школама са сметњама у развоју [Burnout syndrome of special educators employed in schools with disabilities]. *Енграми*, 41(2), 21-33. doi:10.5937/engrami1902021J
- Kaegi, S., Svitich, K., Chambers, L., Bakker, C., & Schneider, P. (2002). Job satisfaction of school speech-language pathologists. *Journal of Speech Language Pathology and Audiology*, 26(3), 126-137.
- Kasbi, F., Kaviani, S., Mokhlessin, M., Monshizadeh, L., Noruzi, R., & Sadat Kia, N. (2018). Job Burnout Among Iranian Speech-language Pathologists. *Middle East J Rehabil Health Stud*, 5(3), e64374.

- Kıř, A. (2014). Marital status differences in burnout among educational stakeholders: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, *11*(2), 543-558. doi:10.14687/ijhs.v11i2.2922
- Махмутовић, А., и Николић, М. (2019). Сполне разлике у перцепцији професионалне преоптерећености код едукацијско-рехабилитацијских стручњака [Gender differences in the perception of professional overload in educational and rehabilitation professionals]. *ДХС*, *1*(7), 273-286.
- Матијевић, К. (2020). Задовољство послом, доживљај смислености посла и социјална подршка код логопеда у Хрватској [Job satisfaction, experience of the meaning of work and social support for speech therapists in Croatia]. *Логоедуја*, *10*(1), 7-14. doi:10.31299/log.10.1.2
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. (2016). Understanding the burnout experience: recent research and its implications for psychiatry. *World Psychiatry*, *15*(2), 103–111. doi:10.1002/wps.20311
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). *Maslach burnout inventory manual*. Palo Alto, Calif. (577 College Ave., Palo Alto 94306): Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S., & Leiter, M. (2012). Упитник изгарања на послу Christine Maslach [Burn-out questionnaire at work of Christina Maslach]. Загреб: Наклада Слп.
- Maslach, S., Shaufeli, W., & Leiter, M. (2001). Job burnout. *Annu Rev Psychol*, 397-422.
- Medisauskaite, A., & Kamau, C. (2019). Reducing burnout and anxiety among doctors: Randomized controlled trial. *Psychiatry Research*, *274*, 383-390. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2019.02.075
- Meneghini, F., Paz, A., & Lautert, L. (2011). Fatores ocupacionais associados aos componentes da síndrome de Burnout em trabalhadores de enfermagem. *Texto & Contexto - Enfermagem*, *20*(2), 225-233. doi:10.1590/S0104-07072011000200002.
- Ocampo, A., & Kennedy, K. (2019). The Relationship of Collaboration and Job Satisfaction Between Speech-Language Pathologists and School Psychologists. *Perspectives Of The ASHA Special Interest Groups*, *4*(1), 188-203. doi:10.1044/pers-sig16-2018-0003
- Oh, S. M. (2019). The relationship between job stress and service attitude among speech-language pathologists. *International Journal of Caring Sciences*, *12*(1), 69-78.
- Попов, С., и Стефановић, Б. (2016). Синдром сагоревања и когнитивна емоционална регулација у професији дефектолога [Burnout syndrome and cognitive emotional regulation in profession of special educators and rehabilitators]. У: Потпић, С., Голубовић, Ш. & Шћепановић, М. (Ур.): *Тематски зборник радова међународног значаја "Инклузивна теорија и пракса"* (стр. 284-291). Нови Сад: Друштво дефектолога Војводине.
- Potter, R., & Legace, P. (1995). L'incidence d'épuisement professionnel chez les orthophonistes. *Canadian Journal of Speech-Language Pathology and audiology*, *19*(3), 181-186.
- Severn, M. S., Searchfield, G. D., & Huggard, P. (2012). Occupational stress amongst audiologists: compassion satisfaction, compassion fatigue, and burnout. *International journal of audiology*, *51*(1), 3–9. doi:10.3109/14992027.2011.602366
- Stringari, V., Skordilis, E., Stavrou, N., & Tzonichaki, I. (2019). Job Satisfaction and Burnout among Greek Professionals Providing Services for Children with Disabilities. *Journal of Educational System*, *3*(3), 1-11. doi:10.5937/sjm13-15801
- Swidler, M., & Ross, E. (1993). Burnout: A smouldering problem amongst South African speech-language pathologists and audiologists?. *South African Journal Of Communication Disorders*, *40*(1). doi:10.4102/sajcd.v40i1.268

- Tucker, S., Weymiller, A., Cutshall, S., Rhudy, L., & Lohse, C. (2012). Stress Ratings and Health Promotion Practices Among RNs. *JONA: The Journal Of Nursing Administration*, 42(5), 282-292. doi:10.1097/nna.0b013e318253585f
- Вићентић, С., Јовановић, А., Дуњић, Б., Павловић, З., Ненадовић, М., и Ненадовић, Н. (2010). Професионални стрес код лекара опште праксе и психијатара - ниво психичког дистреса и ризика од бурноут синдрома [Professional stress in general practitioners and psychiatrists - the level of psychological distress and burnout risk]. *Војносанитетски преглед*, 67(9), 741-746. doi:10.2298/VSP1009741V
- World Health Organization (2018). International classification of diseases for mortality and morbidity statistics (11th Revision). Преузето са <https://icd.who.int/browse11/l-m/en>
- Здравковић, Р., Пантовић, А., Маћешкић Петровић, Д., и Лазивић Пушкаш, Д. (2015). Мерење нивоа професионалног сагоревања код дефектолога запослених у образовним установама [Measuring the level of professional burnout in special educators employed in educational institutions]. У: Вуковић М. (Ур.): 9. Међународни научни скуп "Специјална едукација и рехабилитација данас" (стр. 267-273). Београд: Универзитет у Београду - Факултет за специјалну едукацију и рехабилитацију.
- Zhang, S., Wang, J., Xie, F., Yin, D., Shi, Y., & Zhang, M. et al. (2020). A cross-sectional study of job burnout, psychological attachment, and the career calling of Chinese doctors. *BMC Health Services Research*, 20(1). doi:10.1186/s12913-020-4996-y
- Zotović, M., Ukropina, S., Mijatović-Jovanović, V., & Harhaji, S. (2022). Burnout in healthcare professionals during COVID-19 pandemic: correlates and predictors. *Теме, XLV(4)*, 1275-1293. doi:10.22190/ТЕМЕ210830075Z

РИЗИК ОД ПРОФЕСИОНАЛНОГ САГОРЕВАЊА КОД ЛОГОПЕДА У РЕПУБЛИЦИ СРБИЈИ

Лана Јеркић Рајић¹, Мирна Зелић², Јелена Милисављевић³,
Татјана Менгус Кандић¹, Невена Стрижак¹, Ивана Обреновић Илић¹

¹Факултет за специјалну едукацију и рехабилитацију, Београд, Србија

²Центар Терапика, Београд, Србија

³Дом здравља „Звечан“, Звечан, Србија

Резиме

С обзиром да се у литератури могу пронаћи бројне студије које извештавају о сагоревању на послу код стручњака различитих професија, покушали смо да испитамо у ком степену су симптоми сагоревања присутни код логопеда. Логопеди су стручњаци који пружају помоћ деци и одраслима са сметњама и поремећајима гласа, говора, језика и комуникације, и запослени су у различитим институцијама (здравственим, просветним, установама за социјални рад, приватним логопедским центрима, развојним саветовалиштима и др.), те њихова професија спада у помагачка занимања.

Истраживањем смо покушали да утврдимо да ли су логопеди у ризику од сагоревања, те је основни циљ истраживања био усмерен ка утврђивању степена сагоревања код стручњака овог профила.

Задачи истраживања били су усмерени на испитивање утицаја и повезаности различитих социо-демографских варијабли (године старости, дужина радног стажа, тип установе у којима су испитаници запослени, брачног и родитељског статуса и задовољства висином примања) и добијених вредности на скалама упитника (емоционална исцрпљеност, деперсонализација и лични успех).

Истраживање је спроведено помоћу Упитника сагоревања на послу за помагачка занимања (Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS)) и обухватило је 150 испитаника запослених у приватним и државним установама у Републици Србији. Прикупљени подаци обрађени су уз помоћ СПСС програма и коришћене су методе дескриптивне и инференцијалне статистике.

Сврставањем испитаника у категорије сагоревања дошли смо до резултата да је највећи проценат испитаника пријавио низак степен сагоревања на скалама деперсонализације (63.3%) и личног успеха (90.7%), као и висок степен на скали емоционалне исцрпљености (35.3%). Упоређујући резултате на скалама упитника са социо-демографским варијаблама, дошли смо до следећих закључака:

1. Старији испитаници пријавили су већи степен сагоревања на скали емоционалне исцрпљености ($r = 0.195$, $p < 0.05$), али доживљавају више личног успеха ($r = 0.202$, $p < 0.05$), док значајна повезаност није уочена на скали деперсонализације ($r = -0.025$, $p > 0.05$);

2. Испитаници са дужим радним стажом такође су пријавили већи степен сагоревања на скали емоционалне исцрпљености ($r = 0.162$, $p < 0.05$), али и да доживљавају више личног успеха ($r = 0.212$, $p < 0.01$). Значајна повезаност није уочена на скали деперсонализације ($r = -0.048$, $p > 0.05$);

3. Испитаници који су задовољнији висином примања пријавили су ниже степене сагоревања на свим скалама и то: емоционална исцрпљеност ($r = -0.430$, $p < 0.01$), деперсонализација ($r = -0.238$, $p < 0.01$) и лични успех ($r = 0.216$, $p < 0.01$). Задовољство примањима истакло се као значајан предиктор сагоревања на послу у нашем узорку;

4. Иако неке студије извештавају о разликама у сагоревању, у овом узорку није регистрована значајна разлика између сагоревања испитаника у односу на брачни и родитељски статус, као ни у односу на тип установе у којој су испитаници запослени;

Ова студија је прва којом се у нашој земљи испитивало професионално сагоревање у популацији логопеда. Испитивање и унапређивање различитих аспеката психолошке добробити логопеда може се позитивно одразити и на квалитет онога што својим радом пружају различитим популацијама корисника.

THE INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN BRANDING ON THE CONSUMERS' PERCEPTION OF PRODUCT QUALITY AND ORIGIN, AND THEIR PURCHASE DECISION

Ivana Marković*, Marina Janković-Perić, Tatjana Dugošija

Western Serbia Academy of Applied Studies, Valjevo, Serbia

Abstract

A brand name conveys substantial product-related information. Its purpose is not only to differentiate the product but also to communicate values important to the consumer, such as the nature, purpose and category of the product, its origin, price, and/or quality. The aim of this paper is to examine the influence of foreign brand names on the consumers' perception of product origin and quality, and their decision to purchase textile products in the Republic of Serbia. Data was collected via the personal interview method, using an online survey, and the hypotheses were tested by regression analysis and the Chi-square test. The obtained results indicate that the use of foreign brand names for clothing products leads consumers to believe that these products are manufactured abroad. In addition, consumers perceive clothes with foreign brand names as being of higher quality, which further influences their purchase decision.

Key words: brand name, foreign branding, product origin, quality, purchase decision

УТИЦАЈ СТРАНОГ БРЕНДИРАЊА НА ПЕРЦЕПЦИЈУ ПОТРОШАЧА О КВАЛИТЕТУ И ПОРЕКЛУ ПРОИЗВОДА, И ЊИХОВУ ОДЛУКУ О КУПОВИНИ

Апстракт

Име брэнда говори пуно о производу. Оно служи не само да диференцира производ већ и да комуницира вредности битне за потрошача као што су природа, сврха и категорија производа, те његово порекло, цена и/или квалитет. Циљ рада је да се испита утицај страног имена брэнда на перцепцију потрошача о пореклу и квалитету производа, и њихову одлуку о куповини текстилних производа у Србији. Подаци су прикупљени методом личног интервјуа помоћу онлајн анкете, а хипотезе су тестиране регресионом анализом и Хи квадрат тестом сла-

* Corresponding author: Ivana Marković, Western Serbia Academy of Applied Studies, Valjevo, Serbia, ivana.markovic@vipos.edu.rs

гања. Добијени резултати указују да страно име брэнда наводи потрошача да мисли да је у питању гардероба произведена изван Републике Србије. Осим тога, одећу страног брэнда потрошачи доживљавају као квалитетнију, што даље утиче на њихову одлуку о куповини.

Кључне речи: име брэнда, страно брэндирање, порекло производа, квалитет, одлука о куповини

INTRODUCTION

There are countless brands and product substitutes on the market today, so it is not surprising that companies go to great lengths to build strong brands. A strong brand differentiates a product, communicates consistent quality and helps consumers make faster and easier purchase decisions (Alashban, Hayes, Zinkhan, & Balazs, 2002). Strong brands easily generate loyal consumer bases, and this further affects the generation of high profits, which is the goal of all market participants (Banjo, Obasan, & Ariyo, 2015). The first thing a consumer hears and learns about a brand is its name, and it is for this reason that many authors argue that the success of a product largely depends on how well its name is created (Eskiev, 2021). Choosing a suitable brand name directly affects brand awareness and brand knowledge, and creates a positive brand image (Keller, Heckler, & Houston, 1998). A brand name often clearly indicates the nature, purpose and core value of a product, associates a product with the expected quality and implies a product's origin. Consequently, by creating and choosing effective brand names, marketing and brand managers have excellent opportunities to create positive associations, perceptions and brand image in the consumer's mind. One of the options that marketing or brand managers have when naming a brand is to give it a name in a foreign language. This practice is called 'foreign branding'. Foreign branding is a strategy that entails using brand names that evoke foreign associations through "spelling or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language" (Melnyk, Klein, & Völckner, 2012, p. 21). In many countries, products with foreign brand names are perceived as products of better quality, higher status, more favorable reputation and more refined technical performances (Dogan & Özkara, 2013). Through the application of foreign branding, consumers are led to have misperceptions of product origin, as a product's country of origin (the 'made in' label) has been proven to largely affect consumer perception of product quality (Adina, Capatina, & Stoenescu, 2015; Chao, 1998; Yang, Ramsaran, & Wibowo, 2016). Consumers are always ready to pay a premium price for a higher quality product, and to make a repeat purchase. Accordingly, the focus of this paper will be to examine whether foreign branding influences the consumers' perception of a product's country of origin and quality, and their purchase decision. The first part

of the paper provides an overview of the current theoretical and practical knowledge in this field of research. The second part addresses the methodology applied, as well as the sample structure. The third part presents the results of empirical research. The final part of the paper presents conclusions, discusses the contributions and limitations of the research, and makes recommendations for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Veljković (2009), “a brand name represents part of a brand that can be pronounced” (p. 214), and it is the most visible and sensitive component of a product that identifies and differentiates it. Practice has shown that the brand name is more memorable than other elements of brand identity (Eskiev, 2021), which points to the fact that brand naming is a strategic decision. Once a brand has been named, it is difficult to change its name later. Hilgenkamp and Shanteau (2010) suggested that the brand name is the most important determinant of product quality perceptions. This study points out that quality perception will be more favourable when the brand has a high brand value in comparison with low brand (generic) value. Furthermore, the choice of a brand name can affect or change the consumer's choice and decision-making process (Karimi, Papamichail, & Holland, 2015; Uyar & Dursun, 2015).

For that reason, it is important to approach brand naming with great dedication and responsibility. When naming a brand, the following recommendations should be adhered to: the name should be easy to pronounce and read; it should be unique, memorable and different from the names of competitors' products or services; its meaning should suggest the product or service category, and it should evoke positive emotions (Eskiev, 2021). Choosing a brand name is often crucial to the success of the product on the market (Jobber & Fahy, 2008). Naming a product is a complex, time-consuming and expensive process, and this process is even more complicated when the plan is to position the product as a global brand (Soto, Mobarec & Friedmann, 2009). A well-accepted product naming strategy is ‘foreign branding’, which refers to assigning a brand a name that does not match the consumer's native language. Giving a foreign name to a domestic product aims to build the image of that particular product in the spirit of the country whose language is used when naming the brand. Thus, French names are used for cosmetic products, German names are used for technical products, and Italian names are used for food or clothing products. This is a typical practice of both developed and developing countries and is often resorted to with the aim of making the product easier to accept and position as a global brand (Melnyk et al., 2012, p. 21).

According to numerous authors (Bhardwaj, Kumar, & Kim, 2010; Fakir, 2019; Kinra, 2006; Sulhaini, Sagir, & Sulaimiah, 2020; Yu, Zhou, & Huang, 2022), in developing countries, foreign brands have a more preferable positioning in consumers' minds compared to local brands. Sulhaini, Sagir, and Sulaimiah (2020) listed numerous reasons for foreign brand admiration in developing countries, among which are higher quality, safety and reliability perceptions. Furthermore, these consumers perceive foreign brands as providers of symbolic meanings such as social status, prestige and self-image. Additionally, this study pointed out that young consumers in particular, as hedonic-value seekers, have a greater admiration for foreign brands.

Ergin, Akbay, and Ozsacmaci (2014) explored the attitudes of Turkish consumers toward foreign branding and its impact on purchase decisions. According to the results of this study, foreign brand names strongly affect the quality, reliability and prestige perceptions of the product, and therefore influence consumers to purchase the product. The authors suggest that the foreign branding strategy is well-accepted among consumers for two reasons. The first reason is a higher level of confidence inspired by foreign-named brands, while the second is the fact that the population of Turkey consists of a high number of people under the age of twenty-five, who are more affected by social factors, such as peer pressure, and more responsive to popular culture.

Soto, Mobarec, and Friedmann (2009) explored foreign branding effects in Chile, a developing Latin American country. The study confirmed that foreign brand names can influence consumers to change product perceptions and evaluations. Furthermore, they noted varying foreign branding effects when using French or English product names across different product categories (hedonic, hybrid, and functional). In general, this study confirmed the much-cited result of Leclerc, Schmitt, and Dubé (1994) which notes that foreign branding strategy is more appropriate and effective for hedonic products. Additionally, the study suggested French names as an appropriate choice for hedonic products, English names and domestic branding for utilitarian products, and the possibility of generating hedonic perceptions of hybrid products when using foreign branding strategy. Based on this study, it can be concluded that foreign branding has different effects depending on the country, market, product, or the language used.

There are different motives for choosing foreign brand names. A study by Walkowiak (2018) identified four types of foreign branding strategies: (1) *Natural branding* – using foreign names to indicate the foreign nature of products or services (such as a Spanish name for a Mexican restaurant); (2) *Prestige branding* – using foreign names in order to gain a prominent reputation; (3) *Impostor branding* – using foreign names in order to obscure the product country of origin; and (4)

Imitative branding – using product names similar to well-known foreign brand names (for example, *Avivas* as an imitation of *Adidas*). Additionally, this study noted that certain Polish actors, singers and dancers use foreign branding strategy as well. They use foreign names, even if they do not perform internationally, with the aim of gaining more prestige in their native country.

Based on the language used for naming the product, consumers shape their perceptions of the product's country of origin (COO) (Kinra, 2006). COO is defined as the information related to the place of a product's manufacture, which is commonly expressed and conveyed by the 'made in' phrase and the country's name (Chattalas, Kramer, & Takada, 2008). COO affects consumer attitudes and beliefs to a large extent (Sulhaini, Rinuastuti, & Sakti, 2019; Šapić, Kocić, & Radaković, 2018), and this is manifested through a significant impact on the perceptions of product quality, brand image, brand awareness, and brand trust (Dogan & Özkara, 2013). Consumers' COO-based product perceptions can be positive or negative, which is commonly related to positive or negative associations with particular countries, their level of economic development, and national stereotypes (Khan, Bamber, & Quazi, 2012). Products made in developed countries have better positioning than those manufactured in developing countries (Uddin, Parvin, & Rahman, 2013). Thus, Germany is commonly associated with high-quality products, whereas China, despite its rapid economic and technological development, is associated with low production quality. The issue of the COO and product quality relation has been the topic of numerous studies (Adina, Capatina, & Stoenescu, 2015; Ee Hang Sin, Abd Rahman, & Aziz, 2021; Khair, Lloyd-Parkes, & Deacon, 2021; Liu & Johnson, 2005; Sulhaini, Rinuastuti, & Sakti, 2019). In general, the majority of studies suggest that COO is a predictor of consumers' product quality perceptions. Furthermore, the country of origin is commonly emphasised in order to indicate product quality (Agyekum, Haifeng, & Agyeiwaa, 2015): Swiss watches, German cars, American denim and Japanese porcelain.

COO has a positive impact on consumer purchase intention (Andéhn, Nordin, & Nilsson, 2015; Ee Hang Sin et al., 2021; Šapić, Furtula, & Filipović, 2018). A number of studies reached the conclusion that the COO's effect on consumers' willingness to buy depends on the product category. COO is a crucial predictor in case of expensive and high-risk durable products (cars, electronics, mechanic equipment, etc.). On the other hand, it is not essential for non-durables (Dagger & Raciti, 2011; Kinra, 2006).

Based on the findings of the research conducted by Melnyk, Klein, and Völckner (2012), purchase potential decreases when foreign brand names imply a COO that differs from the actual COO. They also proved

that COO incongruence has stronger negative effects on purchase intention for hedonic than for utilitarian products. Additionally, purchase likelihood will decrease more in case the actual COO is a developing rather than a developed country.

The COO topic is closely related to consumer ethnocentrism, i.e. consumer preferences for domestic products. According to Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada (2008), the COO cue is important for highly ethnocentric consumers, who believe that the consumption of imported products is socially unacceptable and unpatriotic. Karoui and Khemakhem (2019) confirmed the relationship between the COO and ethnocentrism, indicating that consumers from developing countries exhibit a low level of ethnocentrism and that, consequently, their willingness to purchase foreign products is high.

According to research conducted by Marinković, Stanišić, and Kostić (2011), Serbian consumers are moderately ethnocentric (almost 3.72 on a scale of one to seven). This research showed that the level of ethnocentrism varies depending on the product category, so Serbian consumers show preferences for domestic food, and alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages. Half of the consumers opt for domestic clothing products, personal hygiene and household chemicals, as well as tobacco products. Since there are almost no domestic manufacturers of major and small household appliances (although there are a few of them applying the strategy of foreign branding, so consumers do not recognise their products as domestic), it is not surprising that Serbian consumers opt only for foreign brands in this product category. These results suggest that foreign branding should not be applied to basic products in Serbia, whereas it could be a successful strategy for clothing products and household appliances.

Based on the literature review, it could be concluded that the use of foreign brand names can affect consumers' perception and evaluation of products, especially in relation to the country of origin and product quality. As numerous studies presented in this paper suggest, the country of origin and product quality are important purchase decision predictors. Therefore it can be concluded that foreign branding has a positive effect on purchase decision-making.

Based on the above, five research hypotheses were formulated:

H1 – The consumers perceive product origin based on the product's name;

H2 – The consumers perceive product quality based on the product's origin;

H3 – The consumers perceive product quality based on the product's name;

H4 – A foreign product name influences purchase decision; and

H5 – Serbian consumers do not recognise Serbian clothing brands with foreign names as domestic.

METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE STRUCTURE

The research was conducted via the personal interview method, using an online survey. The survey consists of twelve statements divided into four sections. Each of the sections contains three statements and refers to brand name, product origin, purchase decision, and product quality respectively. The survey was designed based on the measurement scale developed by Šapić, Furtula, and Filipović (2009), and adapted for the purpose of this research. The respondents expressed their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 – completely disagree to 5 – completely agree). The survey also includes three closed-ended questions referring to the demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, and level of education), while one closed-ended question at the end of the survey was intended to check whether respondents recognise local brands with foreign names and vice versa. The online survey was conducted in the period between 21st and 30th June 2019. A total of 247 respondents participated in the research and, after rejecting incomplete and invalid answers, a total of 226 usable questionnaires were obtained. The sample was segmented by gender, age and level of education. Out of the total number of respondents, 77 respondents (34%) were male, while 148 (66%) were female. In terms of age, 50 respondents (20%) were aged between 18 and 25, 72 respondents (32%) were aged between 26 and 35, 67 respondents (30%) were aged between 36 and 45, 30 respondents (13%) were aged between 46 and 55, and only 6 respondents (3%) were 56 or older. As regards the level of education, 2 respondents (1%) had a primary education, 56 respondents (25%) had a secondary education, while the majority of the respondents, or 167 (74%) of the respondents, had at least a bachelor's degree. The statistical software package SPSS (*The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*) was used to analyse the survey data. As for statistical analyses, descriptive statistical analysis, reliability analysis, correlation analysis, regression analyses, and Chi square test were used.

RESULTS

In order to examine the favourability and homogeneity of attitudes expressed by the respondents to the given statements, descriptive analysis was conducted first, and the arithmetic means and standard deviation were calculated. An overview of the results is given in Table 1. The results indicate that the attitudes for all 12 statements are fairly uniform and range between 2.48 and 2.92, that is, around the midpoint on the five-point Likert scale, so it can be concluded that the respondents' attitudes regarding all variables are mostly neutral. This is due to the fact that the research examined respondents' attitudes to only one product category –

clothing products – where respondents' attitudes to brand name, product origin, quality and purchase decision are not as varied as is the case of other product categories such as food products, household appliances or cars.

Table 1. Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis		
Statements	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation
Brand name		
I find clothing products with foreign brand names more appealing than the ones with Serbian names.	2.69	1.085
When clothes have a foreign name, I usually think they were manufactured abroad.	2.87	1.184
I prefer wearing clothes with foreign brand names.	2.56	1.025
Product origin		
I always check the origin of the clothes I buy.	2.92	1.193
Based on where the clothes were manufactured I can decide how good they are.	2.92	1.141
Clothes manufactured abroad are of higher quality than clothes manufactured in Serbia.	2.48	0.996
Purchase decision		
The origin of clothes significantly affects my purchase decision.	2.55	1.030
If I can choose, I will opt for a foreign rather than a domestic clothing brand.	2.67	1.047
When I enter a store, my attention is attracted by clothes with foreign brand names rather than domestic ones.	2.66	1.111
Quality		
Foreign clothing brands use better materials than domestic manufacturers.	2.66	0.964
Foreign clothing brands are more durable than domestic ones.	2.66	1.001
Foreign clothing brands have better design than domestic ones.	2.84	1.078

Source: Author's calculations based on SPSS

The reliability of the measurement scale was analysed by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The values of this coefficient range between 0 and 1, and when the value is higher than 0.7, the reliability and consistency of the items may be considered acceptable (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). The results presented in Table 2 indicate that all four variables have good consistency of items, especially as to the *Product origin* (0.886) and *Quality* (0.869) variables, where reliability and internal consistency are very good.

Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	
Product name	0.735
Product origin	0.886
Purchase decision	0.756
Quality	0.869

Source: Author's calculations based on SPSS

In order to measure the statistical relationship between the variables, Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients were calculated. The results of the correlation analysis are given in Table 3. When the value of the correlation coefficient is higher than 0.01, the observed variables correlate. When this coefficient is lower than 0.4, the correlation is weak, when the value is between 0.4 and 0.6, the correlation is moderate, and when the value exceeds 0.6, the correlation is strong. Based on the obtained values of both correlation coefficients, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant positive relationship at the 0.01 level between all analysed variables. A relatively high degree of correlation is identified between the *Product name* and *Quality* variables (0.614), while other correlations are moderate, ranging between 0.4 and 0.6.

Table 3. Correlation analysis

	Product name	Product origin	Purchase decision	Quality
Product name	1	.404**	.597**	.614**
Product origin	.422**	1	.507**	.423**
Purchase decision	.588**	.507**	1	.584**
Quality	.601**	.416**	.563**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level,
Pearson's coefficient is above the diagonal, and Spearman's is below
Source: Author's calculations based on SPSS

Table 4. Simple regression analysis results

Variables	R2	β	t	Significance (p)	Standard error
Product name – product origin	0.163	0.404	6.586	.000**	.057
Product origin – quality	0.179	0.423	6.963	.000**	.066
Product name – quality	0.377	0.614	11.616	.000**	.054
Product name – purchase decision	0.356	0.597	11.102	.000**	.053

** Value is significant at the 0.01 level
Source: Author's calculations based on SPSS

In order to test the formulated research hypotheses, simple regression analyses were conducted, and the results are given in Table 4. The test results for the first hypothesis indicate that the independent variable

Product name has a statistically significant positive effect on the dependent variable *Product origin*, and 16.3% of the variability of the dependent variable is explained by this regression model. As for the value of the β coefficient, it ranges from 0 to 1, and is statistically significant when it exceeds the value of 0.01. In this regression model, β is statistically significant and its value is 0.404. The first hypothesis is thus confirmed. The obtained results indicate that the respondents perceive the product country of origin based on the product's name, and these findings are in line with the findings of Kinra (2006) and Salciuviene, Ghauri, Streder, and De Mattos (2010). It can be concluded that the use of foreign names for textile products in Serbia will influence consumers to believe that the products are manufactured abroad. Consumers from developing countries generally prefer imported products because of the better quality and high social status these products imply. As Serbia is a developing country, this result is expected.

According to the test results for the second hypothesis, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is positive and statistically significant, and 17.9% of the variability of the dependent variable is explained by the regression model. The value of β is statistically significant and amounts to 0.423. The second hypothesis is thus confirmed, and it indicates that consumers' quality perception of clothing products is based on the country of origin. The findings of many authors are thus confirmed (Adina et al., 2015; Ee Hang Sin et al., 2021; Khair et al., 2021; Liu & Johnson, 2005; Sulhaini, Rinuastuti, & Sakti, 2019). Certain countries, such as Germany, the USA and Japan, are well known for high-quality products. Therefore, when the 'made in' label contains the names of these countries, products carrying such a label are automatically recognised as high-quality products. On the other hand, certain Asian countries such as China, Bangladesh and Vietnam are known for having a low product quality reputation.

Testing the third hypothesis also reveals a statistically significant effect of the independent variable *Brand name* on the dependent variable *Quality*. In this regression analysis, 37.7% of the variability of the dependent variable is explained by the regression model. For the observed regression model, β has the highest value, equalling 0.614. This result was also obtained by Uyar and Dursun (2015), and Hilgenkamp and Shanteau (2010). This result confirms that the respondents perceive clothing products with foreign brand names as higher quality products, as foreign names will lead consumers to perceive these products as foreign and not domestic. Having this in mind, the third hypothesis is also confirmed.

The test results for the fourth hypothesis also indicate a statistically significant positive effect of the independent variable *Product name* on the dependent variable *Purchase decision*. Here, 35.6% of the variability of the dependent variable is explained by the regression model, and the

value of β is 0.597. This suggests that foreign brand names affect the respondents' purchase decision and, consequently, the fourth hypothesis is confirmed. The same result was obtained by Melnyk, Klein, and Völckner (2012), and by Šapić, Furtula, and Filipović (2009) in their research on quality and ethnocentrism as predictors of purchasing foreign brands. Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that a foreign brand name will lead consumers to think that the particular product is produced abroad and that the quality of the product is high, which will further influence their decision to buy that product.

Table 5. Chi square test

The respondent recognizes Serbian textile brands with a foreign name as domestic	Recorded frequencies	Expected frequencies	χ^2	Degrees of freedom	p-value
No	134	112.5	8.218 ^a	1	0.004
Yes	92	112.5			
Total	226				

0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5.

The lowest expected frequency is 112.5.

Source: Author's calculations based on SPSS

Finally, the Chi-square test was applied in order to prove the fifth hypothesis. The respondents were presented with 11 different textile brands among which they were asked to identify 7 local brands that use the strategy of foreign branding (*Jagger, P.S. Fashion, Piroćanac underwear, Mona, Ramax, Extreme Intimo, and Tiffany*). They were given 1 point for each correctly identified brand, 0 points for brands they could not identify, and -1 point for incorrectly identified brands. The final result was coded, and it was decided that respondents who correctly identified 5 or more brands were considered capable of differentiating local from foreign brands, regardless of the applied strategy of foreign branding, whereas respondents who identified 4 brands or less could be considered incapable of differentiating foreign brands from local brands with foreign names.

Based on the χ^2 results of the Chi square test shown in Table 5, it can be concluded that the number of respondents who recognise Serbian textile brands with foreign names as local (92 respondents, or 40.4%) is statistically significantly lower than the number of respondents who do not recognise them (134 respondents, or 59, 6%). Therefore, the fifth hypothesis is confirmed. It can be concluded that foreign branding strategy can be effectively applied to textile products in Serbia in order to gain a global brand reputation and higher quality perception.

CONCLUSION

A brand name is the foundation of a product. It communicates information about product quality and product origin, and affects purchase decision. The aim of the research presented in this paper was to investigate whether foreign brand names lead to consumer misperceptions of clothing products' country of origin, whether textile brands have a higher perceived quality when assigned foreign names, and whether consumers prefer purchasing foreign clothing products. Statistical analysis confirmed all the hypotheses formulated at the start of this research. Regression analysis determined that the brand name affects all observed variables: product origin, quality and purchase decision. It was also confirmed that the choice of a brand name is an important strategic decision that is almost irrevocable, and therefore all brand naming options that could ensure future success must be carefully considered. Based on the results of this research, one of these options for textile products in Serbia is the practice of foreign branding.

This paper complements the theoretical knowledge of foreign branding. The obtained data can also have practical applications and social contributions. As the research was focused only on textile products, the results can be useful to brand managers considering the application of foreign branding in the textile industry. In addition, the results can be used in the process of building brand identity and image, as well as creating successful brand positioning.

As in a lot of social science research, there are certain limitations in the presented research. The first limitation refers to the research sample which, due to the nature of the online survey, does not include all segments of respondents. The recommendation for future research is to provide a larger and more representative sample. As already stated, the research examined only one product category (textile products), which can also be regarded as a limitation. More comprehensive research of foreign branding could include a range of product categories such as food products, household appliances, cars, etc. In this way, future research could examine the difference in attitudes to various product categories. It would be interesting to further examine consumer attitudes to foreign branding in the service sector, and to compare them with attitudes to products. Furthermore, future research could include examining the attitudes of different respondent profiles (men, women, age, and the level of education) as regards foreign branding.

The recommendation to brand managers is to opt for the strategy of foreign branding only when there are plans to build an international brand, when the quality is comparable to the quality of products originating from the countries in whose language the brand will be named, and when a foreign name is suitable for the product category.

REFERENCES

- Adina, C., Capatina, G., & Stoenescu, R. (2015). Country-of-Origin Effects on Perceived Brand Positioning. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, 422-427. doi: 10.1016/S2212-5671(15)00383-4
- Agyekum, C. K., Haifeng, H., & Agyeiwaa, A. (2015). Consumer Perception of Product Quality. *Microeconomics and Macroeconomics*, 3(2), 25-29. doi: 10.5923/j.m2economics.20150302.01
- Alashban, A., Hayes, L., Zinkhan, G., & Balazs, A. (2002). International Brand-Name Standardization/Adaptation: Antecedents and Consequences. *Journal of International Marketing*, 10(3), 22-48. doi: 10.1509/jimk.10.3.22.19544
- Andéhn, M., Nordin, F., & Nilsson, M. E. (2015). Facets of country image and brand equity: Revisiting the role of product categories in country-of-origin effect research. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 15(3), 225-238. doi:10.1002/cb.1550
- Banjo, H., Obasan, K., & Ariyo, O. (2015). Brand loyalty and organisational profitability. *Fountain Journal of Management and Social sciences*, 4, 60-73.
- Bhardwaj, V., Kumar, A., & Kim, Y. K. (2010). Brand Analyses of U.S. Global and Local Brands in India: The Case of Levi's. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 23, 80-94. doi:0.1080/08911760903442226
- Chao, P., (1998), Impact of Country-of-Origin Dimensions on Product Quality and Design Quality Perceptions, *Journal of Business Research*, 42(1), 1-6, doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00129-X.
- Chattalas, M., Kramer, T., & Takada, H. (2008). The impact of national stereotypes on the country of origin effect: A conceptual framework. *International Marketing Review*, 25(1), 54-74. doi: 10.1108/02651330810851881
- Dagger, T. S., & Raciti, M. M. (2011). Matching consumers' country and product image perceptions: An Australian perspective. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 28(3), 200-210. doi:10.1108/07363761111127626
- Dogan, V., & Özkara, B. (2013). Investigation of Brand Name-Country of Origin Preference in Four Different Product Groups with Respect to Conspicuous Consumption Tendency. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 3(4), 190-203.
- Ee Hang Sin, Abd Rahman, I., & Aziz, A. (2021). Influence of Foreign Products on Generation Y Purchase Intention. *International Journal of Accounting, Finance and Business (IJAFB)*, 6 (35), 56 - 70.
- Ergin, E. A., Akbay, H. O., & Ozsacmaci, B. (2014). Insights into Consumer Preference of Foreign Brand Names: Reality or Myth? *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 6(4), 157-164. doi:10.5539/ijms.v6n4p157
- Eskiev, M. (2021). Naming as one of the most important elements of brand management. *SHS Web of Conferences*. 128. 01028. doi:10.1051/shsconf/202112801028.
- Fakir, J. (2019). The perception toward local product comparing with foreign product. *Science Park*, 5(1), 1-33. doi:10.14412/SRI2019.33
- Hair, F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hilgenkamp, H., & Shanteau, J. (2010). Functional Measurement Analysis of Brand Equity: Does Brand Name affect Perceptions of Quality? *Psicológica*, 31, 561-575.
- Jobber, D., & Fahy, J. (2008). *Osnovi marketinga* [Foundations of Marketing]. Beograd: Data Status.
- Karimi, S., Papamichail, K. N., & Holland, C. P. (2015). The effect of prior knowledge and decision-making style on the online purchase decision-making process: A

- typology of consumer shopping behaviour. *Decision Support Systems*, 77(1), 137-147. doi: 10.1016/j.dss.2015.06.004
- Karoui, S., & Khemakhem, R. (2019). Consumer ethnocentrism in developing countries. *European Research on Management and Business Economics*, 25, 63-71. doi: 7210.1016/j.iedeen.2019.04.002.
- Keller, K. L., Heckler, S. E., & Houston, M. J. (1998). The Effects of Brand Name Suggestiveness on Advertising Recall. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(1), 48-57. doi: 10.1177/002224299806200105
- Khair, N., Lloyd-Parkes, E., & Deacon, J. H. (2021). "Foreign brands of course!" An ethnographic study exploring COO image perceptions and its influence on the preference of foreign clothing brands. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 12(5), 274-290. doi: 10.1080/20932685.2021.1921608
- Khan, H., Bamber, D., & Quazi, A. (2012). Relevant or redundant: Elite consumers' perception of foreign-made products in an emerging market. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(9-10), 1190-1216. doi:10.1080/0267257X.2011.635153
- Kinra, N. (2006). The effect of country-of-origin on foreign brand names in the Indian market. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 24(1), 15-30. doi: 10.1108/02634500610641534
- Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B. H., & Dubé, L. (1994). Foreign Branding and Its Effects on Product Perceptions and Attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(2), 263-270.
- Liu, S. S., & Johnson, K. F. (2005). The Automatic Country-of-Origin Effect on Brand Judgments. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(1), 87-97. doi: 10.1080/00913367.2005.10639183
- Marinković, V., Stanišić, N., & Kostić, M. (2011). Consumer ethnocentrism of Serbian Citizens. *Sociologija*, 53(1), 43-58. doi: 10.2298/SOC1101043M
- Melnik, V., Klein, K., & Völkner, F. (2012). The Double-Edged Sword of Foreign Brand Names for Companies from Emerging Countries. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(6), 21-37. doi: 10.2307/41714517
- Salciuviene, L., Ghauri, P. N., Streder, R. S., & De Mattos, C. (2010). Do brand names in a foreign language lead to different brand perceptions? *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26(11-12), 1037-1056. doi: 10.1080/0267257X.2010.508976
- Soto, S. O., Mobarec, E. M., & Friedmann, R. (2009). Foreign Branding: Examining the Relationship between Language and International Brand Evaluations. *Innovar*, 19(35), 9-18.
- Sulhaini, S., Rinuastuti, B. H., & Sakti, D. P. B. (2019). The halo effect of foreign brands on the misclassification of local brands. *Management & Marketing. Challenges for the Knowledge Society*, 14(4), 357-371. doi:10.2478/mmcks-2019-0025.
- Sulhaini, S., Sagir, J., & Sulaimiah, S. (2020). Foreign Brand Admiration among Young Consumers in Indonesia. *International Research Journal of Business Studies*, 13(1), 33-47. doi: 10.21632/irjbs.13.1.33-47.
- Šapić, S., Furtula, S., & Filipović, J. (2018). Kvalitet i etnocentrizam kao prediktori kupovine inostranih brendova [Quality and Ethnocentrism as Predictors of Purchasing Foreign Brands]. U: Brkić, A. (ured.): 8. *Međunarodna naučno-stručna konferencija, Razvoj poslovanja 2018: Ekonomski izazovi zemalja u tranziciji* [8th International Scientific-Professional Conference, Business Development 2018: Economic Challenges of Countries in Transition], 3(1), 377-387. Zenica: Univerzitet u Zenici, Ekonomski fakultet.
- Šapić, S., Kocić, M., & Radaković, K. (2018). The effect of a product's country of origin on the customer loyalty creation process. *Teme*, 42(4), 1297-1317. doi: 10.22190/TEME1804297S

- Uddin, J., Parvin, S., & Rahman, M. L. (2013). Factors Influencing Importance of Country of Brand and Country of Manufacturing in Consumer Product Evaluation. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8(4). doi:10.5539/ijbm.v8n4p65.
- Uyar, K., & Dursun, Y. (2015). Consumer Ethnocentrism and Brand Name Evaluations. *Revista Economică*, 67(1), 80-89.
- Veljković, S. (2009). *Brend menadžment* [Brand Management]. Beograd: Ekonomski fakultet CID.
- Walkowiak, J. (2018). Foreign branding in Poland: Chrematonyms and anthroponyms. *Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Onomastics "Name and Naming" (ICONN 2)*, 219-227.
- Yang, R., Ramsaran, R., & Wibowo, S. (2016). A Conceptual Model for Country of Origin Effects. *Asia Pacific Journal of Advanced Business and Social Studies*. 2. 96-116.
- Yu, S. X., Zhou, G., & Huang, J. (2022). Buy domestic or foreign brands? The moderating roles of decision focus and product quality. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 34(4), 843-861. doi: 10.1108/APJML-04-2020-0210

УТИЦАЈ СТРАНОГ БРЕНДИРАЊА НА ПЕРЦЕПЦИЈУ ПОТРОШАЧА О КВАЛИТЕТУ И ПОРЕКЛУ ПРОИЗВОДА, И ЊИХОВУ ОДЛУКУ О КУПОВИНИ

Ивана Марковић, Марина Јанковић-Перић, Татјана Дугошија
Академија струковних студија Западна Србија, Ваљево, Србија

Резиме

Име брэнда је део идентитета брэнда који служи да идентификује и диференцира производ од производа конкуренције. Име брэнда ствара прву асоцијацију у глави потрошача о природи, сврси и категорији производа. Из тог разлога, давању имена брэнда се приступа са посебном пажњом. Једна од стратегија које се примењују у пракси именовања брэнда назива се „страно брэндирање“ (енг. foreign branding). Ова стратегија подразумева давање страног имена домаћем производу са циљем да се створе повољнији имиџ и повољнија репутација производа. Применом страног брэндирања потрошачи се наводе на погрешну перцепцију о пореклу производа, а земља порекла производа (енг. made in) доказано има велики утицај на перцепцију потрошача о квалитету производа. За квалитетан производ потрошач је увек спреман да плати више и да га изабере приликом поновне куповине.

Циљ рада је да се испита утицај страног имена брэнда на перцепцију потрошача о пореклу и квалитету производа, и на њихову одлуку о куповини. Подаци су прикупљени методом личног интервијуа, помоћу онлајн анкете, а хипотезе су тестиране регресионом анализом и Хи квадрат тестом слагања. Добијени резултати указују да старо име брэнда наводи потрошача да мисли да је у питању производ који је произведен у иностранству. Осим тога, брэндове страног имена потрошачи доживљавају као квалитетније, што даље утиче на њихову одлуку о куповини.

INTRAGROUP CONFLICT AND COHESION IN INTERACTIVE SPORTS TEAMS

Gordana Dobrijević*, Slavko Alčaković

Singidunum University, Faculty of Business in Belgrade, Belgrade, Serbia

Abstract

The aims of this study are to: (a) identify the most frequently used conflict management style; (b) determine the level of cohesion; and (c) examine the relationship between conflict and cohesion in interactive sports teams. The study was conducted on a sample of 205 professional sports players from interactive sports teams from Serbia (basketball, handball, water polo, volleyball, and football teams). The data was collected through the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II (ROCI – II) and the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ). In relation to all of the sports considered, the findings revealed high levels of all four dimensions of cohesion (Group Integration – Task, Group Integration – Social, Individual Attractions to the Group – Task, and Individual Attractions to the Group – Social). The study has shown a positive correlation between cohesion and the collaborative conflict management style, and a negative correlation between cohesion and the competing style. Cooperation proved to be the most frequently used conflict management style, and competing proved the least frequently used style in interactive sports teams.

Key words: conflict, cohesion, sports teams, interactive sports, interdependence

ИНТРАГРУПНИ КОНФЛИКТ И КОХЕЗИЈА У ИНТЕРАКТИВНИМ СПОРТСКИМ ТИМОВИМА

Апстракт

Циљеви овог истраживања су: (а) идентификовање најчешће коришћеног стила управљања конфликтима, (б) одређивање нивоа кохезије и (ц) испитивање односа између конфликта и кохезије у интерактивним спортским тимовима. У истраживању је учествовало 205 професионалних спортиста из интерактивних спортских тимова из Србије (кошарка, рукомет, ватерполо, одбојка и фудбал). Подаци су сакупљени путем Рахимовог инвентара организационог конфликта – II (енг. *Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II, ROCI – II*) и Упитника групног окружења (енг. *Group Environment Questionnaire – GEQ*). У односу на

* Corresponding author: Gordana Dobrijević, Singidunum University, Faculty of Business in Belgrade, Belgrade, Serbia, gdobrijevic@singidunum.ac.rs

све разматране спортове, резултати су показали високи ниво све четири димензије кохезије (групна интеграција на основу задатка, групна интеграција – социјална димензија, индивидуална приврженост групи на основу задатка и индивидуална приврженост групи – социјална димензија). Истраживање је показало позитивну корелацију кохезије и кооперативног стила управљања конфликтима, и негативну корелацију кохезије и компетитивног стила. Сарадња је најчешће, а надметање најређе коришћени стил управљања конфликтима у интерактивним спортским тимовима.

Кључне речи: конфликт, кохезија, спортски тимови, интерактивни спортови, међузависност

INTRODUCTION

Intrateam Conflict

Conflicts emerge regularly among people who live, work, or spend some time together, due to personal differences in age, sex, race, opinions, attitudes, and culture, among others, as well as due to opposing interests, and due to their association with different groups, organisations, cultures, departments, etc. (Shetach, 2009). Conflict can be defined as “*a dynamic process that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals*” (Barki & Hartwick, 2004, p. 216). In sports teams, players are in an interdependent relationship, and members depend on each other’s performance and cooperation in order to do well. The competitive environment of elite sports (e.g., Olympic Games, World Championships) is especially suitable for the occurrence of conflicts among athletes, coaches, and support staff (Mellalieu et al, 2013).

Interdependence is one of the causes of conflict in groups and/or organisations. It can be based on joint tasks, outcomes and/or resources. In sports settings, resource interdependence is rare. Task interdependence is described as the level of a complementary interaction of group members needed for achieving a joint task. In a team with task interdependence, the members work on maintaining good relationships and harmony, and on exhibiting prosocial behaviours such as helping one another (Trbojević & Petrović, 2017). Outcome interdependence happens if group members depend on one another to achieve personal and group goals. The study of Van de Vegt and associates (2001) showed that the perception of task and outcome interdependence is positively related to members’ satisfaction with the team and helping others, and negatively related to competing against team members.

In sports, the performance of the whole team depends on the individual members’ efforts. The more people have to work together to attain a goal, the more likely it is for a conflict to emerge. Interdependence ac-

centuates the intensity of relationships, so that small differences or misunderstandings can lead to a major conflict (Evans et al., 2012).

The various models of handling conflict range from simple two styles (cooperative vs. competitive) to five styles (Rahim, 2011). Rahim (2011) differentiates two basic dimensions of managing interpersonal conflict: concern for self (the extent to which a person tries to take care of their own interests), and concern for others (the extent to which a person tries to satisfy the interests of the other party). Combining these two dimensions, we get five styles of managing interpersonal conflict:

- The collaborating style, which includes cooperation and the exchange of information between parties;
- The accommodating (obliging) style, which involves playing down the differences, and sometimes even generosity and obedience;
- The competing (dominating) style, wherein the person only cares about their own interests, ignoring the needs of other parties;
- The avoiding style, which involves withdrawal from the situation, and sometimes even refusal to acknowledge that a conflict exists; and
- The compromising style, with in-between concern for self and others. Both parties have to give up something to make a mutually satisfying solution.

The first aim of this paper was to identify the most frequently used conflict management style in interactive sports teams. There has been some disagreement with regard to predominant conflict styles in sports. While Sullivan & Feltz (2001) identified collaborating as the most frequently used style when handling conflict with teammates, some other studies had different findings. For example, Ćirković (2015) found that competition and avoidance are the most frequent conflict management styles, followed by adaptation and collaboration. Mellalieu and associates (2013) report that the UK teams participating in major championships predominantly use avoiding, sharing with others and problem solving in dealing with team conflict. This is consistent with the study of Holt and associates (2012), which describes avoiding as the preferred way of approaching conflict in female teams.

According to previous studies on interdependence (Evans & Eys, 2015; De Dreu, 2007), higher interdependence leads to higher cooperativeness and lower competitiveness, thus leading to our first hypothesis:

H1 – Collaborating is the most often used, and competing the least often used conflict management style among players in interactive sports teams.

Cohesion

Cohesion is one of the most widely studied topics pertaining to group dynamics (Martin et al., 2014). It is the ‘glue’ that holds the group

together. In other words, according to a well-known definition by Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer (1998) cohesion is “*a dynamic process that is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental objectives and/or for the satisfaction of member affective needs*” (p. 213). The members of a cohesive group support and trust each other, share the same objectives, and remain united in their pursuit of common goals. Cohesion can emerge from relationships between team members (social cohesion), and/or common goals and responsibilities (task cohesion).

Sports teams involve some level of social interdependence, since team members depend on their teammates to achieve common tasks (e.g., passing the ball to a teammate for a shot) and outcomes, i.e. winning a game (Bruner et al., 2015). Some sports (like basketball) are highly interactive, while others, like archery, are co-active, and some, like rowing, include both interaction and coaction (Dobrijević et al., 2020). Several authors (Cotterill, 2012; Murray, 2006, Evans et al., 2012) emphasise the link between interdependence and cohesion in sports teams, meaning that cohesion is more important in highly interactive sports. The work of Brisimis and associates (2018), and the work of Dobrijević and associates (2020) showed high levels of cohesion in professional interactive sports teams, both male and female. Evans and Eys (2015) investigated the influence of task and collective outcome interdependence on cohesion, and concluded that a higher perception of interdependence is related to higher cohesion and lower competitiveness.

Our second aim was to determine the level of cohesion in interactive sports teams. Based on several studies that demonstrated high cohesion in interactive sports teams (Evans et al., 2012; Evans & Eys, 2015; Brisimis et al., 2018; Dobrijević et al., 2020), our second hypothesis is as follows:

H2 – Members of interactive sports teams have a high perceived level of cohesion.

Conflict and Cohesion

Intrateam conflict has normally been considered as contradictory to cohesion. For example, in the study by Paradis and Martin (2012), sub-groups formation and low cohesion were perceived to be related to task and social conflict. According to Laios and Alexopoulos (2014), bad communication can lead to conflict and disturb team cohesiveness. Their study points out lower levels of cohesion as destructive outcomes of team conflict.

However, intragroup conflict can have a positive impact on some types of cohesion, as demonstrated by Sullivan and Feltz (2001), and Benard and Doan (2011). Sullivan and Feltz (2001) evaluated the effect of the constructive and destructive styles of conflict management on team

cohesion. The study showed that social cohesion was positively correlated to the constructive conflict style and negatively correlated to the destructive style, while both task and social cohesion were negatively correlated to the destructive conflict style. The study also revealed that the integrative (collaborative) style was the one most often used in handling conflict. As for cohesion, all four dimensions had moderately high scores.

Evans and Eys (2014) emphasise that group processes in a sports team create a contradictory mix of competing for individual members' goals and cooperating for joint tasks and outcomes. Teams must balance the need of the individual members to voice their personal differences with the need to build group cohesion (Engleberg & Wynn, 2007). On the one hand, groups with low levels of cohesion are less productive and less satisfied, but on the other, very cohesive groups can slip into groupthink. Avoiding conflict and focusing on cohesion often leads to bad decision making, while too many (badly managed) conflicts can decrease cohesion. It seems that only constructive conflicts lead to a desirable level of both conflict and cohesion (Engleberg & Wynn, 2007).

Using longitudinal data, Tekleab and associates (2009) confirmed that conflict management not only influences team cohesion but also modifies the impact (either positive or negative) of task and relationship conflict on team cohesion. Leo and associates (2015) argue that conflict and cohesion together create team efficacy. In other words, when a conflict is favourably resolved, the cohesion between team members is enhanced, which increases team confidence and performance. Thus, constructive conflict helps build team cohesiveness. Several studies (Sullivan & Feltz, 2003; Sullivan & Short, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; and Džaferović, 2018) showed that task cohesion had a considerable positive relationship with positive conflict management (communicating in a constructive way regarding interpersonal differences), and a negative relationship with negative conflict management (treating relational differences in a destructive way).

Our third aim was to examine the relationship between conflict and cohesion in interactive sports teams. Based on the above, we put forward our final hypotheses:

H3a – Collaborative conflict management has a positive correlation with cohesion; and

H3b – The competing conflict management style has a negative correlation with cohesion.

METHODS

Participants

Non-probability, purposive sampling was employed in this study. The participants were 205 professional team sports players from Serbia, mainly from Belgrade. The distribution of the players according to the sports they are involved in is as follows: basketball (N=67), handball (N=51), water polo (N=34), volleyball (N=28), and football/soccer (N=25). As to their age groups, the participants were between the ages of 18 and 25 (51.7%), between the ages of 26 and 30 (43.9%), and older than 30 (4.4%); 66.3% of the participants were male, and 33.7% were female. The data was collected during February and March 2021.

Design and procedure

All participants filled in the questionnaire before training, at their respective sporting grounds. The athletes read and completed the survey on their own.

Instruments

The data was collected via two questionnaires: the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II (ROCI – II) and the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ).

The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II, created by Rahim (1983), is extensively used to assess the five styles of conflict management - collaborating, competing, compromising, accommodating, and avoiding (e.g., Brewer et al., 2002; in sports setting Balyan, 2018). It comprises 28 statements on a five-point Likert scale (7 for the integrating/collaborating style, 6 for obliging/accommodating, 4 for compromising, 5 for competing, and 6 for the avoiding style), with higher scores denoting the higher use of a style. The original questionnaire contains forms A, B, and C to determine how organisational members manage conflicts with their supervisors, subordinates, and peers respectively. In our research, only form C was employed, so as to measure conflict with peers (other team players). Some responses were reverse coded, so that high scores always indicated the higher use of a given conflict style, and mean scores were calculated for each style.

All 28 questions of the original English version of ROCI - II were translated into Serbian. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the ROCI – II questionnaire was not used to measure conflict in sports teams in Serbia.

The Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ), created by Carron et al. (1985), was used to collect data on cohesion. It is widely used to determine adult perceptions of cohesion in sports teams. It categorises cohe-

sion into two subgroups: group integration and individual attractions to the group. They are further divided into task and social issues, which results in four final dimensions. They are: (a) Group Integration – Task (GI Task), denoting the group’s integration based on joint goals; (b) Group Integration – Social (GI Social), denoting the group’s integration based on social interaction; (c) Individual Attractions to the Group – Task (IATG Task), denoting individual attraction to the group’s tasks; and (d) Individual Attractions to the Group – Social (IATG Social), denoting individual attraction to the group as a whole. The 5-point Likert scale was used, with 5 meaning “I strongly agree”, and 1 meaning “I strongly disagree”.

Several studies were based on a modified GEQ, due to different reasons. For example, Carless and De Paola (2000) reduced it to 10 items to measure overall cohesion. Pulido and associates (2015) also adapted the GEQ in the study they carried out on Spanish sports. Their research proved the shorter version of the GEQ, a version with twelve items, to be valid and reliable. In our study, we used the full 18-questions survey. However, a 5-point Likert scale was employed instead of the original 9-point Likert scale in order to make the GEQ consistent and easier to compare to the other questionnaire. Accordingly, in our questionnaire 5 signifies “I strongly agree”, and 1 signifies “I strongly disagree”.

RESULTS

A composite reliability of the used instruments was computed for each conflict management style (Table 1). The results show that all composite reliabilities are above 0.70, which is the lower limit of acceptability recommended by Nunnally (1979).

Table 1. Reliability statistics for subscales of Conflict management style instrument

Reliability statistics	Cronbach’s Alpha	N of Items
Collaborating style	.82	7
Accommodating style	.74	6
Competing style	.83	5
Avoiding style	.84	6
Compromising style	.77	4

For the GEQ scale, the sample demonstrated internal consistency with respect to all four dimensions of cohesion (IATG-S, IATG-T, GI-S and GI-T), with Cronbach’s alpha values above the prescribed threshold of 0.70 (Table 2).

Table 2. Reliability statistics for subscales: IATG-S, IATG-T, GI-S, GI-T

Reliability statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
IATG-S	.87	5
IATG-T	.82	4
GI-S	.89	4
GI-T	.91	5

Note: GI-S = Group Integration Social. GI-T = Group Integration Task.
 IATG-S = Individual Attraction to Group-Social.
 IATG-T = Individual Attraction to Group-Task.

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for the five conflict management styles and the four dimensions of cohesion considered by this study. The data shows that athletes achieved the highest score on the collaborating style ($M=4.41$, $SD=.61$), and moderately high scores of all dimensions of cohesion (higher than 4.0). Athletes achieved the lowest score on the competing style ($M=3.03$, $SD=1.06$).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics – management styles and dimensions of cohesion

Descriptive Statistics	N	Min	Max	M	SD	zSkew	zKurt
Collaborating style C	205	2	5	4.41	0.61	-1.04	0.84
Accommodating style C	205	1.75	5	3.74	0.63	-0.16	-0.05
Competing style C	205	1	5	3.03	1.06	-0.15	-0.69
Avoiding style C	205	1	5	3.28	0.95	-0.32	-0.43
Compromising style C	205	1.5	5	3.94	0.70	-0.49	-0.01
ATGS	205	2.6	5	4.21	0.61	-0.40	-0.72
ATGT	205	3	5	4.39	0.53	-0.50	-0.63
GIS	205	2.5	5	4.03	0.61	-0.01	-0.92
GIT	205	2.4	5	4.05	0.70	-0.32	-0.82

Note. n – sample size, M – Mean, SD – standard deviation, $zSkew$ – standardised skewness, $zKurt$ – standardised kurtosis, GI-S = Group Integration Social, GI-T = Group Integration Task, IATG-S = Individual Attraction to Group-Social, IATG-T = Individual Attraction to Group-Task.

Analyses were carried out to calculate the means and bivariate correlations of the main constructs related to conflicts and cohesion. Significant relations are shown in Table 4. All factor loadings are statistically significant at $p < .05$. The collaborating, accommodating, and compromising styles are all significantly related to all four forms of cohesion, with the collaborating and accommodating styles showing a strong relationship, and the compromising style less so. The competing style is negatively related to all four dimensions of cohesion, while the avoiding style shows mixed results. It is significantly related only to IATG-T.

Table 4. Bivariate correlations between cohesion and conflicts

	IATG-S	IATG-T	GI-S	GI-T
Collaborating style C	.363**	.322**	.368**	.375**
Accommodating style C	.270**	.362**	.178*	.373**
Competing style C	-.093	-.082	-.09	-.248**
Avoiding style C	.054	.187**	.039	.033
Compromising style C	.174*	.195**	.162*	.236**

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$, GI-S = Group Integration Social, GI-T = Group Integration Task, IATG-S = Individual Attraction to Group-Social, IATG-T = Individual Attraction to Group-Task.

For the purpose of testing hypotheses H3a and H3b, two linear regression models were calculated. Both models, the Social Cohesion model ($F(5, 204) = 10.847, p < .00$) and the Task Cohesion model ($F(5, 204) = 17.979, p < .00$) showed statistical significance in predicting the dependent variables.

Linear regression analysis (Table 5) further clarifies the correlation analysis, and supports hypotheses H3a and H3b. The analysis shows the measure of association (R^2) between the variables. The collaborating style can serve as a statistically significant predictor of social cohesion (calculated as a mean value of IATG-S and GI-S, where $R^2 = .21$), while the collaborating, accommodating, and competing styles can serve as statistically significant predictors of task cohesion (mean value of IATG-T and GI-T, where $R^2 = .31$).

Table 5. Linear regression models – Social cohesion and Task Cohesion

Predictors	Social cohesion			Task cohesion		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Collaborating style	.38**	.07	5.53	.28**	.07	4.35
Accommodating style	.12	.06	1.93	.28**	.06	4.73
Competing style	-.06	.03	-1.81	-.12**	.03	-3.89
Avoiding style	.02	.04	.5	.02	.04	.65
Compromising style	-.09	.06	-1.49	-.05	.06	-.83

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

DISCUSSION

The aims of this paper were to: (a) identify the most frequently used conflict management style; (b) determine the level of cohesion; and (c) examine the relationship between conflict and cohesion in interactive sports teams.

The findings confirm our first hypothesis, which states that collaborating is the most often used conflict management style, and that competing is the least often used conflict management style among players in

interactive sports teams. Out of five conflict management styles, collaborating had the highest mean value ($M=4.41$, $SD=.61$), and competing had the lowest mean value ($M=3.03$, $SD=1.6$). This is in accord with the work of Sullivan and Feltz (2001), which proved collaborating to be the most frequently used style in handling conflict. Our results also support the studies of Evans and Eys (2015), and Van de Vegt et al. (2001), who found that interdependence was negatively related to competing against teammates. This means that, in interactive sports teams, players depend on their teammates to achieve their joint tasks and outcomes. Interdependence helps create good relationships and cooperation.

As anticipated by our second hypothesis, our results show high perceived levels of cohesion among members of interactive sports teams. All four dimensions of cohesion had a score higher than 4.0. This is consistent with the results of Brisimis et al. (2018), which showed high levels of all four dimensions of cohesion in the same sports referred to in our study. It is also in accord with Cotterill's (2012) claim that sports that require more collaboration will also require higher cohesion.

Our hypothesis about the relationship between the conflict management style and cohesion was confirmed. All five conflict management styles represent statistically significant models for explaining social ($R^2=.21$) and task cohesion ($R^2=.31$). As expected, our findings show that the collaborating style has a statistically significant relation to all four dimensions of cohesion, and represents a significant individual predictor of both social and task cohesion (Table 5). As shown by previous studies, mentioned above (e.g., Sullivan & Feltz, 2003; Leo et al., 2015), constructive conflict, i.e. cooperation and the exchange of information for mutual benefit, maintains team cohesion and vice versa. When a conflict is favourably solved, it increases cohesion and, consequently, team spirit and performance.

Out of four cohesion dimensions, the competing style has a statistically significant negative correlation only to GI-T, and represents a negative predictor of task cohesion. Not surprisingly, if team players need to work together to win, it would be counterproductive to use the competing style, i.e. it would be counterproductive for team members to take care solely of their own interests and ignore the needs of others. As shown above, sports that require more collaboration will also require higher cohesion.

Our findings corroborate the work of Sullivan and Feltz (2001), who found that collaborating corresponds to a high level of in-group cohesion. They also support the findings presented in other studies (Sullivan & Feltz, 2003; Sullivan & Short, 2011; Smith et al., 2013), which demonstrated a positive relationship between task cohesion and positive conflict management (collaborating), and a negative relationship between task cohesion and negative conflict management (competing).

The compromising and accommodating styles also show a strong positive relation with all cohesion dimensions. Both are conciliatory modes of handling conflict, and it is to be expected that people who have to work together on a common task will try to oblige their teammates or find a compromise in order to solve a problem, if possible.

The avoiding style shows mixed results. It is significantly related only to IATG-T. One explanation could be that IATG-T is defined as an interaction of the motives of individual players to stay in the group to achieve common goals, "individual members' feelings about the group, their personal role involvement, and involvement with other group members" (Carron et al., 1985, p. 248). If members are personally involved and have positive feelings about the team, they will want to avoid any conflict if they want to achieve the collective task.

In addition to competing, which we have already shown is not an optimal way of managing conflict between interdependent players, avoiding is also not a constructive way of handling conflicts within a team. This is because conflicts stay unresolved and can damage relationships in the long run.

CONCLUSION

This paper investigated the perception of cohesion and conflict in different interactive sports teams (basketball, football/soccer, handball, volleyball, and water polo). Our results showed moderately high levels of cohesion in all sports. The findings revealed that cooperation is the most frequently used conflict management style, and that competing is the least frequently used style in interactive sports teams. We also found a positive correlation between cohesion and the collaborative conflict management style, and a negative correlation between cohesion and the competing style.

Our study was limited to professional team players in Serbia, with five sports included. The sample would have been more relevant if it had involved more participants. Including athletes from other sports, with different levels of interdependence, could contribute to a more complete understanding of the relationship between conflict and cohesion. There could also be a broader, international study which would include players from several countries in the region, and enable a cross-cultural comparison of players' perceptions of conflict and cohesion. Future research could also be directed toward investigating gender differences in sports teams, considering the growing body of literature on the influence of gender differences on the choice of the conflict resolution style.

As seen above, both conflict and cohesion can influence overall team functioning and performance. This study could have practical implications for sports teams and their coaches, and could help them manage intragroup conflict and increase cohesion in order to boost team performance.

REFERENCES

- Balyan, M. (2018). Examination of the Relationship between Coaching Efficacy and Conflict Management Style in Soccer Coaches. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 6(3), 361-365. Retrieved from <http://www.hrpub.org>. DOI: 10.13189/ujer.2018.060301
- Barki, H., & Hartwick, J. (2004). Conceptualizing the Construct of Interpersonal Conflict. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3), 216-244.
- Benard, S., & Doan, L. (2011). The Conflict–Cohesion Hypothesis: Past, Present, and Possible Futures. In Thye, S.R. and Lawler, E.J. (Eds.), *Advances in Group Processes*, Vol. 28, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley (pp. 189-225). doi:10.1108/S0882-6145(2011)0000028010
- Brewer, N., Mitchell, P., & Weber, N. (2002). Gender Role, Organizational Status, and Conflict Management Styles. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(1), 78-94.
- Brisimis, E., Bebetos, E., & Krommidas, C. (2018). Does Group Cohesion Predict T Sport Athletes' Satisfaction? *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, 15, 108-124. Retrieved Jul 06, 2020 from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/325314031_DOES_GROUP_COHESION_PREDICT_TEAM_SPORT_ATHLETES%27_SATISFACTION
- Bruner, M. W., Eys, M., Blair Evans, M., & Wilson, K. (2015). Interdependence and Social Identity in Youth Sport Teams. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 27(3), 351–358. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200.2015.1010661>
- Carless, S.A., & De Paola, C. (2000). The measurement of cohesion in work teams. *Small Group Research*, 31, 71-88.
- Carron, A. V., Widmeyer, W. N., & Brawley, L.R. (1985). The Development of an Instrument to Assess Cohesion in Sport Teams: The Group Environment Questionnaire. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 7, 244-266.
- Cotterill, S. (2012). *Team Psychology in Sports: Theory and Practice*. New York NY: Routledge.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.
- Ćirković, Đ. (2015). Specifics and role of conflicts in sports organizations. Unpublished PhD dissertation. Novi Sad, Association Center for Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Studies and Research – ACIMSI.
- De Dreu, C.K.W. (2007). Cooperative outcome interdependence, task reflexivity, and team effectiveness: a motivated information processing perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 628–638.
- Dobrijević, G., Đorđević Boljanović, J., Alčaković, S., & Lazarević, S. (2020). Perception of Cohesion in Interactive Sports Teams. *Facta Universitatis, Series Physical Education and Sport*, 18(2), 431-438.
- Džaferović, M. (2018). The Effects of Implementing a Program of Nonviolent Communication on the Causes and Frequency of Conflicts Among Students. *Teme*, 42(1), 57-74. doi:10.22190/TEME1801057D
- Engleberg, I.N., & Wynn, D.R. (2007). *Working in Groups: Communication Principles and Strategies* (fourth edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Pearson Education, Inc.
- Evans, M., Eys, M., & Bruner, M. (2012). Seeing the "We" in "Me" Sports: The Need to Consider Individual Sport Team Environments. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, 53(4), 301-308. doi:10.1037/a0030202
- Evans, M.B., & Eys, M. (2015). Collective goals and shared tasks: Interdependence structure and perceptions of individual sport team environments.

- Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports*, 25(1), 139-148. doi:10.1111/sms.12235. Retrieved Feb 10 2021 from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/261719993_Collective_goals_and_shared_tasks_Interdependence_structure_and_perceptions_of_individual_sport_team_environments.
- Holt, N.L., Knight, C.J., & Zukiwski, P. (2012). Female athletes' perceptions of teammate conflict in sport: Implications for sport psychology consultants. *The Sport Psychologist*, 26, 135–154.
- Laios, A., & Alexopoulos, P. (2014) The sources of conflict in professional basketball teams. The case of Greece. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 152, 343–347. Available at www.sciencedirect.com. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.207 ERPA Congress 2014.
- Leo, F., González-Ponce, I., Sánchez-Miguel, P., Ivarsson, A., & García-Calvo, T. (2015). Role ambiguity, role conflict, team conflict, cohesion and collective efficacy in sport teams: A multilevel analysis. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 20, 60-66. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2015.04.009
- Martin, L., Bruner, M., Eys, M., & Spink, K. (2014). The social environment in sport: selected topics. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 7(1), 87–105. doi:10.1080/1750984x.2014.885553
- Mellalieu, S., Shearer, D., & Shearer, C. (2013). A Preliminary Survey of Interpersonal Conflict at Major Games and Championships. *Sport Psychologist*, 27(2), 120-129. doi:10.1123/tsp.27.2.120
- Murray, N. (2006). The Differential Effect of Team Cohesion and Leadership Behavior in High School Sports. *Individual Differences Research*, 4(4), 216-225.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (second edition). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Paradis, K. F. & Martin, L. J. (2012). Team building in sport: Linking theory and research to practical application. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*, 3, 159-170. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21520704.2011.653047>
- Pulido, J. J., García-Calvo, T., Leo, F. M., González-Ponce, I., & Sánchez-Oliva, D. (2015). Adaptation and validation in Spanish of the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ) with professional football players. *Psicothema*, 27(3), 261-268. doi:10.7334/psicothema2014.247
- Rahim, A. (2011). *Managing Conflict in Organizations* (fourth edition). New Brunswick: Transaction Publishers.
- Rahim, M.A. (1983). *Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventories*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Shetach, A. (2009). The Four-Dimensions Model: A Tool for Effective Conflict Management *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 39(3), 82-106.
- Smith, M. J., Arthur, C. A., Hardy, J., Callow, N., & Williams, D. (2013). Transformational leadership and task cohesion in sport: The mediating role of intrateam communication. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 14(2), 249–257. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.10.002
- Sullivan, P.J., Feltz, D. (2001) The Relationship between Intrateam Conflict and Cohesion within Hockey Teams. *Small Group Research*, 32(3), 342-355. doi:10.1177/104649640103200304
- Sullivan, P., & Feltz, D. L. (2003). The Preliminary Development of the Scale for Effective Communication in Team Sports (SECTS). *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 33(8), 1693-1715. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2003.tb01970.x.
- Sullivan, P. J., & Short, S. (2011). Further operationalization of intra-team communication in sports: an updated version of the scale of effective communication in team

- sports (SECTS-2). *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 41, 471-487. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00722.x
- Tekleab, A. G., Quigley, N. R., & Tesluk, P. E. (2009). A Longitudinal Study of Team Conflict, Conflict Management, Cohesion, and Team Effectiveness. *Group & Organization Management*, 34(2), 170-205.
- Trbojević, J. & Petrović, J. (2017). Effects of Motivational Climate on the Development of Amotivation for Sport in Young Handball Players. *TEME*, 41(1), 211-226. doi:0.22190/TEME1701211T
- Van der Vegt, G.S., Emans, B.J., & Van de Vliert, E. (2001). Patterns of interdependence in work teams: a two-level investigation of the relations with job and team satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 54, 51-69. Retrieved Feb 10 2021 from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/261719993_Collective_goals_and_shared_tasks_Interdependence_structure_and_perceptions_of_individual_sport_team_environments

ИНТРАГРУПНИ КОНФЛИКТ И КОХЕЗИЈА У ИНТЕРАКТИВНИМ СПОРТСКИМ ТИМОВИМА

Гордана Добријевић, Славко Алачковић

Универзитет Сингидунум, Пословни факултет, Београд, Србија

Резиме

Конфликти су уобичајена појава међу људима који живе, раде или проводе неко време заједно, због разлика у годинама, полу, раси, мишљењима, ставовима, и култури, као и због супротстављених интереса. Међузависност је један од узрока конфликта у групама и организацијама. У спортским тимовима она се углавном заснива на заједничком задатку и/или резултату. Што људи више морају да раде заједно, већа је могућност избијања конфликта. Постоје различити стилови управљања конфликтима. Рахим (2011) разликује две димензије управљања конфликтима: бригу за себе и бригу за друге. Њиховом комбинацијом добијамо пет стилова управљања конфликтима: (1) сарадња или кооперативни (енг. win/win) стил, који подразумева сарадњу и размену информација између страна у сукобу; (2) прилагођавање, које подразумева малу бругу за себе и великодушност према другима; (3) надметање или win/lose стил, које укључује само бригу за сопствене интересе; (4) избегавање, које представља повлачење из ситуације и понекад негирање постојања конфликта; и (5) компромис, који подразумева налажење на пола пута, уступке и поделу ресурса.

Кохезија је процес који држи чланове групе на окупу. Може да се заснива на заједничком задатку и/или на међусобним односима чланова групе. Досадашња истраживања су показала високи ниво кохезије у интерактивним спортским тимовима.

Тимови морају да направе равнотежу између потребе чланова да изразе своје мишљење и потребе за стварањем групне кохезије. Групе са ниским нивоом кохезије су мање продуктивне и мање задовољне, док групе са врло високим нивоом кохезије могу да западну у групну заслепљеност. Избегавање конфликта и стално наглашавање кохезије често води до лоших одлука, али превише конфликта може да смањи кохезију.

У складу са циљевима истраживања, постављене су следеће хипотезе: сарадња је најчешће коришћени, а надметање најређе коришћени стил управљања конфликтима у интерактивним спортским тимовима; чланови интерактивних спортских тимова имају високи перципирани ниво кохезије; кооперативни стил управљања конфликтима и кохезија имају позитивну корелацију; компетитивни стил управљања конфликтима и кохезија имају негативну корелацију.

У истраживању је учествовало 205 професионалних спортиста из пет спортова: кошарка, рукомет, ватерполо, одбојка и фудбал. Подаци су сакупљени путем Рахимовог инвентара организационог конфликта – ИИ (РОЦИИ – ИИ) и Упитника групног окружења (ГЕО). Резултати су показали умерено високи ниво кохезије у свим спортовима. Од пет стилова управљања конфликтима, сарадња (кооперативни стил) се користи највише, а надметање (компетитивни стил) најмање. Такође, утврђена је позитивна веза између кохезије и кооперативног стила, као и негативна веза између кохезије и компетитивног стила управљања конфликтима.

THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS' RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS

Ranka Perućica*, Sanja Živanović, Olivera Kalajdžić

University of East Sarajevo, Faculty of Medicine Foča,
Department of General Education Subjects, Republic of Srpska,
Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract

Today, in modern society, great attention is paid to children's or pupils' rights, so the questions of whether one should go to extremes, and what occurs to pupils' obligations and duties rightly arise. Therefore, the aim of this research is to examine the assessments of pupils and teachers on the representation of pupils' rights and obligations in primary school. The study is based on non-experimental research, and the techniques of survey and scaling were used. The research sample consists of two parts. The first part consists of 700 pupils of the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grade of primary school, while the second part of the sample consists of 101 primary school course teachers. The obtained research findings show that there are differences in the assessments of pupils and teachers on the representation of pupils' rights and obligations in primary school. Differences were registered in pupils' assessments in relation to gender, level of achievement in school, age and educational level of fathers, while the difference did not prove significant in relation to the variable *educational level of mothers*. The registered differences in teachers' assessments of pupils' rights and obligations were shown with regard to the teacher's work experience and the teaching area. The obtained data can be useful for the development of theoretical and conceptual settings in this area, and their practical implications, i.e. recommendations and guidelines for the actors of the educational institution in implementing pupils' rights and obligations, are even more important.

Key words: pupils' rights, pupils' obligations, primary school, principle of balance

* Corresponding author: Ranka Perućica, University of East Sarajevo, Faculty of Medicine Foča, Department of General Education Subjects, Studentska 5, 73300 Foča, Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina, ranka.perucica@ues.rs.ba

СОЦИО-ДЕМОГРАФСКЕ ДЕТЕРМИНАНТЕ УЧЕНИЧКИХ ПРАВА И ОБАВЕЗА У ОСНОВНОЈ ШКОЛИ

Апстракт

Данас, у савременом друштву, велика пажња се придаје дечијим, односно ученичким правима, па се с разлогом поставља питање да ли се иде у крајност и шта је са ученичким обавезама и дужностима. Стога је циљ овог истраживања да испита процене ученика и наставника о заступљености ученичких права и обавеза у основним школама. Коришћена су емпиријска неекспериментална метода, и технике анкетирања и скалирања. Узорак истраживања се састоји из два дела. Први део чини 700 ученика шестог, седмог, осмог и деветог разреда основне школе, док други део узорка чини 101 наставник предметне наставе у основним школама. Добијени истраживачки налази показују да постоје разлике у проценама ученика и наставника о заступљености ученичких права и обавеза у основним школама. Разлике су регистроване у проценама ученика у зависности од пола, школског успеха, узраста и образовног нивоа очева, док разлика није показала значајност при третирању варијабле образовног нивоа мајки. Регистроване разлике у проценама наставника о ученичким правима и обавезама показале су се и у односу на радни стаж наставника и наставну област коју предају. Добијени подаци могу бити корисни за развијање теоријско-концептуалних поставки у овој области, а још већи значај имају у практичним импликацијама, односно препорукама и смерницама за актере васпитно-образовних установа који имплементирају ученичка права и обавезе.

Кључне речи: права ученика, обавезе ученика, основна школа, принцип уравниотежености

INTRODUCTION

When we talk about the basic characteristics of education, the social conditionality of education is always mentioned. Education is always directly dependent on social relations, the structure of a given society, and the value system that exists in that society. The presence of certain phenomena in the educational system is a reflection of the value system, and a kind of ideology that has been permeating our society for the last twenty years, without a critical reflection on the same.

Some authors call the phenomenon of the common features of educational reforms *global educational policies* (Verger et al., 2012, according to Kanić, & Kovač, 2017), which introduce their reforms by implementing mechanisms such as the digitalisation of learning, virtual school, privatisation, and accelerated teacher training programmes. All these changes can be viewed within the political-economic context of neoliberalism. The principles of neoliberalism, i.e. market mechanisms and principles: the possibility of choice, competition, the enactment of more lenient laws, the distribution of responsibilities, equality, individualism, efficiency, freedom, minority rights and so on, are at the heart of most global reforms (Kanić, & Kovač, 2017). Many countries have introduced public-

private partnerships, enrolment-based school funding, school competitiveness, evaluation criteria and external evaluations of effectiveness. The idea of lifelong learning also has its foundations in neoliberalism, as some authors point out, because it does not serve to acquire wisdom, but to acquire market and technical innovations, and to prepare one to be 'fit for the job' (Lizeman, 2008, according to Kozlovački Damjanov, 2014). Thus arise the questions of why we do not deal with examples of the rights of workers, and the distribution of social goods, and why some are so rich and others are on the brink of poverty. Can it be said that neoliberalism shifts the attention from essential problems to secondary, peripheral problems, or those that do not damage big capital? The authors' intention is not a critique or a deeper dive into neoliberal ideology, but a systematic review of the research idea that was initiated by thinking about the themes and dilemmas of the neoliberal ideology in education, and by observing practice. The justification of the intention and the somewhat narrative style of writing is a reflection of education as a pedagogical activity, and the task of pedagogues is to continuously monitor educational practice in different contexts.

We often hear from educators that pupils' rights are being abused and turned into their opposite, and that they believe that a lot of 'dust' would be raised if they did not take into account the pupil's opinion, or if they proposed another way of working contrary to the pupils' wishes. Research conducted by UNICEF and the Yugoslav Center for Children's Rights (2001) shows that pupils feel that their personality is not respected, and that there are unjustified differences between students. On the contrary, there are results that show that pupil's estimate that their personality and opinions are respected (Juričević et al., 2017). On the other hand, if students do not do their homework, or if they do not do their homework on time, it will go unnoticed, or an appropriate justification will be found for the lack or tardiness of the work, which motivated the authors to pose a question to all those involved in educational work: can the roots of a peculiar hypertrophy of children's rights be found in some deeper movements of modern society. Along with these reflections, the following research questions arose: do the rights and obligations of pupils form a coherent whole in basic educational work; and what are the (pupils' and teachers') assessments of important school factors regarding the issue of student rights and obligations.

The Legal Framework of Pupils' Rights and Obligations, and Their Origin

Namely, in order to achieve the goal and tasks of primary education, which is an activity of general social interest, the rights and obligations of students, understood as mediators towards achieving the ultimate goal, must be fulfilled. The principle of harmony and equality, or the principle of balance, must prevail between pupils' rights and pupils' obli-

gations. The absence of one or the other disrupts the functioning of the educational institution, as well its basic tasks. Ilić et al. (2012) point out that a pupil is a person who attends primary or secondary school, systematically studies, acquires knowledge or perfects certain skills. By starting school, the child acquires rights and duties and the status of a student.

The Law on Primary Education of the Republic of Srpska (BiH) prescribes the rights and duties, i.e. obligations of pupils. The pupil has the right to: attend classes and perform school obligations; receive respect for his/her personality and opinion; get advice and assistance in solving problems; get information on all issues related to him/her; participate in the work of pupil councils; be protected from all forms of discrimination; be protected from all forms of violence, neglect and abuse; and draft and implement the school house rules and propose improvements to the educational process. In addition to pupils' rights, the duties of pupils are also prescribed. Students are obliged: to attend classes regularly and perform all their school obligations; to respect the school house rules; to respect the personality of other pupils, teachers and all school staff; to take care of school property, textbooks and other teaching aids; to take care of the environment; and to act in accordance with the instructions of teachers, professional associates, principals, and other school employees, in accordance with the school rules (2017, Art. 62, Pa. 1, 2). The functioning of any system implies the harmonisation and functioning of each individual part of that system. For this reason, the research curiosity of the author is directed towards the rights and obligations of elementary school students in the 21st century ie indirectly Does one part of the system as a whole function adequately?

The twentieth century was also marked by several achievements, among which is the adoption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Although they belong to the legal-political segment, the influence of children's rights is still visible in other practices, so we can and should approach the rights of the child from the perspective of the pedagogical relationship. There are studies that link school success with children's rights, as well as the socio-humanistic orientation of teachers (Širanović, 2016). As a starting point for the rights and obligations of pupils in primary school, we can consider the Convention on the Rights of the Child, adapted to the context of an educational institution such as the school. The envisaged rights of the Convention, with minor deviations, are mainly grouped into rights to survival, the right to development, the right to protection, personal rights and participatory rights (Pejić, 2010), the basis of which we find in student rights and obligations.

Studying the available literature, we noticed that human rights, children's rights, citizens' responsibilities and civic education in general are often discussed in terms of the implementation and evaluation of civic education programmes developed by some NGOs, but student rights and

school obligations are not discussed (Ignjatović et al., 2019; Ilić & Jorgić, 2016; Kotri et al., 2007; Piršl et al., 2007). There are certain skills, attitudes and values which can be linked, and which correspond to the rights and obligations of a responsible citizen and pupil. Some of them are: self-respect and respect for others, equality of opportunities, intellectual freedom, cooperation, critical thinking, co-responsibility, inclusion, democratic dialogue and non-violent communication. Would it not be inappropriate to consider democratic dialogue and non-violent communication to be values of civic education and, for example, fail to consider respect for the personality of other students a student's duty?

There are authors who point out that pupils in school, whether they are learning math, creating rules or planning a field trip, must feel like their voice is heard, must experience respect for themselves and others, and must know what being an active member of society really means and which principles must become a part of everyday life in the classroom (Piršl, et al., 2007). The same authors come to the conclusion that male students have a greater perception of freedom of decision and expression. Indeed, some civic education competencies largely coincide with the rights and obligations of pupils in school. There are authors who believe that the concept of children's rights, or the postulates of civic education in general have numerous implicit and explicit implications in the field of upbringing and education, i.e. in the field of school, and research findings show a non-practice of democratic orientation (Marojević, 2014). We will mention only some of them, and they are: the issue of the pupils' participation in school life and learning, the issue of school discipline and non-discrimination, the democratisation of the educational process, and, broadly speaking, the issue of the educational function of the school. For this reason, although the rights and obligations of pupils are clearly operationalized in the Law on Primary Education of the Republic of Srpska, we are of the opinion that the rights and obligations of pupils have roots and bases in civic education.

According to the modern understanding, the pupil is both an object and a subject in the educational institution, understood as a product of an interconnected, mutual relationship, in which parties relate to each other in the same way. In the context of our work, we could say that, in terms of pupils' rights, the pupil is the subject, and in terms of pupils' duties, the pupil is the object which, through the unity and synthesis of roles, makes the school a democratic community. An neglected subject position, or an insistence on pupils' duties and the neglect of pupils' rights are features of traditional schools and drill schools. As Ilić explains: "Pupils were required to strictly respect school rules of conduct, discipline and obedience in performing school obligations" (Ilić, et al., 2012, p. 33). The question is whether we have gone to the other extreme on the critique of the traditional school, and emphasised their rights while neglecting their

obligations? Have we achieved the principle of harmony and equality? Simply, if there are gender differences, then rights and obligations are not in harmonious unity.

The rights and duties of students can be seen as mediators in the socialisation process, and their roots can be found in two contrasting theories of social learning. Both behavioural and cognitive-developmental principles of social learning can be used to develop a proper attitude towards rights and obligations in the school context. If we start with the family, observational learning is of particular importance because the student always in some way identifies with or imitates the behaviour of his first educators – parents, and later teachers. Respect towards personal belongings, property, the environment, and the personality of others, and non-violent communication are among the first foundations for adequately fulfilling pupils' rights and duties. The other side of the coin are the cognitive developmental theories of socialisation, which take social experience into account, in addition to development. A child at a certain age cannot understand all the demands of the environment, and what kind of behaviour he will form under the influence of social factors depends on whether he understands social stimulation (Rot, 1987). A big role in this is played by teachers who, in accordance with the development of internal processes, need to stimulate an adequate attitude towards rights and obligations. In connection with this is the social transfer, or social transmission that Piaget talks about – it connects the cognitive structure and gives meaning to the received data (Matejić Đurić, 2010).

The Brochure of Rights and Obligations of the nine-year primary school in Montenegro (2004), intended for students, teachers, professional associates and all school employees, emphasises its importance, because it presents a possibility for the school to encourage active participation in school life. On the contrary, there is a dialectical unity between rights and obligations, and it is not possible to popularise only pupils' rights, or to insist exclusively on fulfilling obligations. Petrović (2013) points out:

By respecting our obligations, we respect the rights of others and facilitate their realization, and we make life more beautiful and easier for everyone. Just as we expect others to fulfill their obligations and be accountable to us - others expect the same from us, and if not, they feel betrayed, just like we in similar situations.

(Petrović, 2013, p. 22)

The entire structure of the educational activities of a modern school is permeated with the rights and obligations of pupils, which implies that the principle of harmonious unity includes all organisational forms of educational work.

The Determinants of Student Rights and Obligations

In terms of students' rights and obligations, there are intensive influences for their adequate development and representation. The family is the fundamental and primary institution in the life of every individual. When defining family, we mean, as Ilić (2013) points out, all family unions, regardless of the form in which they are united. From the earliest age, parents are the ones who influence the child's work and hygiene habits, respect for other people, development of empathy, non-violent communication, active, proper monitoring and listening, environmental protection, sense of belonging, respect for the child's personality and so on. Parents achieve all this by acting and showing via personal example, and creating a family community in which everyone has their rights and duties, which are respected. At the beginning of the school year, the school is obliged to acquaint all persons involved in education with the rules of conduct governing behaviour within and outside of the institution. Some authors use the common name of 'rule' (Petrović, 2013), and Croatian authors use the term 'entrepreneurship' (Juričić, 2014), or even 'participation' (Marojević, 2011). Inadequate and disturbed relations between the basic factors of teaching can certainly be determinants of the pupil's disrespect for teachers, and possible situations which arise from this are pupils not listening to advice, disrupting class, not attending class, destroying textbooks, not doing homework, not achieving appropriate success, not suggesting ideas, and not asking for help. Some issues concerning the rights and obligations of pupils are explained in very interesting ways, in which it is not quite obvious whether the student can participate, or have the proposed opportunities and timely information. One of them is evaluating the work and achievements of pupils, and deciding on a grade. Namely, we would say, in layman's terms, that this is a quality of the teacher, because he/she is in charge of assessment, but the instructions on assessment are not only for teachers. The teacher explains to the pupil, in an understandable way, what he/she needs to know for which grade, how he/she can express his/her knowledge and how he/she can improve his/her grade. In this way, the pupil participates in his/her assessment with his/her work and effort, and makes a decision for which grade he/she is actually studying (Petrović, 2013). As a price of balance between students' rights and obligations, the development of the same can be seen as a determinant of free time, and a balance between work and rest.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted with the aim of examining students' students' and teachers' assessments of elementary school pupils' rights and obligations. The conducted research includes the following specific goals:

1. examine the differences among elementary school pupils regarding the assessment of their rights and obligations depending on the socio-demographic characteristics of the pupils, namely: gender, school success, pupil's grade, and professional qualifications of their parents; and
2. Examine the differences among primary school teachers in the assessment of student rights and obligations depending on the socio-demographic characteristics of teachers, namely: years of work experience and area of teaching.

According to our specific research goals, the following hypotheses were set:

1. We assume that there are differences among elementary school students in the assessment of their rights and obligations depending on their socio-demographic characteristics; and
2. We assume that there are differences among elementary school teachers in their assessment of student rights and obligations depending on their socio-demographic characteristics.

Sample, Variables and Instruments

The study involved 700 primary school pupils and 101 teachers, third triad, from the Sarajevo-Zvornik and Trebinje-Foča regions. Research work in the field was carried out by the authors themselves, between October and December 2021. The socio-demographic characteristics of pupils (gender; grade; school success; parental education) and teachers (years of work experience; teaching area) were treated as independent variables in the research, while the assessments of pupils' rights and obligations were treated as dependent variables. Tables 1 and 2 show the structure of the sample according to social characteristics.

The Structure of the Instrument

Constructed for the purposes of this research, consists of a survey questionnaire aimed at collecting data on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, and an assessment scale with two subscales (examples of items on the rights subscale: *My personality and opinion are appreciated and respected at school; Some students are separated from others, placed in a position of inequality, or being ignored; Girls have a better position at school than boys; I propose and implement ideas for the implementation of the school's house rules;* examples of items on the obligations subscale: *I study regularly; I do my homework regularly; It happens that I mislead or hurt my friends from school; I happen to damage a school desk; I throw waste in the school yard*), and the starting point was the *Law on Primary Education* in which the rights and duties of students are clearly defined. Pupils and teachers

Table 1. Student sample structure

		N	%
Gender	male	322	46,0
	female	378	54,0
	total	700	100,0
Grade	VI	248	35,4
	VII	149	21,3
	VIII	146	20,9
	IX	157	22,4
	total	700	100,0
School success	insufficient	3	0,4
	sufficient	16	2,3
	good	99	14,1
	very good	202	28,9
	excellent	380	54,3
	total	700	100,0
Parental education (mother)	elementary school	8	1,1
	secondary school	403	57,6
	college or faculty	289	41,3
	total	700	100,0
Parental education (father)	elementary school	10	1,4
	secondary school	451	64,4
	college or faculty	239	34,1
	total	700	100,0

Table 2. Teacher sample structure

		N	%
Years of work exp.	Less than 5	22	21,8
	5 - 10	17	16,8
	More than 10	62	61,4
	total	101	100,0
Teaching area	natural sciences	49	48,5
	social sciences	29	28,7
	languages	23	22,8
	total	101	100,0

had the task of marking the degree to which they agreed with or assessed certain statements on a five-point Likert-type scale (from 1 - never, to 5 always). Cronbach's alpha for the subscale on rights was 0.74, and 0.74 for the subscale on obligations. The agreement of the obtained distributions with the normal ones was checked by the Smirnov-Kolmogorov test. The obtained value for the subscale on rights was 0.050, with a significance level of $p=0,000$, which means that our distribution of pupils' rights deviates significantly from the normal one. The obtained value of the Smirnov-Kolmogorov test for the subscale on obligation was 0.126, with $p=0,000$, which means that our distribution of pupils' obligations

deviates significantly from the normal one. In accordance with the obtained values, the data was processed in the statistical package SPSS 21, and non-parametric tests were used.

RESEARCH RESULTS

We started the first task of the research with the assumption that there are differences among primary school pupils in the assessment of the representation of their rights and obligations, depending on the characteristics of the pupils' social status. Table 3 shows the results of the pupils' assessments of their rights and obligations in relation to their gender.

Table 3. Mann Whitney's test of differences in assessments of pupils' rights and obligations depending on gender

	Gender	N	Middle rank	z	p
Rights of pupils	male	322	330,66	-2.399	0,016
	female	378	367,40		
	total	700			
Obligations of pupils	male	322	291,27	-7.170	0,000
	female	378	400,96		
	total	700			

There is a statistically significant difference among pupils in the representation of rights and obligations in primary school depending on the pupils' gender. The obtained difference shows that female pupils estimate a higher representation of both rights and obligations in relation to male pupils.

Table 4. Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in assessments of representation of pupils' rights and obligations depending on school success in learning

	School success	N	Middle rank	χ^2	df	p
Rights of pupils	insufficient	3	479,33	23.973	4	0,000
	sufficient	16	286,34			
	good	99	308,79			
	very good	202	312,83			
	excellent	380	383,07			
	total	700				
Obligations of pupils	insufficient	3	208,00	72.084	4	0,000
	sufficient	16	203,94			
	good	99	244,72			
	very good	202	313,08			
	excellent	380	405,24			
	total	700				

We conclude that the registered data shows that pupils with lower levels of school achievement estimate a lower representation of their obligations. Pupils who achieve excellent success estimate that their rights are as highly represented as their obligations. Table 5 shows the estimates in relation to the variable class of pupils.

Table 5. Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in assessments of representation of pupils' rights and obligations depending on school grade

		N	Middle rank	χ^2	df	p
Rights of pupils	VI	248	378.61	16.814	3	0,001
	VII	149	327.50			
	VIII	146	375.00			
	IX	157	305.13			
	total	700				
Obligations of pupils	VI	248	388.78	19.832	3	0,000
	VII	149	358.70			
	VIII	146	329.09			
	IX	157	302.16			
	total	700				

A significant difference was found in the pupils' assessments of the representation of rights and obligations in relation to the pupils' grade. Pupils of different school grades assess the representation of their rights and obligations in primary school differently. Significant differences were registered between the sixth and seventh grade pupils, seventh and eighth grade pupils, as well as eighth and ninth grade pupils. The sixth and eighth grade pupils estimate that their rights are more represented compared with the assessments of the seventh and ninth grade pupils. The obtained data shows that pupils' obligations decrease with age.

Table 6. Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in assessments of representation of pupils' rights and obligations depending on the educational level of parents

	Father's education	N	Middle rank	χ^2	df	p
Rights of pupils	elementary school	11	514,80	7.052	2	0,029
	secondary school	450	344,67			
	college or faculty	239	353,15			
	total	700				
Obligations of pupils	elementary school	11	433,90	9.103	2	0,011
	secondary school	450	333,62			
	college or faculty	239	377,32			
	total	700				

The obtained data did not show a significant difference in the pupils' assessments in relation to the educational level of mothers, so we did not show this data for that reason. A significant difference was registered in the assessments of the representation of the rights and obligations of pupils in relation to the educational level of fathers. Pupils whose fathers' educational level is lower estimate that their rights are greater, that is, pupils whose fathers' educational level is higher estimate that their rights are less represented in primary school. On the other hand, pupils whose fathers' educational level is lower estimate higher student obligations, and vice versa.

We started the second research task with the assumption that there are differences in the school teachers' assessments of the representation of pupils' rights and obligations, depending on the characteristics of the teacher's social status. Table 7 shows the results of the differences in assessments of pupils' rights and obligations depending on the teacher's seniority.

Table 7. Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in teacher assessments of pupils' rights and obligations, depending on years of service

	Years of service	N	Middle rank	χ^2	df	p
Rights of pupils	less than 5	30	40,74	6.368	2	0,041
	5 - 10	16	46,25			
	more than 10	55	56,88			
	total	101				
Obligations of pupils	less than 5	30	41,55	5.864	2	0,053
	5 - 10	16	46,69			
	more than 10	55	57,13			
	total	101				

Based on the results shown in Table 7, we can conclude that the less considerable the work experience of teachers, the lower the estimates of the representation of pupils' rights and obligations, and vice versa. As the work experience of teachers becomes more considerable, the estimates in their representation of pupils' rights and obligations also grow.

There is a statistically significant difference in teacher's assessments of the representation of pupils' rights depending on the teaching area, but no differences were registered in teachers' assessments of the representation of pupils' obligations. The biggest registered difference is between the evaluations of teachers who teach natural sciences and languages.

Table 8. Kruskal-Wallis test of differences in teacher assessments of pupils' rights and obligations, depending on the teaching area

	Teaching area	N	Middle rank	χ^2	df	p
Rights of pupils	natural sciences	48	45,17	7.631	2	0,022
	social sciences	30	47,90			
	languages	23	64,91			
	total	101				
Obligations of pupils	natural sciences	48	48,12	1.029	2	0,598
	social sciences	30	54,86			
	languages	23	52,26			
	total	101				

DISCUSSION

The basis for the operationalisation of instruments for researching pupils' rights is adapted and specific to each research, and it is usually about the envisaged grouped rights of the Convention, or the postulates of civic education implemented in the field of school. The elucidation of democratic values in the classroom, the rights of the Convention, or the postulates of civic education in schools are the starting points of pupils' rights and obligations, so it is quite justified to link them. Theoretical analysis of the available literature shows that research on pupils' rights and obligations is rather scarce, and studies involving pupils' rights in school rarely link the concept of pupils' responsibility/obligation as a concept complementary to pupils' rights. Also, let us note that research usually relies on the descriptive method and the presentation of percentages (Amadeo, et al., 2002; Juričević et al., 2007; Marojević, 2014; Unicef, 2001).

After conducting research on a sample of primary school pupils and teachers, it is possible to determine a number of facts about the representation of pupils' rights and obligations. We began with the initial assumption that there are differences among primary school pupils in relation to their assessment of the representation of their rights and obligations depending on the characteristics of their social status, which showed a statistically significant difference within each treated variable. Namely, treating the gender variable, the results showed that there is a statistically significant difference in pupils' assessments of the representation of their rights and obligations in primary school. Female pupils estimated a higher representation of both rights and obligations compared to male pupils. The question is whether the reason for this lies in gender roles, i.e. the greater sensitivity of the female sex, and the assumption that the female sex is weaker and can have greater rights than the male sex, as well as greater responsibility in duties and actions. Civic education should not be considered an addition to school life, but civic education and democracy are lived in the school, and

we can implement them, in part, through pupils' rights and obligations. One study investigated the perception of the freedom of decision-making in school and the freedom of expression among seventh and eighth grade pupils (Piršl et al., 2007). Boys expressed a greater perception of freedom of decision-making and expression than girls, and the authors explained this data through the notion of traditional femininity and the nurturing quality ascribed to the female sex, despite the fact that the girls who took part in the research were increasingly encouraged to acquire active skills. We can notice that this sensitivity to the female sex is interpreted differently by different authors.

When we talk about the right of students to propose ideas for the improvement of the educational process, the research findings of a study in which 210 elementary school pupils of the Sisak-Moslovak County participated (Jurčević et al., 2017) show that 61.9% of pupils estimated that they rarely or never were in a situation to suggest and choose the way of working in class. Respect for pupils' opinions and attitudes was supported by 71.9% of the pupils, as was the fact that teachers were friendly and often or always (83%) answered the questions of pupils. The same claims were part of the range of pupils' rights in the context of our work. The results of our study showed a significant difference in favour of girls. When analysing the results, we must notice one contradiction. Namely, female students estimate a greater representation of student rights, which further implies that the concept of student rights is violated by gender discrimination.

Although the results of our research are based on differences in relation to certain variables, we can relate them to descriptive data on student rights. A study by UNICEF and the Yugoslav Center for the Rights of the Child (2001), conducted on a sample of 746 children ages 14 through 18 from the territory of Serbia and Montenegro, provided a lot of data in favour of schools being non-democratic communities. Namely, 53% of pupils believed that their personalities were not respected (which is certainly one of the rights of pupils), 1/3 of the pupils perceived school as a neglected environment (which is one of the obligations of pupils), most pupils assessed that the conditions for participation did not exist (which also refers to the right of pupils in school), while in 90% of cases pupils assessed that unjust differences were made between pupils in behaviour and assessment (one of the rights of pupils is protection from all forms of discrimination). We can state that these research findings partially coincide with our data, according to which female students estimate a greater representation of student rights (as well as obligations) in contrast to male pupils, which points towards gender discrimination.

A research conducted in 2016 showed that school success is a variable that influences pupils' better assessments of their rights (Širanović, 2016). Given that our research treated the same variable, we can say that the results of this research cannot be related to ours, taking into account the

fact that pupils who achieve insufficient learning success have the highest middle rank in the representation of their rights, followed by pupils with excellent success. When it comes to pupils' obligations, excellent pupils estimate that their obligations are the most represented, while the average ranking of pupils' obligations is the lowest among students with insufficient and sufficient success.

The obtained data shows us that pupils estimate that their obligations are most represented in the sixth grade. One of the reasons why pupils assess their responsibilities in this way may be the turbulent transition from classroom to subject teaching, the increased number of courses and the requirements of each individual teacher. The larger the pupils' class, the lower the pupils' assessments of the representation of their obligations. This data leads us to the assumption that over time, pupils adapt to school obligations. It is no coincidence that pupils estimate that their rights are least represented in the final grade of primary school, and it is a known fact that pupils' motivation and interest decline as they age. Also, the assessment of the representation of rights increases sharply in the eighth grade because this is the age at which many cognitive, social, emotional, and physical changes occur. As puberty is a period of life between childhood and adolescence, a period of emotional and social instability, as well as a period of difficulties in interpersonal relationships, it is no wonder that pupils at that age assess that their rights are represented. Pupils, therefore, perceive their rights as important.

In one school study, the assessment of pupils' attitudes on civic education was treated through the variable of primary and secondary school, where it was shown that seventh and eighth grade pupils assessed freedom of decision making and expression (which are certainly part of pupils' rights) higher than secondary school pupils (Piršl et al., 2007). The authors believe that the reason for this lies in better communication between pupils and primary school teachers, and that primary school pupils are more open to the promotion and realisation of their ideas, and communication with teachers in general. We can bring our research into a comparative analysis due to the increase in the eighth grade pupils' assessment of the representation of rights, although our sample does not include secondary school pupils.

Parental education has proven to be a significant variable in the pupils' assessment of rights and obligations. The obtained results showed that there were differences in pupils' assessments of the representation of their rights and obligations in school, depending on the fathers' level of education. The lower the educational level of the fathers, the better the pupils' assessments of fulfilling their rights and obligations. The assumption is that the reason for this lies in the personal dissatisfaction of parents with their education, or in the parents' perceived educational failures, which implies that parents give their children more duties, as well as more opportunities to exercise their rights.

In the *Law on Primary Education of the Republic of Srpska*, there are articles which directly indicate pupil participation through the rights and obligations of pupils (2017, Art. 6, Pa. 2, 4, 9). For this reason, we can refer to the research conducted in Serbia in terms of the pupils' perception of school participation. The findings show that the participation of pupils, and thus the level of the realisation of their rights, is reduced to the possibility of informal expression of attitudes and opinions on course teachers, or participation in school sections. From the perspective of pupils, their participation is present only when administration is required of them. From the expressed attitudes of pupils, it was concluded that pupil participation was not a reality of school life (Pavlović, 2010, according to, Damjanović, Todorović, 2017). The international study *Civic Knowledge and Engagement* (Amadeo et al., 2002) talks about achieving the goals of civic education and democracy in different countries, and provides an overview of research on the possibilities of pupils and their engagement in school and the classroom. Namely, over 85% of pupils perceive the effectiveness of participation in school, 90% fully agree that there is cooperation and partnership, saying that their thoughts and ideas are freely expressed, discussed and debated, and slightly less than half of the pupils think they are encouraged by teachers to exercise freedom of expression. Certainly, the mentioned participation and engagement, as well as the realisation of civic education in the mentioned study, are not separated from the pupils' rights. Research on the practice of democratic orientation of the school was conducted on a sample of 152 pupils in the final grades of primary school in Nicksic. A significant percentage of final grade students expressed negative attitudes regarding the statements that teachers in their school nurture tolerance and respect differences among students (42.4%), 34.5% believed that their school is not a democratic community, while 23.9% of the pupils had no attitude at all about the matter. Pupils' responses were concentrated on the negative pole even regarding the issues of respect for cultural identity, language, national and religious values, non-violent communication, developing cooperation, self-esteem, autonomy of opinion, freedom of choice and other features of democratic school orientation (Marojević, 2014). Based on the presented data of our research, it can be seen that the final grades of primary school estimate the lowest representation of pupils' rights. The causes behind this data may lie in significant changes in the social life of early adolescence, i.e. the need of adolescents to have more agreement, more participation, more decision-making, and more respect in relationships (Brković, 2011).

This coincides with Erickson's fifth developmental stage – psychosocial identity or identity crisis. Adolescence is a period during which one needs to become a special being, find one's place and role in society, and be included in society (Fulgosi, 1997). The attitudes that individuals acquire at each stage of life make them active members of a particular community (in this case, the school context), and allow them to influence its development

themselves. Erickson's theory of social development states that families (i.e. parents) and teachers are important in the life of pupils between the ages of five and eleven, and that children learn to meet the requirements set by the school and complete homework (Berk, 2008, according to Matijević, Bilić, Opić, 2016). Sixth grade pupils are ages 10 through 11, and the obtained results show that sixth grade pupils assess the greatest representation of rights. At that age, they understand the representation of their obligations.

The second hypothesis with which we started the research was accepted, given that a significant difference was registered in the variables: teachers' work experience/years of service and the area of teaching. In their doctoral dissertation (Širanović, 2016), expecting a greater degree of sensibility, the author started from the assumption that pupils whose teachers were from the social-humanistic field would assess that their rights were more often respected. This assumption was proven to be incorrect, and the influence of the teaching field was not a significant variable. In our research, the difference was registered only in terms of pupils' rights, while it was not registered for pupils' obligations. The biggest registered difference is among the assessments of teachers teaching natural sciences and languages, i.e. language teachers estimate that pupils have more rights, compared to social and natural sciences teachers. Teachers of natural sciences have the lowest middle rank (45.17), which would further imply that teachers of a social and linguistic orientation have a greater sensitivity to the issue of pupils' rights, as they assess their higher representation.

Our research confirmed the assumption of different assessments of the representation of pupils' rights by teachers in relation to their years of service. Significant differences were registered in the assessments of teachers. The longer the work experience of teachers, the higher the estimates of the representation of pupils' rights and pupils' obligations. The obtained results can be interpreted from the standpoint of setting demands for students, i.e. teachers with more experience place greater obligations on students and give them more duties (as soon as they evaluate them that way), but, at the same time, they leave room for the exercise of student rights.

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Judging by the obtained data, we accept the general hypothesis with which we started the research and which states that there are differences in the pupils' and teachers' assessments of the representation of pupils' rights and obligations in primary school. The answer to the initial research question would be as follows: the rights and obligations of pupils do not form a coherent whole because significant differences have been registered, and they can be interpreted differently depending on the treated research variables. Differences were registered in pupils' assessments of the representation of their rights and obligations in school depending

on their gender, school success, age/grade and the fathers' level of education. When it comes to teachers' assessments of the representation of pupils' rights and obligations, the difference was registered in the variables of work experience and the area of teaching.

The results of this research can be important for the development of theoretical and conceptual settings in this area, and there are even more bases for presenting practical implications. The presented results can be guidelines, especially for teachers and other actors of the educational institution, in terms of taking into account the equality of both sexes in implementing the rights and obligations of pupils, taking into account development periods and development crises, and understanding and mitigating them in school. Also, cooperation with parents is inevitable, as are examining the educational needs of parents, getting to know the parents, and improving the parents' knowledge on the work of the school, and the rights and obligations of pupils and their joint action. Data on the absence of differences with regard to the gender of teachers in assessing the representation of pupils' rights and obligations indicates a positive trend of consistency in the implementation of pupils' rights and obligations by teaching staff. The obtained data shows that guidelines and recommendations are necessary, as is a self-reflective review of the work of novice teachers in the implementation of pupils' rights and obligations. Possibly, a self-reflective review of the teachers' professional development is needed as well, because the data presented in this research raises the question of why pupils' participation, the respect of their rights, and pupils' rights and obligations are the least represented..

REFERENCES

- Amadeo, J., Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Husfeldt, V., Nikolova, R. (2002). *Civic Knowledge and Engagement, An IEA Study of Upper Secondary Students in Sixteen Countries*. Amsterdam: IEA, The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Brković, A. (2011). *Razvojna psihologija* [Developmental psychology]. Čačak: Regionalni centar za profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih u obrazovanju. Čačak: Regionalni centar za profesionalni razvoj zaposlenih u obrazovanju.
- Damjanović, R., Todorović, M. (2017). Participacija u obrazovanju – modeli učeničke participacije u upravljanju i obrazovno vaspitnom procesu [Participation in education - models of pupils' participation in the management and educational process]. *Pedagogija*, br. 1, 23-38.
- Fulgosi, A. (1997). *Psihologija ličnosti, teorije istraživanja* [Personality psychology, research theories]. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.
- Ignjatović, T., Pavlović, Z., Damjanović, K., Bauca, A. (2019). Evaluacija građanskog vaspitanja u srednjim školama u Srbiji [Evaluation of civic education in secondary schools in Serbia]. *Godišnjak fakulteta političkih nauka*, 13(22), 9-32.
- Ilić, M. (2013). *Porodična pedagogija* [Family pedagogy]. Banja Luka: Filozofski fakultet Banja Luka, Nastavnički fakultet Mostar.

- Plić, M., Nikolić, R., Jovanović, B. (2012). Školska pedagogija [School pedagogy]. Banja Luka: Filozofski fakultet.
- Илић, М., Јоргић, Д. (2016). Грађанско образовање младих и одраслих за активно учење у формирању мјера јавне политике [Civic education of young people and adults for active participation in the formation of public policy measures]. *Наука школа*, 1-2, 53-64. <https://doi.org/10.7251/NSK16010531>
- Jugoslovenski centar za prava deteta 2001. *Deca danas za sutra Agenda za budućnost* [Children Today for Tomorrow Agenda for the Future]. Beograd: Jugoslovenski centar za prava deteta (2001).
- Juričić, M. (2014). Kompetentnost nastavnika - pedagoške i didaktičke dimenzije [Teacher competence - pedagogical and didactic dimensions]. *Pedagogijska istraživanja*, 11(1), 77-93.
- Jurčević, R., Bobaš, Ž., Mašić, I. (2017). Pravo učenika na sudjelovanje u nastavi [The right of students to participate in teaching]. U: Maleš, D., Širanović, A., Višnjić Jevtić, A. (Ur.) : *Zbornik radova sa znanstveno-stručnog skupa, održanog 30. rujna-2. listopada 2015, Pravo djeteta na odgoj i obrazovanje: teorije, politike i prakse* (152-162). Zagreb: Filozofski fakultet.
- Kanić, S., Kovač, V. (2017). Neoliberalizam i obrazovanje u kontekstu globalne obrazovne politike [Neoliberalism and education in the context of global education policy]. U: Milutinović, J. (Ur.): *Zbornik Odseka za pedagogiju 26* (69-92). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet u Novom Sadu. <https://doi.org/10.19090/zop.2017.26.69-92>
- Kozlovački Damjanov, J. (2014). Pedagogija i globalizacija [Pedagogy and globalization]. U: Milisavljević, V. (Ur.): *Zbornik radova sa naučnog skupa Nauka i globalizacija, održanog 17-19. Maj 2013, 2/2* (799-807). Pale: Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Istočnom Sarajevu.
- Kotri, Z., Kaščelan, V., Backović, A., Lalović, Z. (2007). *Strategija građanskog vaspitanja o obrazovanju u osnovnim i srednjim školama 2007-2010* [Civic education strategy on education in primary and secondary schools]. Podgorica: Zavod za školstvo.
- Marojević, J. (2014). Dječija prava i savremeni vaspitno-obrazovni sistem [Children's rights and the modern educational system]. U: Milisavljević, V. (Ur.): *Zbornik radova sa naučnog skupa Nauka i globalizacija, održanog 17-19. Maj 2013, 2/2* (781-797). Pale: Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Istočnom Sarajevu.
- Marojević, J. (2011). Participacija učenika u školi kao pedagoški ideal budućnosti [Student participation in school as a pedagogical ideal of the future]. *Vaspitanje i obrazovanje, časopis za pedagošku teoriju i praksu*, br. 4, 121-132.
- Matijević, M., Bilić, V., Opić, S. (2016). *Pedagogija za učitelje i nastavnike* [Pedagogy for teachers and educators]. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.
- Pejić, R. (2010). *Unapređivanje saradnje nastavnika i roditelja* [Improving cooperation between teachers and parents]. Istočno Sarajevo: Filozofski fakultet Univerziteta u Istočnom Sarajevu.
- Petrović, M. (2013). *Kratak vodič kroz prava deteta/učenika u obrazovnom sistemu* [A short guide to the rights of the child/pupil in the educational system]. Užice: Užički centar za prava deteta.
- Piršl, E., Marušić Štimac, O., Pokrajac Bulian, A. (2007). The attitudes of students and teachers towards civic education and human rights. *Metodički obzori*, 2, 19-34.
- Prava i obaveze učenika u devetogodišnjoj osnovnoj školi [Rights and obligations of pupils in nine-year primary school] (2004). Ministarstvo prosvjete i nauke i Zavod za školstvo Podgorica.
- Рот, Н. (1987). *Основи социјалне психологије*. Београд: Завод за уџбенике и наставна средства.
- Širanović, A. (2016). *Поштовање права дјетета као показатељ квалитете односа ученика и учитеља* [Respect for the rights of the child as an indicator of the quality of

the student-teacher relationship]. (Doctoral thesis). Retrieved from http://darhiv.ffzg.unizg.hr/id/eprint/6907/1/Ana%20Siranovic_doktorski%20rad.pdf
 Zakon o osnovnom vaspitanju i obrazovanju [Law on Primary Education], Službeni glasnik Republike Srpske, br. 44/17 (2017).

СОЦИО-ДЕМОГРАФСКЕ ДЕТЕРМИНАТНЕ УЧЕНИЧКИХ ПРАВА И ОБАВЕЗА У ОСНОВНОЈ ШКОЛИ

Ранка Перућича, Сања Живановић, Оливера Калајџић

Универзитет у Источном Сарајеву, Медицински факултет Фоча,
 Катедра општеобразовних предмета, Република Српска, Босна и Херцеговина

Резиме

Формирање здраве и оспособљене личности у односу на све њене потенцијале није задатак само породице као примарне људске заједнице. Велику улогу у томе остварује и школа као васпитно-образовна институција у којој деца проводе велики део свог живота, а у којој се имплементирају права и обавезе ученика које уређују живот и рад у њој. Рад је настао једним делом као резултат увида да друштво очекује од васпитно-образовних институција својеврсну хипертрофију права ученика са једне стране, а другим делом кроз увид у незадовољство просветних радника оним што ученици пружају. Свакако, такав јаз може да наруши делатност од општег интереса, и права и обавезе ученика могу само да се посматрају као кохерентна целина у васпитно-образовном раду, јер да би ученик остварио своје обавезе морају му се дати и одређена права, али да би поседовао привилегију права мора да поштује и одговорности. Исходишта ученичких права и обавеза налазе се у Конвенцији права детета као концептима демократије, права и одговорности у образовању. Стога је циљ овог истраживања да испита процене ученика и наставника о ученичким правима и обавезама на основношколском узрасту. Као независне варијабле у истраживању третиране су социјално статусне особине ученика (пол, школски успех, узраст, стручна спрема родитеља) и социјално статусне особине наставника (године радног стажа и област наставног рада). Узорак је обухватио 700 ученика и 101 наставника. Добијени истраживачки налази региструју значајне разлике у проценама заступљености како права, тако и обавеза ученика у корист женског пола. Ученици који постижу одличан успех процењују да су њихова права високо заступљена исто као и обавезе, док при третирању варијабле узраста подаци показују да обавезе ученика опадају што су ученици старији. Образовање родитеља показао се као фактор који делимично утиче на процене ученика о правима и обавезама у школи јер су разлике регистроване само код образовног нивоа очева. Што је радни стаж наставника мањи то су процене наставника о заступљености ученичких права и обавеза мање, и обратно. Када је реч о области наставног рада наставника, показало се да нема разлике у проценама наставника када су у питању обавезе ученика. Разлика је регистрована у проценама ученичких права. Другим речима, најмању заступљеност права процењују наставници природних наука, за разлику од наставника друштвених и језичких наука. Резултати приказаних истраживања поред теоријског имају и посебан практичан значај, и представљају смернице за актере васпитно-образовних установа у имплементацији ученичких права и обавеза, а самим тим и у побољшању квалитета рада. Посебна препорука односи се на саморефлексивни осврт имплементације права и обавеза ученика као најбољи начин побољшања истих.

CHANGING THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE: VLACH ROMANIAN IN EASTERN SERBIA

Monica Huțanu¹, Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković^{2*}

¹West University of Timișoara, Romania / University of Belgrade, Serbia

²Institute for Balkan Studies SASA, Belgrade, Serbia

Abstract

This paper discusses the increased visibility of Vlach Romanian in the linguistic landscape of rural and small-town Eastern Serbia, analysing it in the context of the revitalisation measures the community has undertaken in the last 20 years. Our research was conducted in a mainly rural area, comprising four neighbouring municipalities in Eastern Serbia, with a dense Vlach population. We investigate a sample of the inscriptions we encountered, focusing on the intended audience of the inscriptions and correlating it with the basic functions of the signs (informational and symbolic). We show that, in the area under discussion, the signs have a mainly symbolic value, and are used as identity markers, as support for the legitimisation of the language, or as indexes of authenticity, while their informational function is apparent only in relation with the commodification of the language.

Key words: linguistic landscape, Vlach Romanian variety, Eastern Serbia, language standardisation, commodification

ПРОМЕНА ЈЕЗИЧКОГ ПЕЈЗАЖА: ПОЈАВА ВЛАШКОГ НА НАТПИСИМА У ИСТОЧНОЈ СРБИЈИ

Апстракт

Рад анализира појаву и видљивост влашког варијетета у језичком пејзажу источне Србије. Овај феномен се посматра у контексту мера ревитализације које влашка заједница предузима последњих 20 година. Истраживање је спроведено у претежно руралном подручју које обухвата четири суседне општине у источној Србији, у којима живи велики проценат влашког становништва. Натписи на влашком варијетету су анализирани са фокусом на њихову циљану публику и основне функције (информативну и симболичку). Резултати показују да у овој области натписи имају углавном симболичку функцију, користе се као маркери

* Corresponding author: Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković, Institute for Balkan Studies, Belgrade, Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts, Knez Mihailova 35, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia, annemariesorescu@gmail.com

идентитета, као вид легитимизације језика или као показатељи аутентичности, док је њихова информативна функција очигледна само у односу на комодификацију језика.

Кључне речи: језички пејзаж, влашки варијетет, источна Србија, језичка стандардизација, комодификација

INTRODUCTION

Starting with Rodrigue Landry and Richard Y. Bourhis's seminal paper (1997), linguistic landscape studies have dealt with "language in spaces and places" (Shohamy & Gorter, 2009, p. 1), namely with the language of "public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 25). The study of the visibility and salience of a language in a public space can have a "diagnostic value" (Blommaert, 2013, p. 2), by giving the visitor or the researcher a quick insight into the linguistic characteristics of an area (e. g. whether it is monolingual or multilingual, what the hierarchy and the power relation between languages in a multilingual setting are, what language policies, if any, are in force etc.). In a minority or endangered language context, the presence or absence of a language from the linguistic landscape can speak volumes, pointing towards the (perceived) status and vitality of that language, but also towards literacy practices and identity issues of the community speaking it (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Marten, Van Mensel & Gorter, 2012).

In general, the study of the linguistic landscape tends to focus mainly on urban settings (see Gorter's, 2013 overview of the papers written and the approaches used in studying the linguistic landscape). Florian Coulmas (2009) emphasises that "linguistic *landscape* is really linguistic *cityscape*, especially in multilingual contexts" (p. 14, italics in original) and that "it is on cities that LL research must be focused" (*ibid.*), while Bernard Spolsky argues that "outside the city, we find a limited class of direction signs and place names, and the roadside billboards often assumed to ruin the landscape" (Spolsky, 2009, p. 33).

However, recent years have seen an increased interest in the linguistic landscape of rural and small-town environments in Italy (Dal Negro, 2009), South Africa (Kotze & Du Plessis, 2010), an area above the Arctic Circle spanning parts of the territory of four countries (Pietikäinen, Lane, Salo & Laihiala-Kankainen, 2011), Galicia, Spain (Dunlevy, 2012), Gambia (Juffermans & Coppoolse 2012), Oregon, USA (Troyer, Cáceda & Giménez Eguibar, 2015), Ethiopia (Sisay Mendisu, Malinowski & Woldemichael, 2016), and Northern Germany (Reershemius, 2020).

Our paper aims to contribute to this growing body of research, by exploring the increasing visibility of Vlach Romanian, a non-dominant variety of Romanian, in the linguistic landscape of rural Eastern Serbia.

We argue that the relatively recent appearance and display of public signage in Vlach Romanian in the traditionally monolingual landscape of this region should be seen in the context of the revitalisation measures the community has undertaken in the last 20 years. To this end, we will first introduce the community and its language, and the general sociolinguistic context, including the recent changes in attitude towards the vernacular and its public usage. We will then present the area under investigation and the methodology for data collection and interpretation, and in the last part we will examine some of the signs we found, looking at their intended audience and functions.

VLACHS OF EASTERN SERBIA AND THE USE OF VLACH ROMANIAN

Our research focuses on a mainly rural and conservative community living in Eastern Serbia, the Vlachs, and on the recent changes in their language and literacy practices. However, the term *Vlach* needs some explanation, in order to avoid confusion, as it can be used to refer to different historical Romance-speaking populations living in, among other countries, contemporary Albania, Greece, North Macedonia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Croatia, and Romania, who are also known as Aromanians (or Macedo-Romanians), Megleno-Romanians or Istro-Romanians (see Friedman, 2001, p. 26-28). In Serbia on the other hand, the term is mainly used to designate the ethnic group inhabiting the eastern part of the country, along the rivers Timok, Mlava, Morava and Pek, whose presence in the area can be traced back to spontaneous migrations from different regions of what is now Romania, which occurred mainly in the 19th century, but began even earlier (Weigand, 1900/2008, p. 85-87). Therefore, in this paper, the term *Vlach* refers solely to this community.

According to the censuses conducted in Yugoslavia and Serbia throughout the decades (starting with 1948, when the Vlach ethnicity and language were first registered, and ending with the latest one, in 2011), there has always been a discrepancy between the number of people declaring Vlach ethnicity and the number of people declaring Vlach (Serbian *vlaški*) as their mother tongue, with the latter being significantly larger. Thus, in 1953, for example, 198,861 people declared Vlach as their mother tongue (*2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Religion, Mother Tongue and Ethnicity*, p. 16), but only 28,047 people said they were Vlachs (*2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Religion, Mother Tongue and Ethnicity*, p. 21). By 2011, the official numbers dropped, but the disparity still stands (43,095 people declared Vlach as their mother tongue, while 35,330 declared Vlach ethnicity).

This asymmetry points towards the complicated simultaneous identities at play in this bilingual community, which are mirrored by the double ethnonyms used for self-identification: the members of the community generally call themselves *rumîni* in the vernacular, but *Vlasi* when speaking Serbian, and, accordingly, they call their language *rumînește* in the vernacular, but use the Serbian word, *vlaški*, when they speak Serbian. However, this distinction is less clear-cut than it seems, as the exonym *Vla(h)* and the glossonyms *vlašesče* and *ljimba vlaha* (as translated in the vernacular) have been gaining ground and have started to be used by some members of the community in the vernacular as well. The preference of one or the other of the ethnonyms and glossonyms when speaking in the vernacular generally correlates with two main ideological attitudes showcased by the engaged members of the community. Thus, in what concerns the origin of the language and of the community, the reintegrationist, pro-Romanian group considers that their vernacular is a variety of Romanian, brought to Serbia through migration, and therefore use the *rumîn – rumînește* dyad. On the other hand, the independentist, pro-Vlach group view their vernacular as a completely distinct language, that has no relation with Romanian, spoken by a population indigenous to the area, and therefore prefer the *Vla(h)* and *vlašesče/ljimba vlaha* denominations. Similar ideological distinctions can be found in the writing systems and orthographic conventions created by different members of the two factions (Huțanu & Sorescu-Marinković, 2018b), or in the presence and use of the language online (Sorescu-Marinković & Huțanu, 2019, Huțanu, 2021).

In order to bring together these two opposing stances, we call the language *Vlach Romanian*, a more neutral and encompassing term, which includes both usages and attitudes found in the community and concurs with the pluricentric language approach we favour (Huțanu & Sorescu-Marinković, 2018a). From a historical and structural point of view, Vlach Romanian is an archaic, dialectal variety of Romanian (on its way to becoming a distinct, *Ausbau* language), which has until recently been restricted to the family domain. The language has no official status in Serbia and used to have low prestige both with the in-group and with the out-group. However, in the last 20 years, both factions, but especially the independentist one, have taken several language planning and revitalisation measures, which resulted in dramatic changes as far as overt language use is concerned. Thus, several writing systems have been created and the one put forward by the Gergina NGO (of independentist orientation) in 2012 has been declared official (although this does not mean that it is indeed used by everyone) (Huțanu & Sorescu-Marinković, 2018b). The norms of the vernacular are codified in a grammar of this variety, written in Serbian (Jovanović, 2013), and in several dictionaries (Iu Boža Kići, 2004, 2015), including an online one, initiated by Paun Durlić (see Sorescu-Marinković, 2012). Several books have been published so far: a transla-

tion of the Gospel (Iu Boža Kići, 2006), different anthologies of texts such as funeral songs (Gacović, 2000), fairy tales (Iu Boža Kići, 2011), nursery rhymes and children's poems (Iu Boža Kići, 2010; Slobodan Golubović, 2013; Jović Kolerović, *Dragić, Paunjelović, Stojanjelović & Mitrović Mitra*, 2014), children's creations (Milena Golubović, Đorđević & Babić, 2017, Milena Golubović, Đorđević & Savić 2018), and folk oral creations (Durlić, 2020). Since 2013, the language has been taught as an optional subject in a few schools in Eastern Serbia, with the help of two textbooks (Milena Golubović, 2014, 2016). In September 2015, the Vlach National Council passed a resolution on the standardisation of the Vlach language, which was then published in the Official Gazette of Serbia a month later (*Službeni glasnik RS*, br. 88/2015, October 23, 2015). Apart from this, Vlach Romanian has begun to have a more constant presence online in the last years, on social networks, online newspapers, or websites in general (Sorescu-Marinković & Huțanu, 2019).

All these revitalisation measures, taken within the space of less than 20 years, show that the members of the community have started to overtly express their ethnic and linguistic identity, a fact that was simply unimaginable before. That is why we decided to see if this improvement in the self-image of the community and all the developments we discussed above have any influence on the configuration of the linguistic landscape of Eastern Serbia. In other words, we decided to see if Vlach Romanian has become visible. We went in search of palpable evidence of change.

DATA COLLECTION AND METHODOLOGY

Our research focuses on four neighbouring municipalities in Eastern Serbia: Kučevo, Majdanpek, Negotin and Kladovo (see Figure 1, in which Kučevo is green, Majdanpek is blue, Negotin is brown and Kladovo is yellow), areas we visited in 2016 and 2017. There were several reasons for choosing this territory. First, the area is mainly rural, with just a few small towns that serve as the administrative centres of their municipalities (the biggest of them, Negotin, has 16,882 inhabitants – see *2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Comparative Overview of the Number of Population in 1948, 1953, 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2002 and 2011*). Another reason is the density of the Vlach population in the area (although only 12% of the population of these 4 municipalities declared Vlach or Romanian ethnicity, they make out 30% of all declared Vlach population in Serbia – see *2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Religion, Mother Tongue and Ethnicity*). Lastly, two of the towns that function as administrative centres, Negotin and Kladovo, are relevant for our research as they host some important organisations and institutions repre-

senting the two factions described above (see Pietikäinen et al., 2011 for a similar perspective). Thus, Negotin (the town) is the home of the Vlach Party, of the Gergina NGO (both of pro-Vlach inclination) and of the Romanian Orthodox church (pro-Romanian), and Kladovo (the town) is the headquarters of the Romanian Cultural Centre (pro-Romanian), and hosts a branch of the National Council of the Romanian Minority (pro-Romanian, as opposed to the pro-Vlach National Council of the Vlach Minority, headquartered in the town of Petrovac na Mlavi, in the Braničevo municipality). Moreover, the town is situated across the Danube from the Romanian city Drobeta-Turnu Severin (26 km by road), which makes it a tourist and shopping destination for Romanians.

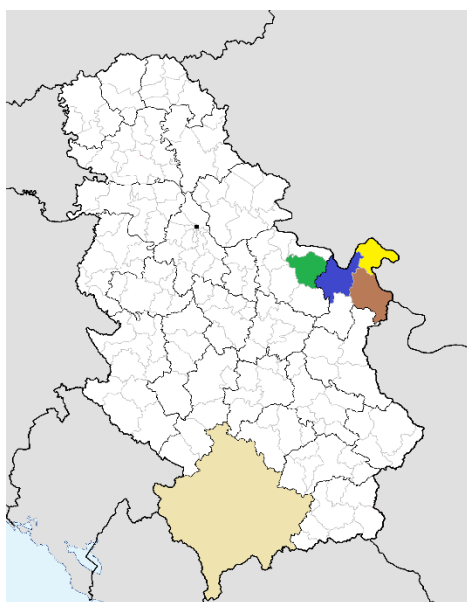


Figure 1. Map of the municipalities of Serbia. Licensed under Creative Commons. Changes were made to the original document (https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Municipalities_of_Serbia.png).

As concerns the methodology of collecting and analysing data, we depart from the quantitative approach generally used in linguistic landscape studies, as we agree with Thom Huebner (2009, p. 72) that “in conducting LL research the choice of sampling domain is driven by the purpose of the study”. We will not focus, therefore, on counting the signs and the languages found on them in the area under discussion. Additionally, we will not focus either on the predominance of a certain language or on the hierarchy of languages in use in a certain area. What we will do here will not concern the presence of Serbian – it is obvious that signs in

Serbian, both in the Cyrillic and in the Latin script, will be the predominant sight in the linguistic landscape as Serbian is the state language, the ‘language by default’ and the one that includes the Vlach community among its addressees. At the same time, the presence of English and of other global languages in the linguistic landscape has been well documented all over the world by now, so we were bound to find it in our area of research as well.

What we found relevant was the mere presence of signs in Vlach Romanian, as a very new development that definitely signals a shift in the attitude towards the vernacular. Our focus was therefore on the new visibility of Vlach Romanian, for now still irrelevant in the linguistic landscape from a quantitative and statistical point of view (we found less than 50 signs altogether), but definitely symptomatic of change, as Jan Blommaert (2013) notices: “the statistically insignificant can be a sign of momentous change” (p. 46). The methodology we employed relies on ethnographic observation and comparison with the previous state of affairs, known to us from previous fieldwork (conducted mainly by Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković in the last 15 years) and from research on the community, which gives us an in-depth knowledge of the community and its evolution. While we are aware that we can be accused of impressionism, this is, to a certain extent, what we aimed for – since the linguistic landscape can reflect the ethnic and linguistic composition of an area, can someone visiting the four municipalities really perceive that the Vlach community has started to express its ethnolinguistic identity more overtly and make a voice for themselves? How visible is Vlach Romanian in the linguistic landscape and who are the signs meant for?

ANALYSIS

Our analysis takes into account a sample of the signs we encountered and focuses on their intended readership. The intended audience of a sign can be inferred by determining who the authors of the signs are and what their known or presupposed intentions are when choosing a certain language or variety. This is, in Spolsky and Cooper’s model for language choice:

the ‘presumed reader condition’: prefer to write a sign in a language which can be read by the people you expect to read it.
(Spolsky, 2009, p. 33)

However, the author of the signs is often “only somewhat in control of the meanings that are read from his or her written ‘utterances’” (Malinowski, 2009, p. 108), so an analysis of the signs’ emplacement can prove fruitful, as “signs are placed in a *specific* space, a *non-random* place and their emplacement defines their effects” (Blommaert, 2013, p. 43, italics in the original).

In the area we observed, the expected audience is composed either mainly of members of the Vlach community, or mainly of outsiders. Discussing the linguistic landscape of a territory, Landry et al. (1997, p. 25-29) contend that it serves two basic functions: an informational and a symbolical one. On the one hand, the linguistic landscape marks the territorial and linguistic boundaries of a language community, and indicates that a language can be used in a certain place and can reflect the status of competing languages in a multilingual environment. On the other hand, the linguistic landscape can convey the value, strength, and vitality of a language, or conversely, the lack of value and weakness. While Landry and Bourhis refer to the functions of the language landscape seen as a conglomerate of signs, each sign by itself can also have the same two functions (with one of them being usually more prominent than the other), as the presence of any sign in the linguistic landscape can be seen as “either reflective of or required of its audience” (Huebner, 2009, p. 74). In what follows, we will analyse how the language choices of the authors of the signs in our corpus imply a certain audience (of insiders or outsiders), and how the intended readership correlates with the two basic functions of the signs.

An Audience of Insiders

First, the main intended audience of signs in or containing Vlach Romanian is obviously the Vlach community. The community is addressed in a number of top-down signs put up by the political, cultural and religious organisations belonging to the two factions described above. While the function of the official, top-down signage in the civic frame (Kallen, 2010) is usually informational, complying with and reflecting official language policies, we contend that, in the area under discussion, the main function of these signs is symbolic. As the language has no official status in Eastern Serbia, there are no official policies or regulations regarding the use of Vlach Romanian in the public space (in other words, all these signs are transgressive, to use Aneta Pavlenko’s (2012, p. 36) extension of the meaning of the term). Moreover, the community is by and large bilingual and proficient in Serbian; therefore, the use of the vernacular is meant not so much to give information to the audience as it is to promote the used variety and empower its speakers.

This is noticeable especially in the case of the posters put up by the Vlach Party and the Gergina NGO – for example the ones concerning the elections of the members of the Vlach National Council. In Image 1, the two identical posters urge the members of the community to use their right to speak Vlach and to choose their identity and their ethnonym, but they do it entirely in Serbian. The second sign (Image 2), a campaign poster for the elections, uses Serbian to convey the information (that there are elections and who is running), and Vlach Romanian, quite inconspic-

uously, only for the catchphrase at the bottom of the poster, which roughly translates to “Let’s awake, Vlachs!”). This is similar to Peter Backhaus’s (2007, p. 97-99) conclusion that, in the polyphonic signs he identified in the Japanese linguistic landscape, “English and English-looking expressions are used mainly for slogans, catch-phrases, business names, and titles” (Backhaus, 2007, p. 99), while the information is given in Japanese. In other words, although they address the community, these top-down signs seem to signal that Vlach Romanian exists, but also play down its communicative utility for the community, therefore giving Vlach Romanian a mainly symbolic value. At the same time, this tokenistic use of Vlach Romanian may reveal the community’s attitudes towards their vernacular, which is still not considered apt for transmitting information and is still on its way to becoming a ‘proper’, ‘established’ language like Serbian or Romanian (languages that can be found on other top-down signs we encountered, not shown here – e.g. the official inscriptions on the Romanian Orthodox church in Negotin, the Romanian Cultural Center and the National Council of the Romanian Minority in Kladovo).



Image 1. Negotin, Vlach Party Headquarters. © Authors.

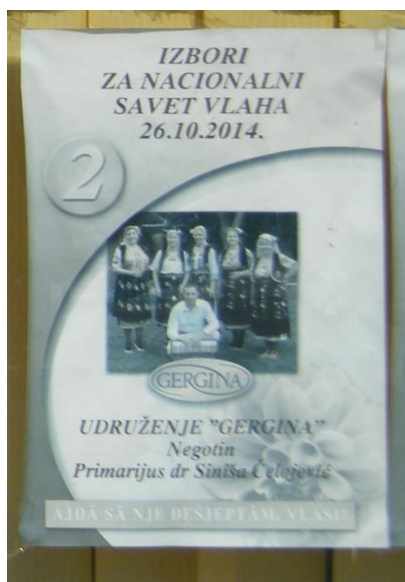


Image 2. Negotin, Vlach Party Headquarters. © Authors.

The community is the main recipient of the signs in another instance as well, namely in the case of the funerary inscriptions found in some rural cemeteries in the area (see Huțanu & Sorescu-Marinković, 2016, Sorescu-Marinković & Huțanu, 2017 for more). Images 3 and 4, taken in the cemetery of the village Dušanovac (Negotin municipality),

exhibit two sides of a funerary monument. The front of the funerary monument (Image 3) contains the official, Serbian names of the deceased, Jelena Kikić and Kosta Kikić. However, the back of the monument (Image 4) displays their hypocoristic names and the Vlach patronymic, by which they (exclusively) were known within the community, Ljana and Kostika Aljčoni (in Cyrillic script, with the conjunction *and* in Vlach Romanian as well). In this particular case (and others we found, not shown here), the use of Vlach Romanian is at the same time informational and symbolic. On the one hand, it tells the community and the informed outsider that those buried there were part of the Vlach community (for other linguistic and non-linguistic clues, see Sorescu-Marinković & Huţanu, 2017). More importantly, though, using Vlach Romanian gives the inscriptions the symbolic function of marking the ethno-linguistic and cultural identity of both the deceased and those who erected and paid for the monument. Moreover, since it is tradition in Eastern Serbia to erect your own funerary monument while still alive, the choice of including Vlach Romanian is a conscious one and points to an “identification of self through the language” (Yigezu & Blackwood, 2016, p. 140).

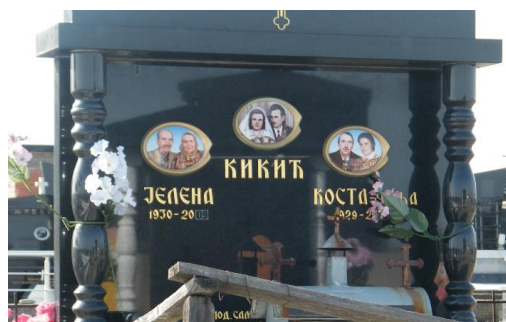


Image 3. Dušanovac cemetery. © Authors.

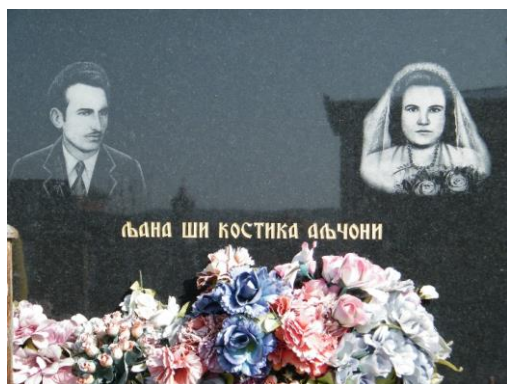


Image 4. Dušanovac cemetery. © Authors.

An Audience of Outsiders

A similar indexical use of Vlach Romanian can be discerned in cases in which the intended audience is no longer the community, but the outsider (an ‘indexical audience’, as Blommaert (2013, p. 54) calls it).

In the first situation we encountered, the intended audience is the outsider who sees the language on the signs but cannot decipher its linguistic meaning. In their discussion of the commodification of language and ethnicity in Chinatown (Washington DC), Jennifer Leeman and Gabriella Modan notice how the use of Chinese in the linguistic landscape has more an aesthetic than a communicative value, promoting “an exoticized landscape that appeals to an outsider’s perspective” (Leeman & Modan, 2009, p. 358). In Serbia, Vlachs are well known for practicing white magic (it is even called “Vlach magic” by Serbs and Vlachs alike – see Ivkov-Džigurski, Babić, Dragin, Košić & Blešić, 2012 for more details), and are sought out by people from all over Serbia. Images 5 and 6, taken in the village Neresnica (Kučevo municipality), depict the workplace of one of these Vlach sorcerers, who integrates his activity into a wider framework of cultural, rural tourism. Since his main audience is Serbian, the main information and the main catchphrases are in Serbian, while Vlach Romanian is used symbolically, always marked by inverted commas. This ‘language on display’ type of public signage (Curtin, 2009) usually employs foreign-looking scripts, as is the case with Hangul letters on shop signs in a neighbourhood in Oakland, California (Malinowski, 2009), or specific fonts, such as Celtic-style ones in Ireland (Kallen, 2009), or Gothic typeface in Northern Germany (Reershemius, 2020). In our case, the signs use the Latin script, both in Serbian and in Vlach Romanian, so a speaker of Serbian can actually recognise the letters and read the words, but cannot associate any linguistic meaning to them. Vlach Romanian therefore has a symbolic function; its purpose is not to be read and understood, but merely to be noticed and recognised as Vlach Romanian, as something exotic, different, and traditional that indexes authenticity.



Image 5. Neresnica. © Authors.



Image 6. Neresnica. © Authors.

However, besides this symbolic, indexical value, using Vlach Romanian for tourist purposes can also have an informational function in the case of the marketplace (signs related to the buying and selling of products and services) and portals (signs related to mobility – be it physical, capital or electronic) (see Kallen's, 2010 classification). The intended audience is still mainly the outsider, but this time an outsider that understands the language and takes advantage of this knowledge. In Kladovo especially (the town situated 26 km away from Romania), but elsewhere as well, we encountered signs whose addressee was the Romanian tourist.

While the signs on the supermarket or on cash machines might be just a form of politeness, a nod that acknowledges the presence of the Romanian tourists (and not necessarily an indication of competence in the language), other signs in Vlach Romanian (in front of restaurants or fast-food stands (see Image 7), and signs pointing towards agricultural supply



Image 7. Kladovo. © Authors.

stores or identifying a Serbian-Romanian translator's office) inform the Romanian tourists that their language, or a variety of their language, is spoken and understood there. In Blommaert's words, the signs have a "recruitment function: they invite particular groups of people into interaction with their producers" (Blommaert, 2013, p. 54). Our own observation of the Romanian tourists' linguistic practices testifies that this "recruitment function" is recognised as such: very often, Romanian tourists visiting Kladovo address locals directly in Romanian, sometimes even in places with no signs in Vlach Romanian.

A comparison of different signs advertising exchange offices (Image 8) suggests that the authors are mainly members of the community, with different and partial competence in (written) Vlach Romanian and in standard Romanian. The name of the language and the ideologies behind preferring one glossonym to the other become irrelevant in private linguistic practices. The members of the community understand their language's economic value in context, as the signs (here and elsewhere), even if written in non-standard orthography, manage to communicate more effectively and reach the Romanian tourist more directly. Moreover, the owner of an ice cream parlour told us that although he was not part of the community and he did not speak the language, he asked someone to write the names of the different flavours in (Vlach) Romanian for him. This perspective on language as a commodity gives advantage to those who keep an open mind and address a wider audience.



Image 8. Negotin (first two pictures), Kladovo (last two pictures). © Authors.

CONCLUSIONS

Our paper focused on the recent changes in the linguistic landscape of Eastern Serbia, which we envisage as a possible outcome of the revitalisation and status planning measures taken within the last 20 years. In the previously predominantly monolingual landscape of Eastern Serbia, the Vlach community has begun to overtly express their ethnolinguistic presence and identity, which includes displaying their language in the public space.

However, Vlach Romanian is still hardly visible in the linguistic landscape, a fact that can be attributed to several factors. First, most of the community is still low-literate or non-literate (Juffermans et al., 2012) in the vernacular. Despite the recent standardisation, there is still no commonly accepted linguistic norm. The official writing system, adopted in 2012, is still contested by the reintegrationist faction and Vlach Romanian is still taught only as an optional class in a few schools. To this, we can add the general low level of education in Eastern Serbia. According to the 2011 Census, 54% of the population over the age of 15 living in our area of observation has only a primary education or less (*2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Educational attainment, Literacy and Computer Literacy*, p. 80, 84). We also cannot disregard the linguistic assimilation policies of the Serbian authorities through the years, and the fact that the language still has no official status in Serbia, which resulted in low prestige and the language shift to Serbian. Lastly, the internal divergence within the community, as reflected in the two factions, generated a widespread reluctance of the speakers to affiliate with either group, thus avoiding conflict, and possibly refraining from using their vernacular in writing.

However, in comparison with the previous years, the mere presence of inscriptions in Vlach Romanian in the public space is a distinct sign of progress. As we have seen, the signs have a mainly symbolic value, and are used as identity markers, as support for legitimisation or as indexes of authenticity. There are still no official regulations regarding the use of Vlach Romanian in the public space; therefore, its informational value is currently apparent only in relation to its commodification (Heller, 2010). However, as Gorter notices, the language of the signs “can influence the perception of the status of the different languages and affect linguistic behaviour” (Gorter, 2013, p. 202), so it remains to be seen, in future years, whether the revitalisation measures and the timid steps taken so far will be reflected in a greater visibility of the language. Last but not least, it remains to be seen whether the presence of the minority language in the public space will be able to challenge stereotypes, influence people’s perception, and affect their linguistic behaviour to result in a greater use of the language.

REFERENCES

- 2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Comparative Overview of the Number of Population in 1948, 1953, 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2002 and 2011. Data by settlements.* Belgrade, 2014 <<https://pod2.stat.gov.rs/ObjavljenePublikacije/Popis2011/Knjiga20.pdf>>.
- 2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Educational attainment, Literacy and Computer Literacy. Data by municipalities*

- and cities. Belgrade, 2013 <<https://publikacije.stat.gov.rs/G2013/Pdf/G20134001.pdf>>.
- 2011 Census of Population, Households and Dwellings in the Republic of Serbia: Religion, Mother Tongue and Ethnicity. Data by municipalities and cities. Belgrade, 2013. <http://pod2.stat.gov.rs/ObjavljenePublikacije/Popis2011/Knjiga4_Veroispovest.pdf>
- Backhaus, Peter (2007). *Linguistic Landscapes: A Comparative Study of Urban Multilingualism in Tokyo*. Multilingual Matters.
- Blommaert, Jan (2013). *Ethnography, superdiversity and linguistic landscapes. Chronicles of complexity*. Multilingual Matters.
- Cenoz, Jasone & Durk Gorter (2006). Linguistic landscape and minority languages. *International Journal of Multilingualism* 3.1, 67-80.
- Coulmas, Florian (2009). Linguistic Landscaping and the Seed of the Public Sphere. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 13-24.
- Curtin, Melissa L. (2009). Languages on Display: Indexical Signs, Identities and the Linguistic Landscape of Taipei. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 221-237.
- Dal Negro, Silvia (2009). Local Policy Modeling the Linguistic Landscape. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 206-218.
- Dunlevy, Deirdre A. (2012). Linguistic Policy and Linguistic Choice: A Study of the Galician Linguistic Landscape. In Christine Hélot, Monica Barni, Rudi Janssens and Carla Bagna (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscapes, Multilingualism and Social Change*. Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang, 53-68.
- Durlić, Paun Es (2020). *Rumînji în zovîrnjit di suare. Povješč alu Rumînj đin Poreša, Pjeku al di Sus ši cîmuturlji vešinje / Vlasi na zalasku sunca. Usmeno stvaralaštvo Vlaha Poreča, Gornjeg Peka i susednih oblasti* [Vlachs at the Sunset. Oral Creations of the Vlachs from Poreč, Gornji Pek and Neighbouring Areas]. Majdanpek: Udruženje građana "PEKUS".
- Friedman, Victor A. (2001). The Vlach Minority in Macedonia: Language, Identity, Dialectology, and Standardization. In Juhani Nuoloto, Martti Leiwo, Jussi Hallaaho (Eds.). *Slavic, Balkan, and Balkan Studies* (Slavica Helsingiensia 21). Helsinki, 26-50.
- Gacović, Slavoljub (2000). *Petrecătura (pesma za ispraćaj pokojnika) u Vlaha Ungurjana* [Petrecătura (A Farewell Song to the Deceased) among the Ungureni Vlachs]. Zaječar: Matična biblioteka "Svetozar Marković".
- Golubović, Milena (2016). *Vuorba ši kultura Vlaha 2* [Vlach Language and Culture 2]. Petrovac na Mlavi: Nacionalni Savet Vlaha.
- Golubović, Milena (2014). *Vuorba ši kultura Vlaha*. Udžbenik iz predmeta vlaški govor sa elementima nacionalne kulture za prvi razred osnovne škole. [Vlach Language and Culture. Textbook for the Subject Vlach Speech with Elements of National Culture for the First Grade of Primary School]. Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike, Petrovac na Mlavi: Nacionalni Savet Vlaha.
- Golubović, Milena, Braniša Đorđević & Ankica Babić (2017). *Škuaola*. Prva zbirka dečijih likovnih i literarnih radova na vlaškom jeziku [The School. The First Collection of Children's Art and Literary Works in the Vlach Language]. Beograd: Matica Vlaha.
- Golubović, Milena, Braniša Đorđević & Mirela Savić (2018). *Juo ši drugarji amjiei*. Zbirka dečijih likovnih i literarnih radova na vlaškom jeziku [Me and My Friends. A Collection of Children's Art and Literary Works in the Vlach Language]. Beograd: Matica Vlaha.

- Golubović, Slobodan (2013). *Panda învacă kung fu* [Panda learns kung fu]. Petrovac na Mlavi: Nacionalni savez Vlaha, Negotin: Udruženje za očuvanje identiteta, jezika, kulture i tradicije Vlaha "Gergina".
- Gorter, Durk (2013). Linguistic Landscapes in a Multilingual World. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 33, 190-212.
- Heller, Monica (2010). The Commodification of Language. *Annual Review of Anthropology*. 39, 101-114.
- Huebner, Thom (2009). A Framework for the Linguistic Analysis of Linguistic Landscapes. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 70-87.
- Huțanu, Monica (2021). Performing Vlach-ness Online: The Enregisterment of Vlach Romanian on Facebook. In Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković, Mihai Dragnea, Thede Kahl, Blagovest Njagulov, Donald L. Dyer, Angelo Costanzo (Eds.). *The Romance-Speaking Balkans. Language and the Politics of Identity*, Brill, 233-255.
- Huțanu, Monica & Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković (2018a). Non-Dominant Varieties of Romanian in Serbia: Between Pluricentricity and Division. In Rudolf Muhr and Benjamin Meisnitzer (Eds.). *Pluricentric Languages and Non-Dominant Varieties Worldwide: New pluricentric languages – old problems*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 205-218.
- Huțanu, Monica & Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković (2018b). Writing Systems and Linguistic Identity of the Vlach Community of Eastern Serbia. *Diacronia*. 7 <<http://www.diacronia.ro/ro/journal/issue/7/A106/en/pdf>>
- Huțanu, Monica & Annemarie Sorescu-Marinković (2016). Novi nadgrobni spomenici na vlaškom u istočnoj Srbiji [New Funeral Inscription in Vlach in Eastern Serbia]. *Фолклористика*, 1.2, 27-42.
- Ivkov-Džigurski, Anđelija, Vedrana Babić, Aleksandra Dragin, Kristina Košić & Ivana Blešić (2012). The Mystery of Vlach Magic in the Rural Areas of 21st century Serbia. *Eastern European Countryside*. 18, 61-83.
- Jovanović Nadica N. (2013). *Gramatika vlašskog jezika*. Negotin.
- Jović Kolerović, Slavica, Dragomir Dragić, Filip Paunjelović, Dragan Stojanjelović & Vića Mitrović Mitra (2014). *Pră valja Kăluculu/ Pră valea Căluțulu/ Pe valea Căluțului*. Dește vlaške pesme. *Petrovac na Mlavi*.
- Juffermans, Kasper & Jannet Coppoolse (2012). How literate, low-literate and non-literate readers read the linguistic landscape in a Gambian village. In Christine Hélot, Monica Barni, Rudi Janssens and Carla Bagna (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscapes, Multilingualism and Social Change*. Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang, 233–248.
- Kallen, Jeffrey L. (2010). Changing Landscapes: Language, Space and Policy in the Dublin Linguistic Landscape. In Adam Jaworsky and Crispin Thurlow (Eds.). *Semiotic Landscapes. Language, Image, Space*. London: Continuum, 41-58.
- Kallen, Jeffrey (2009). Tourism and Representation in the Irish Linguistic Landscape. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 270-283.
- Kotze, Chrismi-Rinda & Theodorus Du Plessis (2010). Language visibility in the Xhariep – a comparison of the linguistic landscape of three neighbouring towns. *Language Matters* 41.1, 72-96.
- Landry, Rodrigue & Richard Y. Bourhis (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 16.1, 23-49.

- Leeman, Jennifer & Gabriella Modan (2009). Commodified language in Chinatown: A contextualized approach to linguistic landscape. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 13.3, 332-362.
- lu Boža Kići, Ljubiša (2015). *Vlaško-srpski rečnik. Vlarumünesk-srbjesk vorbarju* (2. dopunjeno izd.) [Vlach-Serbian Dictionary (2nd updated edition)]. Bor: Tercija.
- lu Boža Kići, Ljubiša (2011). *Albina: povješć rumünješć = vlaške pripovetke* (dopunjeno izdanje) [(The Bee: Vlach stories (updated edition)]. Negotin: Nacionalni Savet Vlaha, Petrovac: Štamparija Stojadinović.
- lu Boža Kići, Ljubiša (2010). *Vlaške pesme* [Vlach Songs]. Bor: Grafomed.
- lu Boža Kići, Ljubiša (2006). *Jevangelja sfüntë* [The Holy Gospel]. Bor: Grafomed.
- lu Boža Kići, Ljubiša (2004). *Vlaško-srpski rečnik. Vlarumünesk-srbjesk vorbarju* [Vlach-Serbian Dictionary]. Bor: Grafomed.
- Malinowski, David (2009). Authorship in the Linguistic Landscape: a Multimodal-Performative View. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 107-125.
- Marten, Heiko F., Luk Van Mensel & Durk Gorter (2012). Studying Minority Languages in the Linguistic Landscape. In Durk Gorter, Heiko F. Marten and Luk Van Mensel (Eds.). *Minority Languages in the Linguistic Landscape*. Palgrave MacMillan, 1-15.
- Pavlenko, Aneta (2012). Transgression as the Norm: Russian in Linguistic Landscape of Kyiv, Ukraine. In Durk Gorter, Heiko F. Marten and Luk Van Mensel (Eds.). *Minority Languages in the Linguistic Landscape*. Palgrave MacMillan, 36-56.
- Pietikäinen, Sari, Pia Lane, Hanni Salo & Sirkka Laihiala-Kankainen (2011). Frozen actions in the Arctic linguistic landscape: a nexus analysis of language processes in visual space. *International Journal of Multilingualism* 8.4, 277-298.
- Reershemius, Gertrud (2020). Semiotic rural landscapes and the performance of community in villages. A case study from low German-speaking northern Germany. *Linguistic Landscape* 6.2, 128-154.
- Shohamy, Elana & Durk Gorter (2009). Introduction. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 1-10.
- Sisay Mendisu, Binyam, David Malinowski & Endashaw Woldemichael (2016). Absence from Linguistic Landscape as de facto Language Policy: The Case of Two Local Languages in Southern Ethiopia. In Robert Blackwood, Elizabeth Lanza and Hirut Woldemariam (Eds.). *Negotiating and Contesting Identities in Linguistic Landscapes*. Bloomsbury, 117-130.
- Sorescu-Marinković, Annemarie (2012). *Vorbari Rumînesk: The Vlach on line Dictionary*. *Philologica Jassyensia*, 8.1, 47-60.
- Sorescu-Marinković, Annemarie & Monica Huțanu (2019). Ideology and representation of Vlach Romanian online. Between linguistic activism and unengaged language use. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Braşov*, 12.1, 71-86.
- Sorescu-Marinković, Annemarie & Monica Huțanu (2017). Cimitirele din localitățile românofone ale Serbiei răsăritene. Lecturi posibile [The Graveyards in the Romanian-speaking villages of Eastern Serbia. Possible Readings]. In Felicia Aneta Oarcea (Ed.). *Studii și comunicări. In Honorem Elena Rodica Colta la 65 de ani*. Arad: Gutenberg Univers, 131-144.
- Spolsky, Bernard (2009). Prolegomena to a Sociolinguistic Theory of Public Signage. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape. Expanding the Scenery*. New York: Routledge, 25-39.
- Troyer, Robert A., Carmen Cáceda and Patricia Giménez Eguíbar (2015). Unseen Spanish in Small-Town America: A Minority Language in the Linguistic

- Landscape. In Rani Rubdy and Selim Ben Said (Eds.). *Conflict, Exclusion and Dissent in the Linguistic Landscape*. Palgrave MacMillan, 52-76.
- Weigand, Gustav (1900 (2008)), *Dialectele românești ale Valahiei mici, ale Serbiei și ale Bulgariei* [Romanian dialects of the little Wallachia, Serbia and Bulgaria]. In *Românii din Timoc*. [Romanians from Timok]. Collection of sources by C. Constante and A. Golopenția. Edited by Nicoleta Mușat. Vol. I. Timișoara: Marineasa, 71-87.
- Yigezu, Moges & Robert Blackwood (2016). Harari Linguistic Identity in the LL: Creation, Legitimization and Omission in the City of Harar, Ethiopia. In Robert Blackwood, Elizabeth Lanza and Hirut Woldemariam (Eds.). *Negotiating and Contesting Identities in Linguistic Landscapes*. Bloomsbury, 131-143.

ПРОМЕНА ЈЕЗИЧКОГ ПЕЈЗАЖА: ПОЈАВА ВЛАШКОГ НА НАТПИСИМА У ИСТОЧНОЈ СРБИЈИ

Моника Хуцану¹, Анемари Сореску-Маринковић²

¹Западни универзитет у Темишвару, Румунија / Универзитет у Београду, Србија

²Балканолошки институт САНУ, Београд, Србија

Резиме

Рад анализира појаву и видљивост влашког, недоминантног варијетета румунског језика у језичком пејзажу источне Србије. Иако је међугенерациски пренос језика знатно опао, недавне мере које су ангажовани чланови заједнице предузели, као што су стварање службеног влашког писма, објављивање различитих превода, фолклорних збирки, али и оригиналних творевина, увођење изборног предмета „Влашки говор са елементима националне културе“ у неколико основних школа, те стандардизација влашког варијетета, сведоче о томе да језик пролази кроз интензиван процес ревитализације.

Истраживање је спроведено током 2016. и 2017. године у претежно руралном подручју које обухвата четири суседне општине у источној Србији, у којима живи велики проценат влашког становништва. Откривене су различите врсте натписа на влашком, који су се појавили претежно у последњих 10 година: графити, плакати, погребни натписи, комерцијални натписи, итд. Ови натписи су углавном приватни, незванични, и карактерише их висок степен варијабилности услед одсуства општеприхваћене језичке норме (упркос недавној, али оспораваној стандардизацији). Иако још увек нема званичних натписа и језичких политика у вези са употребом влашког у јавном простору, сама појава ових натписа дефинитивно указује на значајне промене (Blommaert 2013). У раду се анализира циљана публика ових натписа и њихова функција, а анализа показује да неки од натписа имају углавном симболичку вредност, будући да се користе као индекси идентитета или за легитимацију овог новог стандардизованог мањинског језика, док су други повезани са комодификацијом језика.

Појаву јавних натписа на влашком, као и на стандардном румунском језику, у традиционално једнојезичном пејзажу ове области треба посматрати у контексту наведених мера ревитализације, имајући у виду да је утицај видљивости језика на његову виталност, статус и опште шансе за опстанак добро познат (Landry, Bourhis 1997; Cenoz, Gorter 2006; Gorter, Marten, Van Mensel (eds.) 2012).

CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS AND PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOUR AS COMPETITIVENESS FACTORS IN SERBIA: CURRENT STATE OF DEVELOPMENT AND KEY DRIVERS

Tanja Milić*

University of Belgrade, Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Belgrade, Serbia

Abstract

Environmental awareness was proven to be a significant competitiveness factor among consumers with high environmental awareness levels. Since the latest scientific research has revealed an enviably high environmental awareness level among consumers on the Serbian market, the purpose of this empirical research paper is to provide insight into the current environmental awareness level and pro-environmental behaviour in business organisations in Serbia. Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour are explored both generally and from the standpoint of the impact of specific managerial and organisational attributes. The sample includes 107 managers interviewed using the Computer Assisted Web Interview technique. Results show a slightly above average corporate environmental awareness level and pro-environmental behaviour in the Serbian business world, with lower rankings received in comparison with Serbian consumers. Additionally, a corporate environmental awareness-behaviour gap was detected, demonstrating that barriers are more dominant than motivators for pro-environmental behaviour in the Serbian business world. The business organisation size appears as the only differing factor influencing environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in Serbia, showing that larger organisations face larger environmental violations and problems, and consequently develop a higher level of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour. The results indicate that the Serbian government, as one of the key promoters of corporate environmental responsibility, shares the same environmental awareness level and pro-environmental behaviour as Serbian business organisations, leaving consumers with the task of attempting to influence the Serbian government and Serbian corporations in order to motivate them to start behaving in a more environmentally responsible manner. This research implies that environmental awareness is not sufficiently present in managers' minds and Serbian businesses, and, consequently, corporate pro-environmental behaviour itself, together with the present corporate environmental awareness-behaviour gap, cannot reach higher levels. This means that the opportunities to gain a significant competitive advantage on

* Corresponding author: Tanja Milić, Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Jove Ilića 154, 11000 Belgrade Belgrade, Serbia, tanja.milic@fon.bg.ac.rs

the Serbian market based on environmentally conscious business activities are being missed.

Key words: environmental awareness, pro-environmental behaviour, corporate environmental responsibility, corporate competitiveness, Republic of Serbia

КОРПОРАТИВНА ЕКОЛОШКА СВЕСТ И ПРОЕКОЛОШКО ПОНАШАЊЕ КАО ФАКТОРИ КОНКУРЕНТНОСТИ У СРБИЈИ: ТЕКУЋЕ СТАЊЕ РАЗВОЈА И КЉУЧНИ НОСИОЦИ

Апстракт

Доказано је да је еколошка свест значајан фактор конкурентности међу потрошачима са високим нивоом еколошке свести. Пошто су најновија научна истраживања показала завидно висок ниво еколошке свести потрошача на тржишту Србије, сврха овог емпиријског истраживачког рада је да пружи увид у актуелни ниво еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања у привредним друштвима у Србији. Еколошка свест и проеколошко понашање истражују се са општег аспекта и са аспекта утицаја специфичних менаџерских и организационих атрибута. Укупно 107 менаџера је испитано техником компјутерски потпомогнутог веб интервјуа. Резултати истраживања показују нешто изнад просечног нивоа корпоративне еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања у пословном свету у Србији, са нижим рангом у поређењу са српским потрошачима. Такође, уочен је јаз између корпоративне еколошке свести и понашања, што показује да баријере више доминирају у пословном свету у Србији него мотиватори за проеколошко понашање. Као једини диферентни фактор који утиче на еколошку свест и проеколошко понашање у Србији појављује се величина пословне организације, при чему се веће организације суочавају са озбиљнијим преступима и проблемима у вези са животном средином и, последично, развијају виши ниво еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања. Резултати истраживања показују да Влада Србије, као један од кључних промотера корпоративне еколошке одговорности, дели исти ниво еколошке свести и про-еколошког понашања са пословним организацијама у Србији, што потрошачима оставља задатак да покушају да утичу на Владу Србије и српске корпорације како би их мотивисали да почну да се понашају на еколошки одговорнији начин. Истраживачка импликација је да еколошка свест није довољно присутна у пословном животу Србије и у свести менаџера, па самим тим и само корпоративно проеколошко понашање, заједно са постојећим јазом између корпоративне еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања, не може достићи виши ниво, чиме се пропуштају прилике да се на основу еколошки освећеног пословања стекне значајна конкурентска предност на тржишту Србије.

Кључне речи: еколошка свест, проеколошко понашање, корпоративна еколошка одговорност, корпоративна конкурентност, Република Србија

INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in the late 1960s (Roth, 1992), the concept of environmental awareness has been steadily rising, with a sharp increase in interest in the concept near the end of the 20th and at the beginning of the 21st century (Dixon, Mousa & Woodhead, 2005). Nowadays, environmental awareness appears as a universal European value, influencing and directing European business practices, strategies, and policies (Mihajlović, Voza, Milošević & Durkalić, 2016). Environmental awareness, which reflects people's concern for and knowledge of the impacts of their behaviours on the environment, is usually recognised as the first important step in preparing people to solve environmental problems (Ramsey, Hungerford & Volk, 1992), and as a precondition for displaying pro-environmental behaviour. Pro-environmental behaviour is generally used as a synonym for environmentally friendly behaviour, but is more explicitly defined as behaviour that consciously seeks to minimise and eliminate the negative impact of people's actions on the natural and built world, or even benefit from them (Kirk, 2010; Steg & Vlek, 2009; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Environmental behaviours differ by company (Yusof, Abidin, Zailani, Govindan, & Iranmanesh, 2016), and are influenced by government rules (Zhao, Zhao, Zeng, & Zhang, 2015), local residents (Davari & Strutton, 2014), and market competition (Verma & Duggal, 2015). Managerial and organisational features also affect companies' environmental behaviours (Fürst & Oberhofer, 2012; Montalvo, 2008). Moreover, numerous companies are still reluctant to make efforts beyond legal environmental requirements (Ormazabal & Puga-Leal, 2016), or disregard natural environment completely (Epstein & Wisner, 2001), missing the opportunity to increase their competitiveness and harvest better economic-financial results (Zeng, Qin & Zeng, 2019; Li, Cao, Zhang, Chen, Ren & Zhao, 2017).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour as competitiveness factors in the corporate world in the Republic of Serbia. In that sense, the main objectives of the study are: (1) to measure the current levels of managers' environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in order to evaluate its potential exploitation as a corporate competitiveness factor; (2) to examine the differences in levels of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in relation to specific managerial and organisational attributes in order to profile Serbian managers and businesses in this field; and, accordingly, (3) to determine key drivers of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in the Republic of Serbia to foster the design of proper environmental policies, strategies and practices.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

As a country that has over the decades undergone numerous socio-political crises, Serbia has paid very little attention to the protection of the natural environment and the development of environmental awareness, as well as to the stimulation of pro-environmental behaviour among its citizens. After the year 2000, the state entered the processes of democratisation, Europeanisation, strengthening of civil society and acceleration of transition, but in the field of environmental protection there is an obvious imbalance between the normative framework and practice (Simeunović-Bajić, Majdarević & Manić, 2013), with elements that clearly indicate that there is a serious crisis of environmental rights and the environment in general (Arsić, Matijašević & Berber, 2011). Despite the fact that environmental and quality of life issues are finally gaining the attention that they had long ago deserved in the Republic of Serbia (Jovanović & Ćimović, 2014), despite the fact that environmental protection and improvement is one of the five priority areas defined by the National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Serbia (Milanović & Kovačević, 2015), and despite the fact that a large number of laws have been harmonised with European legislation, which has made the greatest progress in this area (Simeunović-Bajić et al., 2013), the fact of the matter remains that this area is not yet sufficiently explored and applied in both theoretical and practical terms. The significant lag in practice follows a poor historical base and insufficient research. In domestic academic circles, environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour have not been examined or elaborated in any particular detail. Literature in this domain is scarce, and it comes down to only a few articles that deal with this topic in a non-comprehensive way. Currently, a total of 148 electronically available scientific and professional papers citing 'environmental awareness' as a key word have been published in Serbia, but only 12 of them deal with environmental awareness as their main topic, and only 5 of them try to measure the level of environmental awareness among the Serbian population. Regarding the business world of Serbia, there is only one published study related to measuring corporate environmental awareness. It includes only respondents from one organisation, which only hints at the level of environmental awareness in Serbian companies. The study found the environmental awareness of "AXA Insurance" employees to be at a low level due to the poor preparedness of Serbian companies to meet the environmental requirements and standards applicable in developed countries (Kitić, Kostić-Stanković, Cvijović & Lečić-Cvetković, 2015).

The latest research implemented on a representative sample of respondents demonstrates that environmental awareness among Serbian consumers is developed at an enviably high level (Milić, 2020). Environmental awareness is proven to be a significant factor of competitiveness among consumers with high levels of environmental awareness

(Chuang & Huang, 2018; Iraldo, Testa, Lanzini & Battaglia, 2017; Baptista, Madureira & Guevara, 2016; Stevens, 1998). The question remains of whether environmental awareness is adequately exploited in Serbian business organisations.

METHODS

Research Participants

The survey was conducted on a sample of 107 respondents. The participants of the study were managers of business organisations operating on the territory of the Republic of Serbia. Testing was conducted using quantitative research techniques, via the Internet (Computer Assisted Web Interview - CAWI), with consent from each subject who participated in the study. Publicly available databases of business organisations, public associations, and media in Serbia were used as a sample frame. The research is based on examining the perceptions and attitudes of managers of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia in relation to environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour, and their impact on business decisions. In the second step, the research refers to the examination of the conditionality of the degree of influence and the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour as regards specific respondents' managerial and organisational features.

Research Instrument

For the purpose of this study, a questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was established on the basis of reviewed scientific literature and the recommendations of Mihailović (2012), Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), Babbie and Mouton (2007), Welman, and Kruger (2005), Boyce (2003), and Dillman (2000). It is, of course, in compliance with the special needs of this research. The questionnaire contains general questions pertaining to the demographic characteristics of the respondents, and data about the organisation, followed by questions pertaining to environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour. The results of Cronbach's alpha test as a measure of the questionnaire's reliability indicate the consistent reliability of the results obtained ($\alpha > 0.7$) (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Data Analysis

Items of the questionnaire were analysed using the statistical package SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences - SPSS) v23. The data analysis in this study consisted of descriptive statistics. Univariate analysis was used through the individual ranking statistics. The non-parametric

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the significance of differences. Results with the value $p < 0.05$ were declared significant.

RESULTS

The evaluation of The Importance of Environmental Awareness and Pro-environmental Behaviour for Managers in the Republic of Serbia

In order to evaluate the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, univariate analysis containing individual ranking statistics was used. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Statistical summary of univariate analysis of the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia

Statement	Mean (μ)	Std. Dev.
1. To what extent is environmental awareness embedded in your business decision making?	4.84	1.574
2. Our organisation focuses on protecting the natural environment as a stakeholder.	4.80	1.724
3. To what extent is the organisation you work for involved in environmental activities?	4.56	1.956
4. To what extent are the activities of the organisation in which you work proactive in relation to environmental protection?	4.21	1.831
5. To what extent is there a record of violations of environmental principles in your organisation?	3.16	1.850

The results show that environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour are recognised as important factors of competitiveness in Serbian companies, since they all carry values that are above average ($\mu > 4.00$), ranging from 4.21 to 4.80 for various degrees of pro-environmental behaviour, and 4.84 for the level of significance of environmental awareness in business decision making. There is a slight environmental awareness-behaviour gap, in favour of environmental awareness. In addition to this, the number of business organisations facing ample records of environmental violations is below average ($\mu < 4.00$).

The Evaluation of the Impact of Managerial and Organisational Features on the Importance of Environmental Awareness and Pro-environmental Behaviour for Managers in the Republic of Serbia

In order to determine the drivers of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour, as well as the profile of the business organ-

isations in which environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour are of special importance, we investigated how the perception of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour are influenced by certain managerial and organisational characteristics, such as: gender, age, education, type of inhabitancy, economy sector, experience in current managerial position, experience in current organisation, business organisation function, management level, business organisation size, and business organisation ownership structure. The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine the significance of differences. Results with the value $p < 0.05$ were declared significant.

Gender. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between males and females was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p > 0.05$) (Table 2).

Table 2. Impact of Gender on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour			p
	Mean Rank			
	Male	Female		
Statement 1	69.09	78.85		0.161
Statement 2	72.27	79.05		0.335
Statement 3	73.49	78.88		0.447
Statement 4	74.49	77.20		0.702
Statement 5	75.01	77.67		0.707

Age. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents from six different age groups was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p > 0.05$) (Table 3).

Table 3. Impact of Age on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour						p
	Mean Rank						
	< 25	26 - 35	36 - 45	46 - 55	56 - 65	> 65	
Statement 1	45.00	62.71	77.11	85.63	59.23	105.75	0.110
Statement 2	63.25	68.38	78.31	80.79	71.42	106.75	0.671
Statement 3	37.50	67.67	80.77	81.59	71.83	71.00	0.593
Statement 4	44.00	70.23	81.23	77.09	67.73	74.50	0.771
Statement 5	103.50	69.55	74.34	77.19	99.09	113.50	0.268

Education. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents with various degrees of education was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p>0.05$) (Table 4).

Table 4. Impact of Education on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour							p
	Mean Rank							
	Elementary education	High School	College	BSc	MSc	Magister	PhD	
Statement 1	-	68.10	66.54	77.12	73.85	91.88	76.25	0.817
Statement 2	-	62.97	67.72	81.14	77.47	74.00	63.25	0.582
Statement 3	-	57.60	60.59	82.03	88.12	86.60	71.25	0.095
Statement 4	-	54.27	65.13	80.48	91.00	80.40	57.00	0.113
Statement 5	-	83.79	60.39	79.06	86.03	68.83	71.25	0.356

Type of inhabitancy. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents coming from urban and rural areas was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p>0.05$) (Table 5).

Table 5. Impact of Type of inhabitancy on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour			p
	Mean Rank			
	Urban		Rural	
Statement 1	75.70		57.90	0.197
Statement 2	77.15		61.36	0.241
Statement 3	78.10		53.75	0.086
Statement 4	76.32		71.55	0.736
Statement 5	77.15		68.23	0.511

Experience in current managerial position. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents with different levels of experience in their current managerial position was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p>0.05$) (Table 6).

Table 6. Impact of Experience on current managerial position on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour						p
	Mean Rank						
	< 1	1 - 4	5 - 9	10 - 19	20 - 29	> 30	
Statement 1	72.78	62.47	77.91	79.94	78.83	85.38	0.500
Statement 2	77.17	70.20	77.46	77.17	79.20	84.40	0.960
Statement 3	77.11	73.58	80.33	72.68	83.59	60.25	0.873
Statement 4	73.56	67.73	80.58	80.58	77.50	53.88	0.636
Statement 5	65.28	70.43	77.57	78.60	89.41	76.25	0.718

Experience in current organisation. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents with different levels of experience in the current organisation was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p>0.05$) (Table 7).

Table 7. Impact of Experience in current organisation on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour						p
	Mean Rank						
	< 1	1 - 4	5 - 9	10 - 19	20 - 29	> 30	
Statement 1	61.75	65.74	78.88	76.47	80.89	67.50	0.595
Statement 2	68.11	69.61	81.95	79.07	66.44	84.38	0.652
Statement 3	52.22	70.17	82.65	79.50	76.36	75.00	0.436
Statement 4	59.56	66.97	84.33	82.13	70.47	61.67	0.288
Statement 5	59.00	71.03	82.44	76.44	73.14	96.67	0.582

Business organisation function. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents coming from different business organisation functions was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p>0.05$) (Table 8).

Table 8. Impact of Business organisation function on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour									p
	Mean Rank									
	Sales	HR	Marketing	Manufacturing	Administration	R&D	IT	Logistics	Finance	
Statement 1	55.29	73.00	43.84	72.13	72.72	74.70	50.60	76.75	62.05	0.301
Statement 2	64.40	74.41	53.97	63.75	82.00	71.80	64.83	66.83	53.43	0.493
Statement 3	59.87	73.95	51.37	56.90	76.72	72.70	69.67	56.00	62.16	0.720
Statement 4	62.40	76.20	45.40	59.75	78.63	80.40	59.83	51.00	59.27	0.358
Statement 5	57.46	79.71	73.79	63.63	67.09	53.30	32.83	65.50	59.57	0.393

Management level. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents from different management levels was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p > 0.05$) (Table 9).

Table 9. Impact of Management level on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour				p
	TML	MML	FML	NML	
Statement 1	63.37	67.07	74.63	66.27	0.782
Statement 2	65.28	64.76	71.33	71.97	0.807
Statement 3	58.33	69.72	82.67	72.51	0.132
Statement 4	61.15	65.92	88.83	68.49	0.112
Statement 5	67.37	73.16	73.74	62.68	0.638

Business organisation size. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia, we examined the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents coming from business organisations of three different sizes in terms of the number of employees: (1) up to 100 employees, (2) between 100 and 500 employees, and (3) more than 500 employees. The results reveal that respondents working in smaller business organisations found embedding environmental awareness in business decision making less significant than the respondents working in larger business organisations, while middle-sized business organisations found this issue to be the most significant (59.37 vs. 87.80 vs. 85.22; $p < 0.000$, Kruskal-Wallis test). Additionally, according to the research results, respondents working in smaller business organisations found the focus on protecting the natural environment as a stakeholder to be less significant than the respondents working in middle-sized and larger business organisations (61.81 vs. 85.62 vs. 90.32; $p < 0.001$, Kruskal-Wallis test). Furthermore, research findings suggest that respondents working in smaller business organisations attached less importance to actual environmental involvement, as compared to middle-sized and larger business organisations (58.77 vs. 90.29 vs. 92.05; $p < 0.000$, Kruskal-Wallis test). Similarly, respondents working in smaller business organisations attached less importance to proactive environmental behaviour (59.60 vs. 87.44 vs. 92.84; $p < 0.000$, Kruskal-Wallis test). Regarding the record of violations of environmental principles in business organisations in the Republic of Serbia, research results conclude that smaller business organisations break less environmental principles as compared to middle-sized and larger business organisations (64.67 vs. 78.08 vs. 101.37; $p < 0.001$, Kruskal-Wallis test) (Table 10).

Table 10. Impact of Business organisation size on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour			p
	Mean Rank			
	< 100	100 - 499	500 - 999	
Statement 1	59.37	87.80	85.22	0.000
Statement 2	61.81	85.62	90.32	0.001
Statement 3	58.77	90.29	92.05	0.000
Statement 4	59.60	87.44	92.84	0.000
Statement 5	64.67	78.08	101.37	0.001

Economy sector. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers in the Republic of Serbia, the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents from different economy sectors was examined. No statistically significant differences were found ($p > 0.05$) (Table 11).

Table 11. Impact of Economy sector on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour			p
	Mean Rank			
	Manufacturing organization	Commercial organization	Service organization	
Statement 1	71.35	62.86	62.79	0.433
Statement 2	71.89	54.65	68.06	0.182
Statement 3	72.68	58.26	66.91	0.303
Statement 4	70.74	56.30	68.78	0.296
Statement 5	70.59	76.61	63.87	0.388

Business organisation ownership structure. In relation to the importance of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour for managers of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia, we examined the existence of statistically significant differences between respondents coming from government-owned, public, and private-owned organisations. No statistically significant differences were found ($p > 0.05$) (Table 12).

Table 12. Impact of Business organisation ownership structure on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour

Var.	Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour			p
	Mean Rank			
	Government organisation	Public organisation	Private organisation	
Statement 1	70.42	67.11	67.91	0.971
Statement 2	74.73	79.78	66.37	0.327
Statement 3	72.55	82.16	66.53	0.231
Statement 4	75.73	82.27	65.48	0.159
Statement 5	69.92	72.11	69.57	0.963

DISCUSSION

Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in Serbian companies are slightly above average, confirming the findings of Milanović and Kovačević (2015), and Jovanović and Aćimović (2014) which state that environment and environmental issues are gaining importance in Serbia. However, compared to the Serbian consumers' environmental awareness value of 6.32, determined in previous research conducted by Milić (2020) on a representative sample, the results of this study suggest that business organisations have room to put in more effort in this field of business in order to gain a long-term sustainable competitive advantage and win Serbian consumers. On the positive side, this study's results are contrary to the research results previously obtained by Kitić et al. (2015). This can be due to the larger sample of organisations included in this research, which makes this study more relevant, and/or due to the time elapsed between the two studies, which allowed for changes to occur in corporate environmental awareness, as indicated by Dixon et al. (2005).

According to our research results, there does not seem to be a general understanding that an organisation in Serbia should be run with environmental awareness in mind. This demonstrates that there is a significant number of companies which have not yet embraced and embedded environmental awareness in their business decision making, which is in opposition to the results of Mihajlović et al. (2016).

Regarding the organisational focus on protecting the natural environment as a stakeholder, which represents the first step towards environmentally responsible corporate behaviour, this research analysis demonstrates that the natural environment is still neglected by many companies. This confirms the findings of a study conducted by Epstein and Wisner (2001). Corporate attention on natural environment in the form of corporate environmental responsibility is still in a transitional stage and no adequate natural environment focus currently exists.

Research analysis demonstrates that actual pro-environmental behaviour lags behind environmental awareness in the business world in the Republic of Serbia, pointing towards the presence of potential barriers to pro-environmental behaviour. As a result, the least number of business organisations operating in the Republic of Serbia is involved in proactive environmental protection activities, as demonstration of the highest level of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour. These results are in line with Ormazabal and Puga-Leal (2016), and Simeunović-Bajić et al. (2013).

Finally, regarding the extent of the organisations' violations of environmental principles, the results of our research reveal that some Serbian organisations, in a display of behaviour opposite to pro-environmental behaviour, hold the record for violations of environmental principles.

This analysis demonstrates that negative environmental behaviour is present in some business organisations in the Republic of Serbia, which supports the claims of Arsić et al. (2011).

Regarding the influence of managerial and organisational features, research results in Serbia detected that only Business organisation size makes a difference, which is partially in line with previous research conducted by Fürst and Oberhofer (2012), and Montalvo (2008), who detected ownership as an influential feature as well. On the other hand, this is not in line with Casalo and Escario (2018), who indicated that demographic factors, such as gender, age, and education appear as predictors of environmental awareness and behaviour. The reason for this may be cultural differences, or the level of the country's development in various fields, such as technology, law, economy, politics, society, etc. This notion was previously partially confirmed by Mikula, Raczkowska and Utzig (2021), Çarkoğlu and Kentmen-Çin (2015), and Montalvo (2008). Environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in Serbia are, according to the results of this research, especially appreciated by larger organisations due to the fact that the larger a business organisation is, the more serious the environmental issues it has, as previously indicated by Hill, Kelley, Agle, Hitt & Hoskisson (1992). Consequently, such organisations have to keep developing and embedding environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour into everyday business activities. Furthermore, our research results confirm that, wishing to increase their competitiveness with the aim of growing and prospering, middle-sized businesses place more value on environmental awareness as compared to large organisations, but are behind large organisations in the domain of pro-environmental behaviour, probably due to the lack of capital to finance it to the extent large organisations do. This was previously determined by Montalvo (2008). The lack of influence other investigated managerial and organisational characteristics have on this issue indicates that environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in the Serbian business world are determined and polished by the corporate and State environmental policies.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATION

These research results have several important implications for managers and policy makers. First, lagging behind Serbian consumers, Serbian managers should focus more on developing and implementing environmentally based business activities, as this is an unexploited source of a sustainable competitive advantage on the domestic market. Environmental training programmes could be of use in this stage, in order to increase the necessary environmental knowledge. Second, the uncovered environmental awareness-behaviour gap points towards the necessity of

determining and eliminating the existing barriers to environmentally conscious business behaviour in the Republic of Serbia. Third, since environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in the Serbian business world are determined and polished by the corporate and State environmental policies, there exists a necessity to create an environmental campaign on the state level, with the goal of enabling an environmentally conscious operation of businesses in the Republic of Serbia. Drawing on the experiences of other countries, this can be done by implementing 'hard' and 'soft' policies initiated by the government or by the market, depending on the ratio and degree of compulsion. Hard policies are generally compulsory, direct regulations, such as the adoption of an integrated reporting system where companies also include environmental elements in their corporate reports instead of focusing solely on the financial, or economic, elements (Lynch, 2010; Frost & Seamer, 2002; Cormier & Gordon, 2001). Soft policies use economic incentives to motivate voluntary pro-environmental behaviour change. Government donations, and the results of this and similar research are examples of such policies. But, for this to be possible, it is necessary for the government and/or market to have a higher level of environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour as compared to the rest of the business world. This brings us to the fourth and last implication of this research. Since the Government shares the same level of environmental consciousness as business organisations, the role and impact of the Government in Serbia are not significant. Having this situation in mind, it is up to consumers to make a stronger impact on both the Serbian Government and Serbian corporations, so as to motivate them start behaving in a more environmentally responsible manner.

CONCLUSION

This empirical research paper gives an overview of corporate environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour in the Republic of Serbia. The issues of corporate environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour were considered generally from the point of view of managers. Additionally, these issues were examined from the standpoint of the influence of specific managerial and organisational features. The obtained results show that corporate environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour have, in the business world of Serbia, not reached the level of importance they have for Serbian consumers. Also, a slight corporate environmental awareness-behaviour gap was detected, in favour of environmental awareness. This gap demonstrates the presence of some barriers which are more dominant than motivators in corporate environmental strategy development and deployment. Serbian business organisations have a developed environmental awareness, a de-

veloped focus on protecting the natural environment as a stakeholder, and are actively involved in environmental activities, yet not in a sufficiently proactive manner. On the positive side, a low rate of violations of environmental principles in Serbian business organisations was detected. Some business organisations, however, still do not follow environmental principles in their business dealings. Corporate environmental responsibility is, so far and especially in the domain of pro-environmental behaviour, especially appreciated by large organisations, followed by middle-sized organisations, and, finally, small organisations. On the other hand, environmental awareness is the most developed in middle-sized organisations, followed by large organisations and, finally, small organisations. There is no difference in the level of corporate environmental responsibility between the Government and the business world.

Based on these research results, several recommendations can be made: (1) Serbian managers should focus more on developing and implementing environmentally based business activities; (2) it is necessary to reveal the key barriers, motivators, and actors related to corporate environmental responsibility; (3) it would be preferable to introduce new legal instruments in the field of environmental protection; and (4) as they are a key driver of corporate environmental responsibility, consumers should strive to have a stronger impact on both the Serbian Government and Serbian corporations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. Gratitude and best wishes to the reviewers and the team of the journal *Teme*.

REFERENCES

- Arsić, N., Matijašević, J., Berber, N. (2011). Environmental Crisis as a State of Human Rights and Environmental Awareness. *Pravo – teorija i praksa*, 28 (1-3), 23-35. (Serbian)
- Babbie, E., Mouton, J. (2007). *The Practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Baptista, G. P. N., Madureira, M. C. L., Guevara, J. H. A. (2016). Influence of Environmental Sustainability in Management and Competitiveness Business and Employability-Perceptions of Brazilian Managers. *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Innovation and Management, November 28-30*. Wuhan: Wuhan University of Technology Press, China.
- Boyce, J. (2003). *Market Research in Practice*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Čarkoğlu, A., Kentmen-Çin, Ç. (2015). Economic Development, Environmental Justice, and Pro-Environmental Behavior. *Environmental Politics*, 24(4), 575-597. DOI: 10.1080/09644016.2015.1023574
- Casaló, L. V., Escario, J. J. (2018). Heterogeneity in the Association between Environmental Attitudes and Pro-Environmental Behavior: A Multilevel Regression Approach. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 175, 155-163. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.11.237

- Chuang, S.P., Huang, S.J. (2018). The Effect of Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility on Environmental Performance and Business Competitiveness: The Mediation of Green Information Technology Capital. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 150, 991–1009. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-016-3167-x
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge.
- Cormier, D., Gordon, M. (2001). An Examination of Social and Environmental Reporting Strategies. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 14(5), 587–617. DOI: 10.1108/EUM0000000006264
- Davari, A., Strutton, D. (2014). Marketing Mix Strategies for Closing the Gap between Green Consumers' Pro-Environmental Beliefs and Behaviors. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 22, 563-586. DOI: 0.1080/0965254X.2014.914059
- Dillman, D.A. (2000). *Mail and International Surveys: The Tailored Design Method*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dixon, R., Mousa, G., Woodhead, A. (2005). The Role of Environmental Initiatives in Encouraging Companies to Engage in Environmental Reporting. *European Management Journal*, 23 (6), 702-716. DOI: 10.1016/j.emj.2005.10.014
- Epstein, M.J., Wisner, P.S. (2001). Using the Balanced Scorecard to Implement Sustainability. *Environmental Quality Management*, 11(2), 1-10. DOI: 10.1002/tqem.1300
- Frost, G.R., Seamer, M. (2002). Adoption of Environmental Reporting and Management Practices: An Analysis of New South Wales Public Sector Entities. *Financial Accountability and Management*, 18(2), 103–127. DOI: 10.1111/1468-0408.00147
- Fürst, E., Oberhofer, P. (2012). Greening Road Freight Transport: Evidence from an Empirical Project in Austria. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 33, 67-73. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.05.027
- Hill, C.W., Kelley, P.C., Agle, B.R., Hitt, M.A., Hoskisson, R.E. (1992). An Empirical Examination of the Causes of Corporate Wrongdoing in the United States. *Human Relations*, 45(10), 1055-1076. DOI: 10.1177/001872679204501003
- Iraldo, F., Testa, F., Lanzini, P., Battaglia, M. (2017). Greening Competitiveness for Hotels and Restaurants. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 24 (3), 607-628. DOI: 10.1108/JSBED-12-2016-0211
- Jovanović, Đ.M., Ačimović, D.D. (2014). Environmental Issues and the Achieved Level of Media Coverage in the Republic of Serbia. *Tehnika*, 69 (2), 332-342. DOI: 10.5937/tehnika1402332J (Serbian)
- Kirk, J.L. (2010). Sustainable Environments and Pro-Environmental Behavior. *Thesis, University of Nebraska – Lincoln*.
- Kitić, B., Kostić-Stanković, M., Cvijović, J., Lečić-Cvetković, D. (2015). Environmental Aspect of Business Communications. *Management – časopis za teoriju i praksu menadžmenta*, 20 (74), 69-76. DOI: 10.7595/management.fon.2015.0004
- Kollmuss, A., Agyeman, J. (2002). Mind the Gap: Why Do People Act Environmentally and What Are the Barriers to Pro-Environmental Behavior?. *Environmental Education Research*, 8(3), 239-260. DOI: 10.1080/13504620220145401
- Li, D., Cao, C., Zhang, L., Chen, X., Ren, S., Zhao, Y. (2017). Effects of Corporate Environmental Responsibility on Financial Performance: The Moderating Role of Government Regulation and Organizational Slack. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 166, 1323–1334. DOI:10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.08.129
- Lynch, B. (2010). An Examination of Environmental Reporting by Australian State Government Departments. *Accounting Forum*, 34(1), 32-45. DOI: 10.1016/j.acf.2009.11.001
- Mihailović, D. (2012). *Metodologija naučnih istraživanja*. Beograd: FON. (Serbian)

- Mihajlović, I., Voza, D., Milošević, I., Durkalić, D. (2016). Environmental Awareness as Universal European Value. *Serbian Journal of Management*, 11(2), 149-153. DOI: 10.5937/sjm11-11245
- Mikuła, A., Raczkowska, M., Utzig, M. (2021). Pro-Environmental Behaviour in the European Union Countries. *Energies*, 14(18), 5689. DOI: 10.3390/en14185689
- Milanović, J., Kovačević, M. (2015). Analysis on Population Awareness of the Environmental Protection in the Local Community. *Trendovi u poslovanju*, 3 (1), 57-62. (Serbian) DOI: 10.5937/trendpos1501057M
- Milić, T. (2020). Environmental Awareness as Corporate Competitiveness Factor: A Research from Serbia. *XVII International Symposium SymOrg2020 – Business and Artificial Intelligence, Belgrade, Serbia, September 07-10* <http://symorg.fon.bg.ac.rs/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/SYMORG-PROCEEDINGS-FINAL-2020.pdf>
- Montalvo, C. (2008). General Wisdom Concerning the Factors Affecting the Adoption of Cleaner Technologies: A survey 1990-2007. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 16, 7-13. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2007.10.002
- Ramsey, M.J., Hungerford, H.R., Volk, L.T. (1992). Environmental Education in the K-12 Curriculum: Finding a Niche. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, 23:2, 35-45, DOI: 10.1080/00958964.1992.9942794
- Ormazabal, M., Puga-Leal, R. (2016). An Exploratory Study of UK Companies' Taxonomy Based on Environmental Drivers. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 133, 479-486. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.06.011
- Roth, C. E. (1992). *Environmental Literacy: Its Roots, Evolution and Directions in the 1990s*. Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse for Science, Mathematics, and Environmental Education.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. Edinburgh: Prentice Hall.
- Simeunović-Bajić, N., Majdarević, A., Manić, Lj. (2013). The Role of Media in the Formation of Public Opinion on the Environmental Crisis in Serbia – The Case Study of “Tužna Morava (Sad Morava).” *Teme*, 37 (4), 1935-1958. (Serbian)
- Steg, L., Vlek, C., 2009. Encouraging Pro-Environmental Behaviour: An Integrative Review and Research Agenda. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(3), 309-317. DOI: 10.1016/j.jenvp.2008.10.004
- Stevens, C. (1998). Do Environmental Policies Affect Competitiveness? *OECD Observer*, 183.
- Verma, H.V., Duggal, E. (2015). Environmental Concerns, Behavior Consistency of Emerging Market: Youth and Marketing. *Emerging Economy Studies*, 1, 171-187. DOI: 10.1177/2394901515599271
- Welman, C., Kruger, F., Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research Methodology*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Yusof, N., Abidin, N.Z., Zailani, H.M., Govindan, K., Iranmanesh, M. (2016). Linking the Environmental Practice of Construction Firms and the Environmental Behaviour of Practitioners in Construction. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 121, 64-71. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.01.090
- Zeng, S., Qin, Y., Zeng, G. (2019). Impact of Corporate Environmental Responsibility on Investment Efficiency: The Moderating Roles of the Institutional Environment and Consumer Environmental Awareness. *Sustainability*, 11, 4512. DOI: 10.3390/su11174512
- Zhao, X., Zhao, Y., Zeng, S., Zhang, S. (2015). Corporate Behavior and Competitiveness: Impact of Environmental Regulation on Chinese Firms. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 86, 311-322. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.08.074

КОРПОРАТИВНА ЕКОЛОШКА СВЕСТ И ПРОЕКОЛОШКО ПОНАШАЊЕ КАО ФАКТОРИ КОНКУРЕНТНОСТИ У СРБИЈИ: ТЕКУЋЕ СТАЊЕ РАЗВОЈА И КЉУЧНИ НОСИОЦИ

Тања Милић

Универзитет у Београду, Факултет организационих наука, Београд, Србија

Резиме

Овај емпиријски истраживачки рад даје преглед еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања као фактора конкурентности предузећа са аспекта менаџера који живе и раде у Републици Србији. Питање еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања разматрано је, осим са општег становишта менаџера, и са становишта утицаја специфичних менаџерских и организационих карактеристика испитаника, као што су пол, старост, образовање, тип насеља, сектор привреде, искуство на тренутној руководећој позицији, искуство у тренутној организацији, функција пословне организације, ниво управљања, величина пословне организације и власничка структура пословне организације.

Учесници у истраживању били су руководиоци привредних друштава која послују на територији Републике Србије. Истраживање је спроведено на узорку од 107 испитаника. Тестирање менаџера пословних организација спроведено је коришћењем квантитативних истраживачких техника путем Интернета, уз претходно добијену сагласност сваког учесника у истраживању.

Добијени резултати показују да корпоративна еколошка свест и проеколошко понашање у пословном свету Републике Србије нису достигли ниво еколошке свести српских потрошача иако су изнад просечних вредности. Ово има практичне импликације за српске менаџере, и указује на то да би менаџери требало да се фокусирају на развој и имплементацију пословних активности заснованих на принципу еколошке свести, будући да је она неискоришћени извор одрживе конкурентске предности на домаћем тржишту. Свест о животnoj средини и проеколошко понашање су до сада посебно цењене у већим организацијама, због чињенице да се веће пословне организације суочавају са озбиљнијим еколошким питањима, па самим тим морају да унапређују еколошку свест и проеколошко понашање у свакодневним пословним активностима. Остале истраживане управљачке и организационе карактеристике немају утицаја на ово питање.

Откривени јаз између еколошке свести и понашања сведочи о неопходности утврђивања и елиминисања баријера еколошки свесном пословном понашању у Републици Србији.

Тржиште и Влада, са својим политикама и законским обавезама, се појављују као важни покретачи промоције корпоративне еколошке одговорности. За сада је у Србији највећи промотер еколошки одговорног пословања тржиште, пошто држава и пословне организације имају исти ниво еколошке свести, па стога улога и утицај Владе у Србији нису значајни. Имајући на уму ову ситуацију, остаје на потрошачима да снажније утичу и на Владу Србије и на компаније како би их мотивисали да се понашају на еколошки одговорнији начин. Истраживачка импликација је да еколошка свест није довољно присутна у пословном животу Србије и у свести менаџера, па самим тим и само корпоративно проеколошко понашање, заједно са постојећим јазом између корпоративне еколошке свести и проеколошког понашања, не може достићи виши ниво. Овим се пропуштају прилике да се на основу еколошки освешћеног пословања стекне значајна конкурентска предност на тржишту Србије, а самим тим и да се остваре бољи резултати пословања.

MEASURING VAT EFFICIENCY IN VISEGRAD GROUP COUNTRIES

Jelena Andrašić, Vera Mirović, Branimir Kalaš*,
Nada Milenković, Milica Indić

University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Economics in Subotica, Subotica, Serbia

Abstract

Value added tax represents one of the main tax forms, because it generates the most revenue and greatly contributes to the budgets of many countries. The purpose of this paper is to determine the VAT efficiency level in Visegrad Group countries (Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) for the period between 1995 and 2020. The average VAT efficiency in the Visegrad region was 0.51, and this indicator improved after these economies joined the European Union. The results of this empirical research show that gross domestic product per capita, final consumption and value added tax revenue have a positive impact on VAT efficiency, as measured by the C-efficiency indicator. On the other hand, the results demonstrate that an increase in VAT rate lead to a lower level of VAT efficiency in the examined countries. Finally, the EU accession of the Visegrad region had positive implications for the productivity and efficiency of their VAT systems. The results of this study suggest that the governments of the Visegrad Group countries should focus on increasing the GDP per capita growth rate and final consumption to stimulate VAT revenue. Additionally, the policymakers of these countries can increase VAT revenue by expanding the tax base in order to avoid the negative effect that increasing the standard VAT rate has on VAT efficiency.

Key words: VAT, efficiency, panel modelling, Visegrad Group countries

МЕРЕЊЕ ЕФИКАСНОСТИ ПДВ-А У ЗЕМЉАМА ВИШЕГРАДСКЕ ГРУПЕ

Апстракт

През на додату вредност представља један од главних пореских облика јер генерише највише прихода и даје велики допринос буџету сваке земље. Сврха овог рада је да утврдити ефикасност ПДВ-а у земљама Вишеградске групе (Чешка, Мађарска, Пољска и Словачка) за временски период између 1995. и 2020. године. Просечна вредност ПДВ ефикасности је износила 0.51 у Вишеградском

* Corresponding author: Branimir Kalaš, University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Economics in Subotica, Segedinski put 9-11, 24000 Subotica, Serbia, branimir.kalas@ef.uns.ac.rs

региону, при чему је овај индикатор побољшан након придруживања ових економија Европској унији. Резултати емпиријског истраживања, добијени мерењем путем индикатора Ц-ефикасности, показују да бруто домаћи производ по глави становника, финална потрошња и приходи по основу ПДВ-а имају позитиван утицај на ПДВ ефикасност. С друге стране, резултати показују да повећање ПДВ стопе доводи до нижег нивоа ефикасности ПДВ-а у одабраним земљама. Коначно, придруживање Вишеградског региона ЕУ је имало позитивне импликације на продуктивност и ефикасност ПДВ система посматраних земаља. Емпиријски налази сугеришу да владе земаља Вишеградске групе треба да се фокусирају на већу стопу раста БДП-а по глави становника и на финалну потрошњу како би стимулисале приходе по основу ПДВ-а. Такође, креатори политика ових земаља могу повећати приходе од ПДВ-а ширењем пореске основице, како би се избегао негативан ефекат повећања стандардне ПДВ стопе на ефикасност ПДВ-а.

Кључне речи: ПДВ, ефикасност, панел моделирање, земље Вишеградске групе

INTRODUCTION

Tax collection represents an essential instrument of enabling economic stability and development (Majerová, 2016). In addition, it is the most important source of state budget revenue (Kubjatkova et al. 2021). Accordingly, increasing tax collection is crucial for economic growth and development (Gaspar et al. 2016), in line with the fact that the mobilisation of tax revenue is important for a country's development (Akitoby et al. 2018, Chang et al. 2020). Tax revenues should ensure the existence of adequate infrastructure, healthcare, education, culture, employment, social income distribution, and public safety. Dobrovič et al. 2021). In developed countries, direct taxes have a greater share in tax structure, and a higher contribution to the country's economic activity. Conversely, the tax structure of developing and underdeveloped countries is predominantly based on indirect taxes such as value added tax, sales tax and excises (Remeikiene et al. 2018). The taxation of consumption has become focused on value added taxes instead of sales taxes in most countries of the world (Sokolovska and Sokolovskyi, 2015). Furthermore, Caashin and Unayama (2021) point out that, if household consumption is very sensitive to changes in tax rates, policymakers should adjust the tax rate on consumption in order to manage aggregate demand. The role of consumption taxes is one of the most important issues in the debates about optimal tax structure related to efficiency and equity (Tóth et al. 2021). On a broader sample of data collected on 70 economies for a period of 40 years, Acosta-Ormaechea et al. (2019) confirmed that consumption taxes are more favourable for growth compared to income taxes. Kalaš et al. (2020) confirmed the long-run co-integration between VAT revenues and economic growth measured by GDP per capita. Value added tax has become the most common consumption tax in the world (Giesecke and Tran, 2012), and Keen (2013) indicates that VAT is adopted in more than

150 countries in the world, where the share of VAT revenues amounts to more than 20% of the global tax revenues. During the financial crisis of 2008, the importance of value added tax increased significantly (Adamczyk, 2015). Aizenman and Jinjark (2008) point out that VAT is tax collected throughout the production chain.

Tax is paid only on consumption within the territory of the fiscal authority, so export goods are not subject to taxation, unlike imported goods (Gurrib, 2017). Similarly, VAT is a consumption tax based on the value added to goods and services at each stage of production (Cevik et al. 2019). Based on the aforementioned, the advantages of VAT can be manifested as: no cascading of indirect taxes, compatibility with international trade, and better control mechanisms to evade taxation (Alavuotunki et al. 2018). Final consumers are exposed to the tax burden resulting from *ad valorem* and *ad unit* taxes imposed on goods to a greater degree than sellers (Dobranchi and Nerudová, 2018). The aim of this research is to analyse VAT efficiency in the Visegrad region (Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) in the period between 1995 and 2020. For this purpose, we used the CEF indicator as one of the most popular approaches to estimating VAT efficiency. The paper is divided into four segments, as follows. After the introductory segment, a review of literature on VAT efficiency is presented in order to contextualise our research, with special focus placed on the Visegrad Group countries. The segment *Methodological Framework* describes the sample and explains the methodology of calculating CER indicators. The last segment presents the final conclusions and recommendations for the policymakers of the Visegrad region, and includes the implications for further empirical researches.

LITERATURE REVIEW

VAT adoption has various effects, depending on the income level of the country, and this is especially true of developing countries where the prevalence of tax evasion is one of the main tax problems (Adhikari, 2020). The level of the VAT rate is important for consumption and price level, where the movement in VAT rate could have essential implications for inflation (Benkovskis and Fadejeva, 2014). Accordingly, Ufier (2014) confirmed that the presence of VAT causes lower inflation and government spending, as well as a higher degree of investment and growth. The VAT system has a positive implication for strengthening government discipline in collecting and managing tax revenues, as it implies that a government needs to direct public spending towards the productive sectors in order to realise rapid economic growth (Sok-Gee et al. 2017). The empirical study of Alm and El-Ganainy (2012) examined the relationship between value added tax rate and consumption in selected EU countries for the period between 1961 and 2015. Their findings show that value added

tax rate has a negative impact on consumption. On the other hand, Bikas and Malikonytė (2020) confirmed that government expenditure is the largest contributor to the VAT gap change, where a 1% growth in expenditure increases the VAT gap by 1.45%. VAT's C-efficiency shows the value of one percentage of the final consumption expenditure collected by each percentage point of the standard value added tax rate (Cnossen, 2015). When it comes to the structure of the VAT system, Kalyva et al. (2016) highlighted the economic arguments in favour of a simple value added tax system with a limited use of reduced rates. The uniform value added tax rate is very popular in non-European countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Singapore and South Africa (Abramovsky et al. 2017). Bostan et al. (2017) identified no significant relationship between VAT rate and VAT revenue, and a negative impact of VAT rate on fiscal efficiency in Romania for the period between 2006 and 2014. Zídková (2014) determined the existence of a positive relationship between final consumption and the total VAT gap in twenty-four EU countries. Empirical results showed that the total VAT gap increases by 1.07% if final consumption increases by 1%. Likewise, if GDP per capita increases by 1%, the total VAT gap drops by 1.24%. The empirical findings of Tagkalakis (2014) showed that an improvement in economic conditions enhances VAT efficiency, where a 1% increase in the GDP growth rate raises VAT efficiency by about 0.63%. Đorđević et al. (2019) determined a negative impact of value added tax rate on collection efficiency in the developing EU countries for the period between 1997 and 2017. Hodžić and Celebi (2017) investigated the C-efficiency in EU countries and Turkey between 2009 and 2013, and their findings show that the highest C-efficiency is recorded in Luxembourg (88%), while the lowest is recorded in Spain (36%), Italy (32.8%) and Greece (34%). In comparison with EU countries, in 2013, Turkey recorded a C-efficiency of 51.1%, which is similar to the C-efficiency of Austria (51.9%) and Czechia (50%). The research also shows a positive correlation between the value of the basic VAT rate, along with the number of preferential rates, and the scale of the tax gap. It implies that the tax gap is higher in countries with a higher standard VAT rate and a greater number of preferential rates (Kowal and Przekota, 2021). Analysing twenty-one OECD countries over a period between 1970 and 2018, Acosta-Ormaechea and Morozumi (2021) point out that an increase in VAT promotes long-term growth only if the value added revenues are raised through C-efficiency, but not if they are increased through the standard VAT rate. Wang et al. (2021) confirmed the existence of a significant relationship between GDP growth and tax rates in the Visegrad Group countries for the period between 1995 and 2017, while Hodroyiannis and Papaioikonomou (2020) indicated that VAT revenue and revenue efficiency increased through a greater application of card payments in the euro area in the period between 2000 and 2016. Baum et al.

(2017) determined the existence of a significant relationship between revenue collection and tax administrative capacity, while Mavungu Ngoma and Krsic (2017) did not identify any positive change in revenue related to tax administration. Ramírez-Álvarez and Carrillo-Maldonado (2020) point out that greater efficiency in taxation can be achieved by tax administration actions aimed at improving tax collection. A higher tax efficiency is crucial because it enables sufficient resources to cover public expenditure in the long term.

Since the aim of this research is to determine VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries, the obtained results will be helpful to the governments of these economies during the creation and definition of tax policies. The contribution of this paper is reflected in the fact that policy-makers can use these empirical findings as guidelines when profiling their VAT policy so as to generate and provide as much VAT revenue as possible with minimum negative implications to the economy.

THE VAT SYSTEM IN VISEGRAD GROUP COUNTRIES

In the late 1980s, political and economic changes caused breaks in the territorial structure of post-socialist countries (Koišová et al. 2019). The Visegrad Group, or V4, implies the political and cultural alliance of four economies: Czechia, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia). These countries are also members of the European Union and NATO. The goal of this alliance is to contribute to the establishment of European security, based on cooperation and coordination within existing European and transatlantic organisations (Visegrad Group, 2020). This region is trying to rise to the level of advanced EU countries, where Czechia is the most advanced of the economies within the alliance. Slovakia is classified as advanced, while Hungary and Poland are still emerging countries which are fiscally less stable than Czechia and Slovakia (Jędrzejek, 2016). The tax gap remains a challenge for many of the European Union member states, including the Visegrad Group countries (Frizis et al. 2017). During the crisis of 2008, VAT revenue losses sharply increased in Poland and Slovakia, while they remained at a relatively stable level in the Czech Republic and Hungary. In 2013, the greatest improvement in VAT was recorded in Slovakia, while the VAT gap was still increasing in Poland and Hungary (Rabatinova, 2016). The collection of VAT revenue represents, in the long term, the greatest part of the tax revenue within the budget of Slovakia (Meheš et al. 2019).

The introduction of VAT in the Visegrad region started in Hungary in 1988, and in 1993, VAT was introduced in Czechia, Poland and Slovakia. The introduced standard VAT rate was 25% in Hungary and Slovakia, 23% in Czechia and 22% in Poland. The interesting fact is that all these countries, except Slovakia, changed the standard VAT rate after a

decade, or longer. For example, Slovakia reduced the standard VAT rate from 25% to 23% after only a year, while other countries changed their standard VAT rates many years later. More specifically, the standard VAT rate in Czechia was reduced from 22% to 19% in 2004, and the standard VAT rate in Hungary was reduced from 25% to 20% in 2006. Poland is the only country which increased its standard VAT rate after the introduction of VAT into their tax system, and the rate was modified from 22% to 23% in 2011.

Value added tax was introduced in Poland in 1993 as a new construct which implied neutrality from the viewpoint of international exchange, and a number of stages in trading goods and services. Their effect on the final prices of goods and services is manifested through the elimination of cost accumulation (Kotlińska et al. 2020).

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The aim of this research is to identify which variables are essential to VAT collection in the Visegrad Group. The selected countries are Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia. The analysis covers the period between 1995 and 2020. We used the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (WB) databases for data collection.

Table 1. Variable selection

Variable	Symbol	Calculation	Source
Gross domestic product per capita	GDPpc	GDPpc at constant price – annual growth rate	IMF
Final consumption	FC	% share of GDP	WB
Standard VAT rate	VATrate	Annual rate	IMF
VAT revenues	VATrev	% share of GDP	IMF
EU accession	EUac	0 – period before EU accession, 1 – period after EU accession	Dummy variable

Source: Authors' illustration

This research is focused on identifying CEF indicators and estimating the effect of the main components, such as gross domestic product per capita (GDPpc), final consumption (FC), standard VAT rate (VATrate), value added tax revenues (VATrev) and EU accession (EUac), which is a dummy variable. Based on Tanzi and Davoodi (2000), the CER indicator, as the traditional measure of VAT collection efficiency can be expressed as:

$$\text{CER} = \frac{\text{VAT revenue/GDP}}{\text{Standard VAT rate}} \quad (1)$$

Gross domestic product (GDP) is considered to be an important economic indicator because it best reflects the performance of each econ-

omy (Ivanová and Masárová, 2018). Since we aimed to examine the impact of economic development on tax collection efficiency, we used gross domestic product per capita growth rates. A higher value of the CER indicator implies a productive VAT tax system, while a lower value points towards tax evasion, weak tax administration or extensive exemptions. The main disadvantage of this measurement is the fact that the traditional indicator includes production, but not consumption.

Accordingly, Keen (2013) highlighted the C-efficiency ratio in order to provide a better estimation of VAT efficiency collection. The optimal value of the C-efficiency ratio is 100%, but in cases of reduced VAT rates and several exemptions, the value is below 100%. Deviations from a 100% C-efficiency can arise for two reasons. Firstly, they may manifest the extent to which the VAT design differs from a uniform tax on all consumption. Secondly, the implementation and administrative activity of the tax may be less than perfect (Gendron and Bird, 2020). This indicator can be defined as:

$$CEF = \frac{V}{PV} \quad (2)$$

$$PV = svr \times (FC - V) \quad (3)$$

where V stands for realized VAT revenue, PV stands for theoretical VAT revenue, svr stands for the standard VAT rate, and FC stands for final consumption.

The explanatory variables are included on the basis of previous empirical studies (Sokolovska and Sokolovsky, 2015; Hodžić and Celebi, 2017; Đorđević, Đurović Todorović and Ristić, 2019 and Popa, 2021). VAT efficiency primarily depends on economic activity and consumption, which is consequently reflected in the collected revenues. Analysing the standard VAT rate is essential for VAT efficiency, because, if the standard VAT rate is determined to be at the appropriate level, policymakers can expect positive implications for revenue collection. Finally, the dummy variable EU accession is included in the empirical model to point out the importance of the Visegrad Group countries joining the European Union in terms of revenue collection. The inclusion of the dummy variable EU accession is a novelty compared to previous studies that have analysed VAT efficiency.

The study involves several hypotheses based on empirical research objectives, and they are as follows:

- H_1 – The GDP per capita growth rate has a positive effect on VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries;
- H_2 – Final consumption has a positive effect on VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries;
- H_3 – A higher standard VAT rate leads to lower VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries;

- H_4 – A higher level of VAT revenue leads to higher VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries; and
- H_5 – EU accession improved VAT efficiency in the Visegrad Group countries.

This empirical study includes panel modelling, such as the random-effects model, and the fixed-effects model which accounts for the time and space dimensions. The random-effect model proved to be an adequate model to evaluate the impact of explanatory variables:

$$CEF_{it} = \beta_0 + \mu_i + \beta_1 GDP_{pc_{it}} + \beta_2 FC_{it} + \beta_3 VAT_{rev_{it}} + \beta_4 VAT_{rate_{it}} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Before we determined which variables are crucial for VAT efficiency, it was necessary to estimate the level of tax collection efficiency by value added tax in these countries. The next table shows the value of the CER indicator in the Visegrad Group countries for the period between 1995 and 2020.

Table 2. CER indicator – numerator production

Year	Czechia	Hungary	Poland	Slovakia
1995	37.87%	37.94%	43.02%	36.33%
1996	38.89%	39.88%	43.31%	38.45%
1997	37.11%	41.73%	42.51%	40.86%
1998	36.76%	43.65%	41.63%	40.87%
1999	38.99%	46.11%	42.35%	40.89%
2000	38.49%	42.26%	42.73%	42.14%
2001	38.05%	40.98%	41.49%	38.51%
2002	37.09%	42.26%	41.11%	43.28%
2003	36.83%	42.13%	41.15%	46.73%
2004	50.39%	43.82%	40.65%	54.88%
2005	50.61%	42.79%	43.54%	60.18%
2006	47.59%	38.53%	42.83%	56.43%
2007	48.61%	52.04%	44.53%	58.26%
2008	50.96%	50.57%	43.41%	57.39%
2009	49.66%	55.33%	44.09%	49.55%
2010	47.35%	44.93%	43.38%	50.47%
2011	49.33%	45.09%	42.65%	46.68%
2012	50.74%	49.48%	43.20%	40.51%
2013	50.37%	44.65%	39.47%	43.41%
2014	51.73%	47.38%	38.83%	44.83%
2015	51.96%	50.09%	39.71%	46.17%
2016	52.97%	49.18%	40.91%	45.25%
2017	54.67%	50.22%	44.43%	46.64%
2018	52.21%	51.15%	46.24%	46.65%
2019	54.37%	52.44%	46.06%	45.33%
2020	52.35%	51.26%	46.36%	43.28%

Source: Authors' calculations

In order to determine the productivity of VAT revenue in the Visegrad Group countries, the analysis includes the values of the CER indicator for the period between 1995 and 2020. It can be noted that VAT revenue productivity improved during the analysed period in all countries. Looking at the final year of the observed period, Czechia and Hungary achieved a CER indicator of 52.35% and 51.46% respectively, while Poland and Slovakia recorded a CER indicator below 50%. Comparing this to the values of the indicator recorded in 1995, we can see that VAT efficiency improved by 38.24% in Czechia, 35.11% in Hungary, 7.76% in Poland, and 19.13% in Poland. This implies that VAT revenue collection rose by 25.06% on average. In regards to the effect of accession to the European Union, the results reflected that the average CER indicator was 41.35% in the period before EU accession. After the observed countries joined the EU, the average CER indicator was 47.84%, which is a significant improvement compared to the period before the Visegrad Group countries became EU member states. In order to provide information on the CER indicator trends in the selected countries, we analysed annual changes in the period between 1995 and 2020. The results show that the annual change rate was 0.6% in Czechia, 0.58% in Hungary, 0.14% in Poland, and 0.35% in Slovakia, on average. The greatest change was observed in Czechia (+13.45%) and Slovakia (8.15%) in 2003. When the Visegrad Group joined the European Union, the CER indicator decreased by 2.94% on average. The main cause of the lower value of the CER indicator is the decrease in FC, which implies a lower amount of collected VAT revenues. More specifically, FC dropped by 1.34% in the Visegrad region in 2005, while the share of VAT revenues declined by 1.36% in Czechia, and 10.08% in Hungary. With the help of Poland and Slovakia, the CER indicator did not fall further due to better revenue collection in these countries. Analysing the effect of the financial crisis of 2008 and 2009, it can be concluded that the CER indicator decreased in Czechia (-2.31%), Hungary (-10.4%) and Poland (-0.71%), but not in Slovakia (+0.92%). One of the reasons for this is the fact that final consumption increased more than the GDP growth rate. The empirical findings show that the Visegrad region had an average FC of 3.4%, compared to the GDP rate which dropped by 3.57%, on average. Observing the previous five year, it can be said that the annual change of the CER indicator was 0.52%, which reflects the stability and reliability of revenue collection by value added tax in these countries. Since this indicator is less reliable for empirical analysis, we measured the C-efficiency indicator, due to the fact that it includes consumption as a numerator.

Table 3. C-efficiency – numerator consumption

Year	Czechia	Hungary	Poland	Slovakia
1995	41.31%	41.91%	47.52%	39.96%
1996	42.52%	44.30%	47.89%	42.18%
1997	40.41%	46.59%	46.89%	45.10%
1998	39.99%	49.00%	45.83%	45.11%
1999	42.65%	52.11%	46.69%	45.14%
2000	42.05%	47.25%	47.16%	46.66%
2001	41.51%	45.66%	45.65%	42.24%
2002	40.39%	47.08%	45.19%	48.06%
2003	40.08%	49.21%	45.25%	51.55%
2004	55.73%	47.91%	44.64%	61.26%
2005	55.99%	42.64%	48.16%	67.95%
2006	52.32%	58.09%	47.29%	63.21%
2007	53.56%	56.26%	49.37%	65.51%
2008	56.43%	62.22%	47.99%	64.42%
2009	54.84%	50.61%	48.82%	54.70%
2010	52.31%	50.81%	47.97%	55.82%
2011	54.73%	56.46%	47.29%	51.48%
2012	56.47%	50.77%	47.97%	44.08%
2013	56.34%	54.34%	43.41%	47.53%
2014	58.03%	57.92%	42.64%	49.25%
2015	58.33%	56.71%	43.70%	50.87%
2016	59.59%	56.28%	45.15%	49.75%
2017	61.76%	58.09%	49.49%	51.45%
2018	58.64%	59.34%	51.74%	51.46%
2019	61.38%	61.09%	51.51%	49.85%
2020	58.82%	59.49%	51.90%	47.38%

Source: Authors' calculation

After identifying the productivity of VAT revenue, we measured VAT revenue efficiency using the C-efficiency ratio in selected countries (Table). Similarly to VAT production, we can see that VAT efficiency rose in the Visegrad region in the period between 1995 and 2020. At the beginning of the observed period, i.e. in 1995, the average value of C-efficiency was 42.68%, with the highest value recorded in Poland (47.52%) and the lowest value recorded in Slovakia (39.96%). If we compare these values with the C-efficiency level in 2020, the results show an average value of 54.40% in the Visegrad region, which marks and improvement of 11.72%. Looking at the data for individual countries for the year 2020, it can be said that the highest improvement was recorded in Czechia (17.51%) and Hungary (17.58%), while C-efficiency increased by 4.37% in Poland, and by 7.42% in Slovakia. We already saw that EU accession had positive implications for VAT productivity in the Visegrad Group countries, and these findings can be applied to the VAT efficiency for this region. Namely, the average C-efficiency was 45.69% in the peri-

od before EU accession (1995-2004), but after these economies joined the European Union (2005-2020), the average C-efficiency was 53.59%, which marks a growth of 7.9%. Looking at the data for individual countries, Czechia reaped the greatest benefits of EU accession because its C-efficiency increased by 14.18%, which is far more than was the case with the other three countries. For example, Hungary and Slovakia increased their C-efficiency by 8.59% and 7.32%, while C-efficiency increased by only 1.5% on average. We can conclude that the highest values of the C-efficiency indicator were recorded in Czechia (58.82%) and Hungary (59.49%), while Poland's C-efficiency recorded a value of 51.9% at the end of 2020. On the other hand, the C-efficiency indicator was below 50% in Slovakia, and amounted to 47.38%.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics

Country	C-efficiency	GDPpc	FC	VAT/GDP	VAT rate
Czechia					
Mean	0.52	2.27	68.51	6.55	20.77
Std. Dev.	0.08	3.32	1.74	0.69	1.18
Minimum	0.4	-6.18	65.18	5.61	19
Maximum	0.62	7.82	71.82	7.59	22
Hungary					
Mean	0.53	2.58	73.66	8.51	25.11
Std. Dev.	0.06	4.01	2.88	0.79	2.10
Minimum	0.42	-6.57	68.76	7.28	20
Maximum	0.63	5.57	79.33	9.8	27
Poland					
Mean	0.47	4.02	79.68	7.61	22.38
Std. Dev.	0.02	2.18	2.54	0.29	0.49
Minimum	0.43	-2.51	75.52	7	22
Maximum	0.52	7.15	85.15	8.1	23
Slovakia					
Mean	0.51	3.58	75.29	7.15	20.73
Std. Dev.	0.08	3.56	2.07	0.54	1.81
Minimum	0.4	-5.57	71.37	6	19
Maximum	0.68	10.83	79.72	8.4	25
Total					
Mean	0.51	3.11	74.28	7.46	22.25
Std. Dev.	0.06	3.09	4.63	0.93	2.33
Minimum	0.4	-6.57	65.18	5.61	19
Maximum	0.68	10.83	85.15	9.8	27

Source: Authors' calculations

Based on the results of the descriptive analysis, the Visegrad region achieved an average C-efficiency of 51%, where Czechia, Hungary and Slovakia recorded values above 50%. On the other hand, C-efficiency was 47% in Poland, which is below the average level of the Visegrad re-

gion for the observed period. The maximum value of the CER indicator was observed in Slovakia (68%) in 2005, while the lowest value was 36.33% in 1995. If we analyse the average growth of GDP per capita in the Visegrad region, we can conclude that it was 3.11%, wherein Poland and Slovakia recorded a growth rate above 3%, on average. The average share of final consumption was 74.28% of the GDP, where Poland had the highest level of FC (79.68%) compared to other countries in the Visegrad region. Looking at VAT performance in terms of collected revenues and defined rates, we can see that the mean share of VAT revenues was 7.46% of the GDP, while the average standard rate was 22.25%. Hungary had the highest mean standard VAT rate of 25.1%, which is more than the average VAT rate in the Visegrad region. Similarly, the average standard VAT rate of Poland is 22.38%, which is greater than the average of Czechia and Slovakia, where the VAT rate for the observed period was around 21% on average.

Table 5. Correlation analysis

Variables	CEF	GDPpc	FC	VATrate	VATrev	EUac
CEF	1.000					
GDPpc	0.086* (0.037)	1.000				
FC	0.438* (0.000)	0.113* (0.000)	1.000			
VATrate	-0.314* (0.001)	-0.032 (0.745)	0.102 (0.443)	1.000		
VATrev	0.429* (0.000)	0.322* (0.000)	0.157 (0.563)	0.217 (0.818)	1.000	
EUac	0.603* (0.000)	0.166 (0.145)	0.218 (0.391)	-0.193* (0.049)	0.264* (0.006)	1.000

Source: Authors' calculations

After presenting descriptive statistics, we used correlation analysis in order to examine the type of relationship between the selected variables. The results show a significant relationship between the explanatory variables and the CEF indicator, where GDPpc, FC, VATrev and EUac have a positive effect on the CEF indicator. On the other hand, there is a negative correlation between VATrate and the CEF indicator, which implies that a higher VAT rate lowers VAT collection in the observed countries. The empirical findings suggest that a higher GDP per capita growth and final consumption improve VAT collection through higher VAT revenues, without increasing the VAT rate. If these governments lower the VAT rate, it could have positive implications for the CEF indicator in the observed economies.

Table 6. Panel unit root tests

Panels contain unit roots						
Panels are stationary						
Variables	LLC test	P-value	Breitung test	P-value	Harris-Tzavalis test	P-value
CEF	-3.26	0.126	-1.15	0.125	0.75	0.008
Δ CEF	-7.61	0.000	-5.47	0.000	-0.11	0.000
GDPpc	-5.52	0.158	-2.87	0.000	0.31	0.000
Δ GDPpc	-8.66	0.000	-6.56	0.000	-0.30	0.000
FC	-2.87	0.353	-1.73	0.042	0.78	0.032
Δ FC	-7.93	0.000	-4.14	0.000	-0.07	0.000
VATrate	-2.81	0.314	-0.39	0.347	0.79	0.043
Δ VATrate	-3.68	0.000	-3.71	0.000	0.03	0.000
VATrev	-2.54	0.219	-0.35	0.363	0.84	0.186
Δ VATrev	-9.21	0.000	-6.51	0.000	-0.16	0.000

Source: Authors' calculations

In order to provide information about stationarity, we applied the LLC, Breitung and Harris-Tzavalis tests to the sample of four panels (Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia).

Table 7. Different panel models

Variable	Random-effects model (1)	Fixed-effects model (2)	GMM estimator (3)
Δ GDPpc	0.131 (0.000)	0.425 (0.000)	0.115 (0.000)
Δ FC	0.245 (0.000)	0.183 (0.000)	0.122 (0.000)
Δ VATrate	-1.637 (0.000)	-1.628 (0.000)	-1.611 (0.000)
Δ VATrev	4.692 (0.000)	4.626 (0.000)	4.647 (0.000)
EUac	0.178 (0.000)	0.104 (0.026)	0.151 (0.000)
R-squared	0.729	0.538	
Model validity	0.000	0.000	0.000
Hausman test		6.54 (0.218)	
Arellano-Bond test for AR(1) in first differences		-0.26 0.043	
Arellano-Bond test for AR(2) in first differences		-1.37 0.171	
Sargan test		13.71 0.346	

Source: Authors' calculations

The results of the implemented tests show that all variables are stationary at first difference, at a significance level of 0.05. After identifying the level of stationarity, the following table shows various panel models such as the random-effects model and the fixed-effects model.

Based on the value of the Hausman test (0.218), it can be concluded that the random-effects model is an appropriately constructed model. The results of the random-effects model show a significant impact of the explanatory variables on the CEF indicators in the observed countries. More specifically, GDP has a positive effect on the CEF indicator, where a 1% increase in GDP per capita enables the CEF indicator to increase by 0.13%. Furthermore, FC has a greater impact on the CER indicator compared to GDPpc, where a 1% growth of this predictor enables the CEF indicator to grow by 0.25%. The predictor VATrev causes the most change in the CEF indicator, where a 1% increase in VATrev leads to a CEF indicator growth of 4.69% for the observed period. Finally, the EU accession of the Visegrad region had positive effects on tax revenues, and improved tax collection in terms of value added tax revenue. Conversely, the VAT rate has a negative impact on CEF, where a 1% increase in the standard VAT rate lowers the CEF by 1.64%. The reliability of these findings can be confirmed by a very high value of R-squared (0.729). Bearing in mind that the empirical model includes VAT revenues as an explanatory variable, which may trigger a potential endogeneity problem since VAT efficiency also affects VAT revenue collection, we additionally introduced the results of the GMM estimator in order to reach appropriate theoretical and empirical interpretations and conclusions. The results of the GMM estimator show the significant effects of the explanatory variables on VAT efficiency, which is similar to the results of the RE and FE models. The values of Sargan and serial-correlation tests show that there is no evidence of miss-specification and autocorrelation at conventional levels of significance.

The results of cross-country analysis indicate that the growth of selected predictors, with the exception of VATrate, increased CER indicators in the Visegrad region. More specifically, a 1% growth of GDPpc contributes to the increase of CEF indicators by 0.31% (Czechia), 0.23% (Hungary), 0.18% (Poland) and 0.18% (Slovakia). Furthermore, the growth of FC has a greater impact on the CEF indicator compared to GDPpc, which can be explained with the fact that indirect taxes, i.e. VAT, generate the most revenue in the budget of the observed countries. A higher level of VATrev enhances the CEF indicator in the Visegrad region, where a 1% increase in VATrev leads to improved VAT collection, by 5.18% (Czechia), 4.89% (Hungary), 3.97% (Poland) and 3.78% (Slovakia).

Table 8. Cross country modelling

Variables	Coefficient	Estimating effect to CEF
ΔGDPpc		+1%
Czechia	0.313	↑ 0.31%
Hungary	0.225	↑ 0.23%
Poland	0.185	↑ 0.18%
Slovakia	0.123	↑ 0.12%
ΔFC		+1%
Czechia	0.694	↑ 0.69%
Hungary	0.663	↑ 0.66%
Poland	0.554	↑ 0.55%
Slovakia	0.546	↑ 0.55%
$\Delta\text{VATrate}$		+1%
Czechia	-2.465	↓ 2.47%
Hungary	-2.216	↓ 2.22%
Poland	-2.214	↓ 2.14%
Slovakia	-2.131	↓ 2.13%
ΔVATrev		+1%
Czechia	5.176	↑ 5.18%
Hungary	4.891	↑ 4.89%
Poland	3.968	↑ 3.97%
Slovakia	3.783	↑ 3.78%
EUac		Benefit of EUac
Czechia	0.299	↑ 0.3%
Hungary	0.168	↑ 0.17%
Poland	0.127	↑ 0.13%
Slovakia	0.094	↑ 0.09%

Source: Authors' calculation

Conversely, a higher level of VATrate lowers the CEF indicator in the observed countries, which implies that the governments of these countries should expand their tax base instead of increasing their VAT rates in order to collect more VAT revenues. These findings show that a 1% increase in VATrate reduces the CEF indicator in the Visegrad region by 2.47% (Czechia), 2.22% (Hungary), 2.14% (Poland) and 2.13% (Slovakia). Finally, these results show that the Visegrad region had positive implications for the European Union integration in terms of value added tax collection.

CONCLUSION

This paper investigated VAT revenue collection in Visegrad Group countries (Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) for the period between 1995 and 2020. This empirical study measured the VAT systems in these countries in terms of productivity (CER indicator) and efficiency

(CEF indicator), and estimated the effect of predictors such as gross domestic product per capita, final consumption, VAT revenue and VAT rate on VAT efficiency. Bearing in mind that the Visegrad region joined the European Union in 2004, this research includes data from the periods before and after EU accession as a dummy variable. The results of the chosen random-effects model showed that GDPpc has a positive impact on the CEF indicator, where a 1% increase in GDPpc contributes to a 0.13% growth of the CEF. Similarly, FC positively affected the CEF indicator in the observed countries, where a 1% growth in FC improved the CEF by 0.25%. These findings confirmed that hypotheses H_1 and H_2 can be accepted, because GDPpc and FC have positive effects on the CEF. A higher level of VAT revenue leads to a greater level of CEF, where a 1% growth in VAT revenue raises the CEF by 4.69%. On the other hand, a change in VATrate has negative implications for the CEF, where a 1% increase in the standard VAT rate decreases the CEF by 1.64% in the Visegrad region. This means that hypotheses H_3 and H_4 can be accepted, because VATrev positively affects the CEF indicator, while VATrate negatively affects the CEF indicator. Finally, EU accession improved VAT efficiency in the Visegrad region, which implies that H_5 can be accepted. Empirical results show that the governments of the observed countries should focus on achieving the growth of GDP per capita and a greater final consumption in order to stimulate VAT revenue and generate a budget through indirect taxation. Bearing in mind the identified negative effect of the VAT rate on VAT efficiency, fiscal authority can increase VAT revenue by expanding the tax base in order to avoid the refusal impact of a higher VAT rate on revenue collection. In cases in which governments lower the standard VAT rate, countries could face a lower level of collected revenue in the short-term, but the long-term effect will be positive for the economy of the Visegrad region. The results of a cross-country comparison showed that a change in the selected variables leads to a greater change in VAT efficiency in Czechia and Hungary compared to Poland and Slovakia. Future research should focus on Central and South East European countries in order to measure the VAT efficiency in these economies and compare it with the Visegrad region.

REFERENCES

- Abramovsky, L., Phillips, D., & Warwick, R. (2017). *Redistribution, Efficiency and the Design of VAT: A Review of the Theory and Literature*. IFS Briefing Note BN212; The Institute for Fiscal Studies: London, United Kingdom.
- Acosta-Ormaechea, S., Sola, S., & Yoo, J. (2019). Tax composition and growth: A broad cross-country perspective. *German Economic Review*, 20, 1-37. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10797-021-09681-2>
- Acosta-Ormaechea, S., & Morozumi, A. (2021). The value-added tax and growth: design matters. *International Tax and Public Finance*, 28, 1211-1241. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10797-021-09681-2>

- Adamczyk, A. (2015). Fiscal Efficiency of VAT in EU Member States. *Eurasian Journal of Economics and Finance*, 3(2), 23-29. <https://doi.org/10.15604/ejef.2015.03.02.003>
- Adhikari, B. (2020). Does a value-added tax increase economic efficiency? *Economic Inquiry*, 58, 496–517. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecin.12847>
- Aizenman, J. & Jinjara, Y. (2008). The collection efficiency of the Value Added Tax: Theory and international trade. *The Journal of International Trade & Economic Development*, 17(3), 391-410. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09638190802137059>
- Akitoby, B., Baum, A., Clay, H., Harrison, O., Primus, K., & Salins, V. (2019). Tax revenue mobilization episodes in developing countries. *Policy Design and Practice*, 3(1), 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.1080/25741292.2019.1685729>
- Alavuotunki, K., Haapanen, M., & Pirttilä, J. (2018). The Effects of the Value-Added Tax on Revenue and Inequality. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 55(4), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2017.1400015>
- Alm, J., & El-Ganainy, A. (2012). Value-added taxation and consumption. *International Tax and Public Finance*, 20(1), 105-128. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10797-012-9217-0>
- Baum, A., Gupta, S., Kimani, E., & Tapsoba, S.J. (2017). Corruption, Taxes and Compliance. *IMF Working Paper 17/255*. International Monetary Fund, Washington, D. C.
- Benkovskis, K., Fadejeva, L., & Kalnberzina, K. (2012). Price setting behaviour in Latvia: Econometric evidence from CPI micro data, *Economic Modelling*, 29(6), 2115-2124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2012.07.003>
- Bikas, E., & Malikonytė, G. (2020). Assessment of factors determining VAT GAP: A case study of Lithuania. *Journal of Security and Sustainability Issues*, 10(1), [https://doi.org/10.9970/jssi.2020.10.1\(3\)](https://doi.org/10.9970/jssi.2020.10.1(3))
- Bostan, I., Popescu, C., Istrate, C., & Robu, I.B. (2017). The Impact of Taxation of the Domestic Economic Transactions on the Vat Collection Through Electronic Fiscal Devices. *Amfiteatru Economic*, 19(45), 581-594.
- Cashin, D., Unayama, T. (2021). The Spending and Consumption Response to a VAT Rate Increase. *National Tax Journal*, 74(2), 313-346. <https://doi.org/10.1086/714368>
- Cevik, S., Gottschalk, J., Hutton, E., Jaramillo, L., Karnane, P., Sow, M. (2019). Structural transformation and tax efficiency. *International Finance*, 22(3), 341-379, <https://doi.org/10.1111/inf.12346>
- Chang, E.S., Gavin, E., Guerogouiev, N., Honda, J., & Baer, K. (2020). *Raising Tax Revenue: How to Get More from Tax Administrations?* IMF WP, 142, 1-42. Washington, D.C. <https://doi.org/10.5089/9781513550831.001>
- Cnossen, S. (2015). Mobilizing VAT revenues in African countries. *International Tax and Public Finance*, 22(6), 1077-1108. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10797-015-9348-1>
- Dobranschi, M., & Nerudová, D. (2018). Tax collision: the effect of VAT and excise duties on the retail price of unleaded gasoline. *Ekonomický časopis*, 66(7), 643-664.
- Dobrović, J., Rajnoha, R., & Šuler, P. (2021). Tax evasion in the EU countries following a predictive analysis and a forecast model for Slovakia. *Oeconomica Copernicana*, 12(3), 701-728. <https://doi.org/oc.2021.023>
- Dorđević, M., Đurović Todorović, J. & Ristić, M. (2019). Improving performance of VAT system in developing EU countries: Estimating the determinants of the ratio C-efficiency in the period 1997-2017. *Facta Universitatis Series: Economics and Organization*, 16(3), 239-254. <https://doi.org/10.22190/FUEO1903239D>
- Frizis, I., Glowacki, K., & Hoskova, K. (2017). *Mutual Learning for Reducing Tax Gaps in V4 Countries and Ukraine Final Report*. CASE Reports, No. 490. Center for Social and Economic Research, Warsaw.
- Gaspar, V., Jaramilo, L., & Wingender, P. (2016). Tax Capacity and Growth: Is There a Tipping Point? *IMF Working Paper 16/234*, International Monetary Fund, Washington D.C.

- Gendron, P., & Bird, R.M. (2020). *VAT Gaps in Developing Countries: Measurement, Administration and Politics*, available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3696578>
- Giesecke, J. & Tran, N.H. (2012). A general framework for measuring VAT compliance rates. *Applied Economics*, 44(15), 1867-1889. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2011.554382>
- Gurrib, I. (2017). An assessment of the potential VAT revenue collection for the United Arab Emirates. *Macroeconomics and Finance in Emerging Market Economies*, 10(3), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17520843.2017.1321028>
- Hodžić, S., & Celebi, H. (2017). Value added tax and its efficiency: EU-28 and Turkey. *UTMS Journal of Economics*, 8(2), 79-90
- Hondroyannis, G. & Papoikonou, D. (2020). The effect of card payments on VAT revenue in the euro area: evidence from a panel VECM. *Journal of Economic Studies*, 47(6), 1281-1306. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jes-03-2019-0138>
- Ivanová, E., & Masárová, J. (2018). Performance evaluation of the Visegrad Group countries. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 31(1): 270-289. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2018.1429944>
- Jędrzejek, C. (2016). VAT Fraud in Selected European Union Countries and ITS Possible Macroeconomic Implications. *Risk Management in Public Administration*. 411-432. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-30877-7_14
- Kalaš, B., Mirović, V., & Andrašić, J. (2020). Cointegration analysis of indirect taxes and economic growth in the Republic of Serbia. *The Annals of the Faculty of Economics in Subotica*, 56(44), 03-10. <https://doi.org/10.5937/AnEkSub2044003K>
- Kalyva, A., Naudts, H., & Princen, S (2016). *The French VAT System and Revenue Efficiency*; Economic Briefs; Publications Office of the European Union: Luxembourg.
- Keen, M. (2013). The Anatomy of the VAT. *IMF Working paper WP13/111*. International Monetary Fund. Washington D.C.
- Koišová, E., Grmanová, E., Škrovánková, K., Kostrová, J. (2019). Competitiveness of Regions in the Visegrad Group Countries. *Inžinerine Ekonomika – Engineering Economics*, 30(2), 203-210. <https://doi.org/10.5755/j01.ee.30.2.21746>
- Kotlińska, J., Zukowski, M., Marzec, P, Kušpit, J., & Błasiak, Z.A. (2020). Household Consumption and VAT Revenue in Poland. *European Research Studies Journal*, 20(3), 580-605.
- Kowal, A., Przekota, G. (2021). VAT Efficiency – A Discussion on the VAT System in the European Union. *Sustainability*, 13(9), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13094768>
- Kubjatkova, A., Krizanova, A. & Jurickova, V. (2021). *Value Added Tax and Its Influence on Pricing and Price Decision Making of Companies – A Case Study*. SHS Web on Conferences 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20219101009>
- Majerová, I. (2016). The impact of some variables on the VAT gap in the member states of the European Union company. *Oeconomia Copernicana*, 7(3), 339–355. <https://doi.org/10.12775/OeC.2016.020>
- Mavungu Ngoma, M., & Krsic, K. (2017). Assessing the impact of tax administration reforms in Sub-Saharan Africa, *MPRA Paper No. 89275*, München. <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/89275/>
- Mehes, M., Stašková, S., & Lukáč, J. (2019). Effectiveness of VAT collection in the Slovak Republic. *Acta Oeconomica Cassoviensia*, 12(1), 45-52.
- Rabatinova, M. (2016). *VAT evasion in Visegrad countries*. Scientific Conference on Social Sciences and Arts, SGEM Conference Proceedings, 685-694. <https://doi.org/10.5593/SGEMSOCIAL/2016/B23/S06.086>
- Ramírez-Álvarez, J., & Carrillo-Maldonado, P. (2020). Indicator of the efficiency of value added tax and income tax collection in Ecuador. *CEPAL Review* 131, 70-86.

- Remeikiene, R., Rozsa, Z., Gaspareniene, L., Chadysas, V., & Ginevicius, R. (2018). Regional Estimates of the Shadow Economy in Lithuania. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, 29(4), 386-396. <https://doi.org/10.5755/j01.ee.29.4.19438>
- Sok-Gee, C., Zulkuffly, R., & Mohd Zaini Abd, K. (2017). Government Spending Efficiency on Economic Growth: Roles of Value-added Tax. *Global Economic Review*, 46(2), 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1226508X.2017.1292857>
- Sokolovska, O., & Sokolovskyi, D. (2015). VAT efficiency in the countries worldwide. *Munich Personal RePEc Archive, MPRA Paper No. 66422*, available at: <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/66422/>
- Tagkalakis, A. (2014). The determinants of VAT revenue efficiency: recent evidence from Greece. *Bank of Greece Eurosystem, Working Paper 181*.
- Tanzi, V., & Davoodi, H.R. (2000). Corruption, Growth, and Public Finances. *IMF Working Paper 00/182*, International Monetary Fund, Washington D.C.
- Tóth, P., Cupák, A., & Rizov, M. (2021). Measuring the Efficiency of VAT Reforms: A Demand System Simulation Approach, *Oxford Economic Papers*, University Press, Oxford, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oeq/gpaa052>
- Ufier, A. (2014). Quasi-experimental analysis on the effects of adoption of a value added tax. *Economic Inquiry*, 52, 1364–1379. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecin.12099>
- Visegrad Group. (2021). *About the Visegrad Group*. retrieved from <http://www.visegradgroup.eu>
- Wang, L., Rousek, P., & Haškova, S. (2021). Laffer Curve – A comparative study across the V4 (Visegrad) countries. *Entrepreneurship and Sustainability Issues*, 9(2), 433-445. [https://doi.org/10.9770/jesi.2021.9.2\(28\)](https://doi.org/10.9770/jesi.2021.9.2(28))
- Zídková, H. (2014). Determinants of VAT gap in EU. *Prague Economic Papers*, 23(4), 514-530. <https://doi.org/10.18267/j.pap.496>

МЕРЕЊЕ ЕФИКАСНОСТИ ПДВ-А У ЗЕМЉАМА ВИШЕГРАДСКЕ ГРУПЕ

Јелена Андрашић, Вера Мировић, Бранимир Калаш,
Нада Миленковић, Милица Инђић

Универзитет у Новом Саду, Економски факултет у Суботици, Суботица, Србија

Резиме

Порез на додату вредност представља један од најважнијих пореских облика у светској економији. У оквиру теоријске и емпиријске анализе ефикасности пореза на додату вредност, потврђено је да су земље Вишеградског региона (Чешка, Мађарска, Пољска и Словачка) побољшале наплату пореза на додату вредност након придруживања Европској унији. Мерење ПДВ ефикасности путем индикатора Ц-ефикасности показало је да емпиријски налази указују на то да бруто домаћи производ по глави становника, финална потрошња и приходи по основу ПДВ-а имају позитиван утицај на ПДВ. Емпиријска студија предлаже владама земаља Вишеградске групе да се фокусирају на већу стопу раста БДП-а по глави становника и финалну потрошњу како би стимулисале приходе на основу ПДВ-а. Истовремено, креатори политика ових економија могу генерисати веће приходе од ПДВ-а ширењем пореске основице у односу на повећање стандардне ПДВ стопе које доприноси смањењу ПДВ ефикасности.

THE POSSIBILITY OF PROMOTING THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF SERBIA THROUGH A CULTURAL ROUTE OF FORTIFIED TOWNS

Miloš Marjanović^{1*}, Rastko S. Marković², Nemanja Tomić¹,
Ninoslav Golubović², Zlatko Langović³, Aleksandar R. Radivojević²

¹University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Sciences, Novi Sad, Serbia

²University of Niš, Faculty of Sciences, Niš, Serbia

³University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Hotel Management and Tourism
Vrnjačka Banja, Vrnjačka Banja, Serbia

Abstract

The promotion of fortified towns, as Serbia's significant cultural heritage, represents a major element of tourism development. The main goals of this paper are to highlight the tourism potential of fortifications in Serbia and to investigate the prospect of creating a cultural route of fortified towns. The route is comprised of six fortresses. This article applies CREM (Cultural Route Evaluation Model) to assess the tourism potential of fortified towns and the possibility of linking them in a thematic route. The CREM model provided principal information about the possibilities of developing cultural routes, and details about the sites' requirements. Furthermore, it identified the main areas in need of improvement at each fortress to be visited by a substantial number of tourists in the upcoming period.

Key words: Cultural tourism, Serbia, fortress, Cultural route, cultural heritage evaluation, CREM model

МОГУЋНОСТ ПРОМОЦИЈЕ КУЛТУРНОГ НАСЛЕЂА СРБИЈЕ КРОЗ КУЛТУРНУ РУТУ УТВРЂЕНИХ ГРАДОВА

Апстракт

Промоција утврђених градова, као значајног културног наслеђа Србије, представља битан елемент развоја туризма. Основни циљ овог рада је да укаже на туристички потенцијал утврђења у Србији и да истражи могућности за креирање културне руте утврђених градова. Рута се састоји од шест тврђава. Применом

* Corresponding author: Miloš Marjanović, University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Sciences, Trg Dositeja Obradovića 3, 21102 Novi Sad, Serbia, milos.marjanovic@mail.com

CREM (Cultural Route Evaluation Model), izvršena je procena mogućnosti za kreiranje kulturne rute utvrđenih gradova u Srbiji. Evaluacioni model CREM je pružio osnovne informacije o mogućnostima razvoja kulturne rute i ukazao je na glavne nedostatke turističkog razvoja svakog lokaliteta. U radu je ukazano na pojedinosti koje treba unaprediti, kako bi tvrđave bile turistički atraktivnije i pravilnije velem broju turista u predstojećem periodu.

Кључне речи: Културни туризам, Србија, тврђаве, културне руте, вредновање културног наслеђа, CREM

INTRODUCTION

The cultural tourism phenomenon has rapidly grown in the past thirty years (Richards, 2018), as tourists are looking for a new and authentic experience (Božić & Tomić, 2016; McKercher, 2020). Cultural heritage (CH) attractions are visited by many tourists every year (Chen & Huang, 2018). Interest in it is increasing all over the world, and it will continue to grow in the future (World Tourism Organization, 2018). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) presented the definition of CH as the legacy of physical artefacts and intangible attributes of a group or society that are inherited from past generations, maintained in the present, and bestowed for the benefit of future generations (Santa & Tiatko, 2019).

In the past few years, new tourism trends have emerged, and creative tourism is amongst the most popular and fastest-growing trends (Czifra, Pálinkás, Márkus, Szkaliczki, Veres, & Weisz, 2019). The development of themed routes, as tourist attractions of creative tourism, has achieved great popularity in the recent period, particularly in Europe (Meyer, 2004; Božić & Tomić, 2016). Cultural routes (CR), as one type of themed routes, provide visitors with a new form of cultural participation (Bogacz-Wojtanowska & Goral, 2018). The CR is a phrase that represents a unique and specific cultural tourism product of creative tourism that thematically links together different attractions and interesting destination points in (the) region/s or (the) country/ies, providing an innovative idea for travel experiences (Graf & Popesku, 2016). Thematically connected tourism can join tourist attractions to promote them more successfully under a theme amalgam, and can improve their management and preservation (Stoddart & Rogerson, 2009; Timothy & Boyd, 2006).

Serbia is a country with a great history. Many conquerors ruled this territory in the past, because of its favourable position on the crossroads to the East and the West. Every one of them left behind a small part of their culture, and now, Serbia is a country with a great and diverse CH. Serbia has been one of the members of the Council of Europe since 2012, and it has eight certified CR so far, such as the *European Route of Jewish Heritage*, *Transromanica*, the *European Cemeteries Route*, the *Réseau*

*Art Nouveau Network, the Roman Emperors and Danube Wine Route, the European Route of Industrial Heritage, the Iron Curtain Trail, and the Women Writers Route*¹.

The main goals of this paper are to highlight the tourism potential of fortifications in Serbia, and to investigate the prospect of creating a CR of fortified towns. For this research, the tourism development potential of six fortifications was evaluated in order to create a CR, and sustain the development of tourism products. The research included fortifications in Novi Sad, Belgrade, Smederevo, Ram, Golubac, and Niš. The selected fortifications were evaluated by using the CREM model (Božić & Tomić, 2016) for the evaluation of CR. The obtained results should reveal the possibility for the creation of a CR of fortified towns in the Republic of Serbia. The model will also uncover possible issues for further tourism activation and the development of evaluated fortifications.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The cultural route represents a new framework for presenting CH (Berti, 2015), as it connects visitors, residents, and their tangible or intangible CH (Czifra et al., 2019). These corridors can inspire the local community to disseminate their culture by raising their perception of the cultural assets' importance (Božić & Tomić, 2016). A CR is a tool that supports the conservation of the CH, and the sustainability of travel and tourism (Bogacz-Wojtanowska, Góral, & Bugdol, 2019). Routes seem to be especially beneficial for the economic development of regions, as they largely contribute to the establishment of small and medium enterprises (SME), the development of cultural tourism products and services, as well as the evolution of new partnership models and cooperation between many stakeholders in a particular area (Meyer, 2004; Lourens, 2007). They contribute to improving the place, environmental quality, and heritage conservation, but they also lead to the exploitation of resources and the creation of commercial pressure (Rakocija, 2013).

The cultural routes' potential for the promotion of tourism destinations and their potential in increasing the destinations' competitiveness has been recognised worldwide (Pattanaro & Pistocchi, 2016). The particular importance of CRs was seen after World War II, when they became the main tool of enhancing social cohesion. European CRs were created by the Council of Europe to implement the principles of the European Cultural Convention, which are: the promotion and preservation of cultural values; raising awareness of European culture through travel;

¹ <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/serbia>, Accessed on 23/09/22

the encouragement of cultural, social, and economic development; and the improvement of the residents' life quality (Severo, 2017).

The first CR program of the Council of Europe was officially presented in 1987, and its aim was to protect the Camino de Santiago Pilgrim Way; thus, this is the first example of a European Cultural Route. The establishment of the European Institute of Cultural Routes (EICR) as a technical body in 1998 was of particular importance. The Institute was a product of the collaboration between the Council of Europe and the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg (Ministry of Culture, Higher Education and Research), and is located in the Centre Culturel de Rencontre - Abbaye de Neumünster in Luxembourg. The role of EICN is to monitor certified CR, to evaluate and give advice to candidate networks, to provide advice and assistance to routes networks, and to archive information documents. The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe initiated an Enlarged Partial Agreement (EPA) in 2010, so as to enable the collaboration between stakeholders interested in the management of CR, and to strengthen the program politically and financially. The EPA strengthens the function of CR as a tool for international cooperation. According to the EPA, European Cultural Routes are defined as:

cultural, educational heritage and tourism cooperation project aiming at the development and promotion of an itinerary or a series of itineraries based on a historic route, a cultural concept, figure or phenomenon with transnational importance and significance for the understanding and respect of common European values.

(Council of Europe, 2011, p. 10)

The European Institute of Cultural Routes has certified 45 CR in Europe so far, and several others are currently applying for certification².

There are numerous studies on castle and fortress tourism. Some of them represented fortresses as potential tourism destinations (Sharma, 2008; Sarmiento, 2010; Zaras-Januskiewicz, Botwina, Żarska, Swoczyna, & Krupa, 2020; Morar et al, 2020; Muzaini, Teo, & Yeoh, 2007), others represented them as potential cultural routes (Gajete, Rojas, & Millán, 2018; Belij, Ilinčić, Belij, & Belij, 2014; Sanches, Secomandi, Scherer, & de Castro, 2009), and management strategies for sustainable use (Benfield, 2001; Song, Park, & Kim, 2020; Radosavljević & Kuletin-Čulafić, 2019; Song & Kim, 2018; Marina, Muntean, & Stefani, 2009), their interpretation (Koo, Kim, Kim, Kim, & Cha, 2019), tourists' experience (Boateng, Okoe, & Hinson, 2018) or valorisation (Lečić, Mitković, & Manić, 2018; Stanojlović, Ćurčić, & Pavlović, 2010).

² <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/by-theme>, Accessed on 23/09/22

STUDY AREA

The favourable strategic position of the Balkans was interesting to many empires in the past. This territory was ruled, for a long or short period of time, first by the Romans, then by the Byzantines, the Ottomans, the Austrians, and, finally, the Serbs. The period of the Middle Ages was characterised by an unstable political situation, and a lot of military action took place on this territory. Fortified towns were strategically important points with a primarily military function – they were used to defend the borders or the ruler of the territory (Radosavljević & Kuletin-Čulafić, 2019). Serbia has many fortifications that represent the cultural identity of times past. Nowadays, all of the fortifications have lost their military function, and they represent significant CH. For this article, six sites were singled out (Fig. 1) according to the level of their attractiveness for cultural tourism, the level of their historical, social, and educational value, and their ability to attract a larger number of tourists. The evaluated fortifications are the Petrovaradin Fortress, the Belgrade Fortress, the Smederevo Fortress, the Ram Fortress, the Golubac Fortress, and the Niš Fortress.

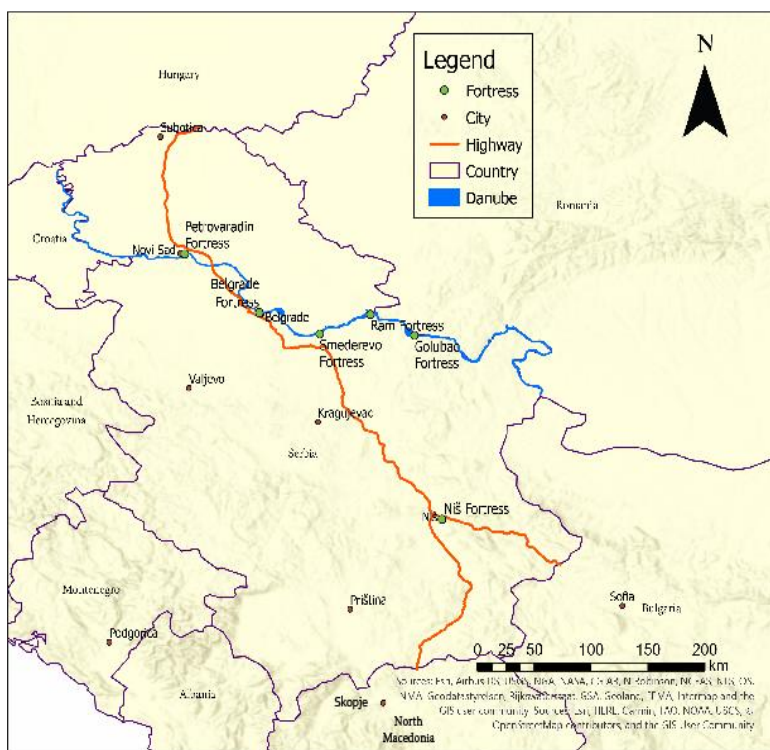


Fig 1. The location of evaluated fortresses in the Republic of Serbia (Source: Authors)

gress. The tourist potential of fortresses is presented in detail by various authors (Besermenji, Pivac, & Wallrabenstein, 2009; Lečić *et al.*, 2018; Vaništa Lazarević, 2019; Blagojević, Milošević, Milić, & Nikolić, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

Studies associated with the assessment of CH are relatively recent, and their numbers are fast-growing. The assessment process is an important step for CR creation, and a tool for the protection, development, and management of CH (Tomić & Božić, 2016).

This research applied the Cultural Route Evaluation Model (CREM), developed by Božić and Tomić (2016) based on the importance factor (Im) first introduced by Tomić (2011). This model represents an amalgam of previous geoheritage assessment methods developed by different authors (Pereira, Pereira, & Caetano Alves, 2007; Pralong, 2005; Zouros, 2007; Reynard, Fontana, Kozlik, & Scapozza, 2007; Tomić & Božić, 2014; Erhartič, 2010) and other studies related to CH assessment (Ahmetović, 1994; Tomka, 1994; du Cros, 2001; Mason, 2002; Throsby, 2006; Tuan & Navrud, 2008; Laing, Wheeler, Reeves, & Frost, 2014; McKercher & Ho, 2006). Božić and Tomić (2016) merged and adapted a variety of elements from all of these methods, and introduced some new indicators for the evaluation of a route, thus developing the CREM. Later, this method was successfully applied by Antić, Tomić, Đorđević, and Marković (2021) in order to promote the paleontological heritage of mammoths in Serbia.

In the original paper by Božić and Tomić (2016), in which the CREM method was introduced for the first time, the minimum possible values on the X and Y axes were overlooked when creating the matrix, and the value of zero was given as the minimum value for both axes when, in reality, the minimum possible value a route can achieve in the assessment process is 23 (X axis) and 21 (Y axis), not zero.

Beside the described methods, we used the ArcGIS Pro program to map the locations (Fig. 1). The fortresses are represented with green circles. As we can see on the map, all fortresses are located near the Danube, or the main Serbian motorway E-75, which makes them very accessible for tourists, and provides a unique experience and knowledge about the Middle Danube Basin and Serbian history. The evaluation process was conducted by the authors, in collaboration with experts in the fields of tourism, geography, history, and history of art and economy, as well as tour guides, in the period between April and October 2021.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study used the CREM model for the assessment of fortified towns in Serbia to examine their tourism potential and the possibility of linking these sites in a unique CR. Finally, the outcome of the assessment process is presented in Table 1 and Fig. 2. According to the results, the potential CR has relatively high Main Values (MV) (71 points). Looking at the Scientific Values (SV) (24 points), it is of great importance that cultural values are highly rated as they have great significance in the CREM model (Im 4.72). Artistic, social, educational and research values are also rated as high. The connection of the route with the culture of the country, and the route's historical values are highly rated, as the route's locations belong to a period closely connected with the culture of the country. These fortifications provide valuable information on times past and the way of life of the local community, since the sites had an important role in Serbian history. The high score of the educational and social values is due to the sites' potential to enable and boost social activities through manifestations related to medieval times, or through military games or contests. Similar activities have so far been successfully implemented in the Niš Fortress, where adult competitors fight with medieval steel weapons and in full period costume, while presenting various weapons, shields, styles of clothing, and battle strategies from that period to the audience. Linking these fortifications with the famous Serbian knight festival *Just Out* will contribute to their promotion, and make them more recognisable. The Aesthetic Values are rated at a medium because all of these sites have suffered great damages in the past, and some of the fortifications have not been reconstructed yet.

Analysis showed the score of the Route-specific Values (RSV) (15 points) to be a little bit lower, because only two of the parameters are highly rated (number of attractive sites on the route and the attractiveness of the theme the route promotes). All of the fortifications are included in the local tourist offer, and they are the most representative sites of this kind in Serbia. It is significant to point out that the theme of the route certainly falls within the group of themes with high appeal, as the Council of Europe launched a CR of fortified towns of the Grand Region in 2016, encompassing the region between France, Germany, Belgium, and Luxembourg³. There are also many other famous guided tours of fortifications, such as: the Vauban circular walk in Luxembourg, the fortifications of Quebec, and the fortifications of Malta. As there is no matching route in Serbia, rarity and uniqueness are on a national level (3 points). Analysing the geographical character of the route, it can be noted that it has a na-

³ <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/fortified-towns-of-the-grande-region>, Accessed on 23/09/22

tional character. All of the evaluated fortifications are located in Serbia, which is the reason they get the medium value for this subindicator. Currently, there is no particular organisation that directs the route as a tourism product. Alternatively, each of the sites is managed by a different institution; therefore, the development of tourism products is made more difficult.

The Economic Value (EV) of the route (21 points) is mostly rated as high. The priority of the route of fortified towns in Serbia is to connect a number of regions and to contribute to the local society by creating new job opportunities, and promoting the growth of local businesses, tourist products, and services. The economic contribution to the local community could be of great importance, since some fortifications are located in less developed areas. Thus, cultural tourism could be important for the economic development of the underpopulated areas, providing new job opportunities and attracting new investments. This is especially true of some locations, such as the Golubac Fortress, where the local society lives on tourism income. This route may contribute to a positive image and brand creation, particularly on the world market, as these two parameters have a great influence on the overall score of economic significance in the CREM model. This thematic route has a probability of cross-border cooperation, due to several sites (Smederevo fortress, Ram fortress, Golubac fortress) being located on or connected to the Serbian border with the Republic of Romania. Also, there are numerous similar sites in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Bulgaria, Romania, and Hungary, so linking these sites in a unique route could acquire an international character. It would attract more foreign visitors and make it globally recognisable.

When it comes to the Protection and Conservation Values (PCV) (11 points), it can be observed that the current condition of the sites on the route is medium-rated. All of the mentioned fortresses suffered great damages throughout the centuries due to the conquest wars of the Ottomans, Austrians, Romans, and Serbs, and due to conflicts such as the First and Second World War. Some of them are completely restored (the Golubac and Ram Fortresses), and some of them are partially reconstructed, as is the case with the Smederevo Fortress. The Niš Fortress and the Petrovaradin Fortress are in good condition, but some parts of these sites are still in need of reconstruction. The ravages of time are also meritorious for their current appearance. The vulnerability level of the fortresses was rated as low because the forts are built with stone and concrete, so the sites can be visited by a large number of visitors without serious damages. Each site on the route is protected on a national level. The admittance of any of these sites to the UNESCO World Heritage List could potentially lead to the recognition of this route all around the world. A suitable number of tourists per site at a given time could exceed 50 visitors.

Due to the large surfaces the sites cover individually, more than 50 visitors at a time would not lead to the physical damage or destruction of any of the sites.

Tourism-specific Values (TSV) are also rated as relatively high (63.5 points). When analysing Functional Values (FV) (15 points), it was noted that the route has a highly convenient location. Each site can be easily accessed by car or bus due to the good connections of high quality roads. Several sites are located in Serbia's biggest and most populated cities (Belgrade, Novi Sad, Niš), and they are close to a motorway of transnational importance (E-75) which connects Europe and Asia. There are international airports near Belgrade and Niš, so this route is easily accessible to international tourists by plane. The fortifications located in Eastern Serbia (the Ram Fortress and the Golubac Fortress) are not so far away from the major national emissive centre (the distance between Belgrade and Golubac is 130km). The Danube River is another corridor (international corridor 7) linking these sites, as the majority of them are located along the Danube River (the Petrovaradin Fortress, the Belgrade Fortress, the Smederevo Fortress, the Ram Fortress, and the Golubac Fortress). Although the Golubac Fortress and the Ram Fortress are located in less developed areas, they are rich in cultural and natural assets complementing the tourist offer associated with the route. Eastern Serbia is famous for various geoheritage objects. The Đerdap Gorge is well-known for its great cultural assets (Roman heritage, medieval forts, Lepenski Vir - Neolithic archaeological site, etc.), and it represents one of the national parks of Serbia and the first Serbian geopark. Thus, there is a possibility of linking this route with other types of tourism characteristic of the Danube region, such as cycling tourism (Pavluković, Nikić, & Stankov, 2020), food and beverage tourism (Vuksanović, Tešanović, Demirović, & Kalenjuk, 2019), or rural tourism (Bratić, Marjanović, Radivojević, & Pavlović, 2021). Other sites are located in the big cities of Serbia, so there are plenty of anthropogenic and natural attractions in their immediate vicinity. Regarding tourist signalisation, it is rated as low. There are a few information panels with the location and the proximity of the forts, but they are located only in the city centres (Novi Sad, Belgrade, Niš). The Golubac Fortress is the only site with a number of information panels showing the location and proximity of the fort, located both along motorway E-75 throughout Serbia and on regional roads. Thus, the improvement of tourist signalisation showing the fortresses' location and proximity, primarily along international roads, is very important for the promotion of these cultural heritage sites. Also, signalisation in the peripheral areas of the cities can make the fortresses easier to find.

The Additional Values (AV) of the route (48.5 points) show some deficiencies related to tourism development. Promotional activities are on a national level, and very limited. The major limitation is that the route

does not have its own website with all the important information about the sites and the route itself. Some of the fortresses, like the Smederevo Fortress⁴, the Golubac Fortress⁵, and the Ram Fortress⁶ have their own websites, and this has had a great impact on promotional activities because the websites provide all the necessary information about the sites. Other fortresses are presented through the tourist organisation websites of the cities they are located in. The Tourist Organisation of Serbia also promotes the tourist route *Fortresses on the Danube River*, linking together the Petrovaradin Fortress, the Belgrade Fortress, the Smederevo Fortress, the Ram Fortress and the Golubac Fortress in a unique tourist product⁷. The funds allocated to the promotion are very limited, so it is important to make use of electronic media because of their popularity, wide range, and low cost of advertising. Key trends in marketing strategies address the use of internet marketing and promotional activities (Marjanović, Tomić, Radivojević, & Marković, 2021). Hostelry and restaurant services were assigned the highest grade, since all the sites possess a diverse offer of accommodations and restaurants in their vicinity. Most of the sites are located in large cities, so there is a varied offer of accommodations and restaurants. The Golubac Fortress and the Ram Fortress are far from larger cities, but even so, both sites possess all of the required facilities near them. The Golubac Fortress is located in NP Đerdap, so there are many types of accommodation and restaurant facilities in its immediate vicinity. Also, the Ram Fortress is located near famous tourist destinations on the Danube River, the town of Veliko Gradište, and the Silver Lake. Regarding additional tourism infrastructure along the route, it is evaluated as medium, because some of the sites are missing basic tourism infrastructure, such as marked tourism pathways, toilets, and resting places. Each site provides a tour guide service, or a tour guide is provided for the site by tourist organisations; however, the levels of expertise, knowledge of foreign languages, and interpretive skills differ. This thematic route needs high-quality multilingual interpreters, with great interpretive skills and a high level of expertise. Educating tour guides for the purpose of route creation, as well as applying good practices of training, would benefit the interpretation. The possibilities for the provision of an authentic experience and interpretation are rated the highest, as many interesting stories can be relayed about the historical events related to the sites, their meaning and purpose in the past, and the interactions among the people who lived there. This provides an excep-

⁴ www.smederevskatvrđjava.com

⁵ www.tvrđjavagolubackigrad.rs

⁶ www.ramskatvrđjava.rs

⁷ <https://www.serbia.travel/en/explore-serbia/thematic-routes/fortresses-on-the-danube>, Accessed on 23/09/22

tional opportunity for organising different thematic events which would offer an authentic experience for tourists. Interesting stories about the fortifications, and the history of ancestors and their relations represent a great potential basis for the reconstruction of historical events and the creation of animated performances, which would provide a great interactive experience for tourists. The level of tourist visits is highly rated, as the sites are a part of the cultural assets of the tourist offer of the cities in or near which the fortresses are located. Also, some of them are the hosts of international music events. The Petrovaradin Fortress hosts the well-known international music festival *EXIT*. The Belgrade Fortress hosts the famous *BEER FEST*. The Niš Fortress hosts the international jazz festival *NISHVILLE*. Many other manifestations are held in the fortresses along the route, so they are very popular tourist destinations. All of the fortresses along the route are a part of student excursions. The existence of additional interpretive facilities and content is rated medium. Only the Golubac Fortress has a Visitors' Centre, while other sites have small Information Centres. Visitors' Centres are very important, as they are places which allow visitors to get information about the site or the attractions, hire guides or rent audio guides, buy brochures, maps and souvenirs, or learn about history and important events from the past through demonstration or animation.

Info boards are very useful for tourists, as they provide information about the sites and they supplement the total impression of the tourists. These visual elements represent an important component of the overall tourist experience (Marjanović et al., 2022a; Marjanović et al., 2022b). The number of info boards and the quality of their interpretation is not equal across all sites. The Golubac Fortress has many info panels with colourful illustrations and quality bilingual interpretations of the history of the fortress, as well as codes for quick response (QR code). Other evaluated sites possess info panels, but the quality of their interpretation is at a medium level (basic information about the site, lower quality of illustrations). It is very important to improve the quality of info panels so self-guided tourists can enjoy the full experience too.

Regarding the final score of the assessment, the Main values (71) of the route are equal to the Tourism-specific Values (63.5). Following the overall score, it can be seen that the route is put in the field (F33) of the CREM matrix (Fig. 2), which means that the route has a high probability of being successfully implemented. This result shows that the route has a great possibility of becoming internationally acknowledged. Each of the sites has the required infrastructure, and they are already being visited by a large number of tourists. Nevertheless, more significant actions are necessary to connect all of the fortresses in a distinctive way. The aim of these particular actions should be the improvement of the quality of the tour guide service and the info boards, as these subindicators are among

those with the highest importance factor values in the CREM model. The advertising and spreading of the word among both domestic and international visitors about this unique tourism product will highlight the CH in Serbia. A lot of information could be received from the well-known European CR *Fortified towns of the Grand region* regarding management techniques, promotional activities, educational programmes, and guide training programmes. The Golubac Fortress is part of an international project for castles and forts in V4 countries, and the Western Balkans and Danube regions, supported by the European Union⁸. This provides an opportunity for international promotion and brand creation. This could contribute to the creation of the CR of fortified towns. The Golubac Fortress is a good example of a successful combination of history and entrepreneurship, as it is a well-known and successfully managed fortification in Serbia.

Table 1. The final score of the assessment

Route name	MV		TSV		Field
	SV+RSV+ES+PCV	Σ	FV+AV	Σ	
The route of fortified towns in Serbia	24+15+21+11	71	15+48.5	63.5	F33

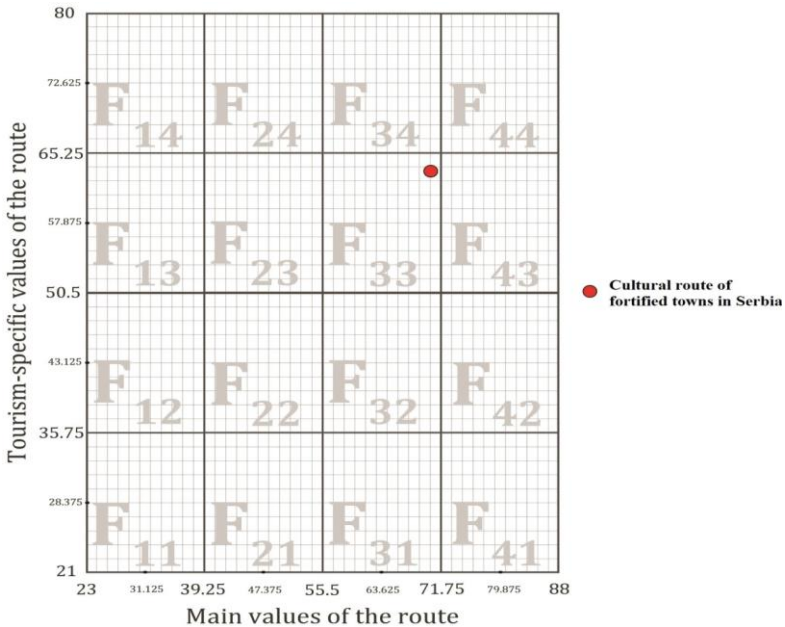


Fig 2. Position of the route of the fortified towns of Serbia in the CREM matrix

⁸ www.castlesregions.eu

CONCLUSION

This study applied the CREM model in order to highlight the possibility for the creation of a CR of fortified towns in Serbia, as well as its tourism potential and economic benefits. The results showed that this route has great tourism potential and could have multiple benefits. The route of fortified towns should be included and highlighted in the upcoming tourism development plan of Serbia, so that it can become a prosperous tourism product. Ingenuity and inventiveness are the foundation of lucrative tourism businesses in the contemporary tourism market. After the initial implementation of the route, one of the main components of its continuous and feasible progress would be the supervision of the tourists' motivation, expectations, limitations, and other aspects that have an impact on how the route functions. Additionally, modern advertising approaches should be applied, so the route can get a higher level of recognition worldwide. The route can influence the creation of new businesses and infrastructure development. While promoting the CH of Serbia through a thematic route of fortified towns, this CR has several aims, and they are the satisfaction of tourists' expectations, job creation, and revenue generation for local residents. This route should generate funds for the preservation of each site along the route, and should enable the development of tourism in a sustainable way. The aim of this study was to represent an original and unique tourism product. The fortifications in Serbia have already got quite a high level of acknowledgment and appreciation, but linking these sites in a thematic route will help them become well-known tourism products in the upcoming period. The ability of the CH to attract a large number of tourists is of great importance for tourism development. Numerous tourist visits will bring economic benefits for the local communities along the route. Varied additional content along the route will affect the attractiveness of the route itself. The possibility of visiting archaeological sites near the fortifications, which had a great influence on their formation, links history and culture in a distinctive way. The establishment of the route of fortified towns in Serbia will surely contribute to brand creation, and place Serbia on the world map of creative tourism.

REFERENCES

- Ahmetović, T. (1994). Tourism assessment of cultural and historical monuments — Case study Monasteries of Fruška Gora Mountain. *Researches Review of the Institute for Geography*, 24, 159–172.
- Antić, A., Tomić, N., Đorđević, T., & Marković, S. (2021). Promoting palaeontological heritage of mammoths in Serbia through a cross-country thematic route. *Geoheritage*, 13(1), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12371-021-00530-6>
- Belij, S., Ilinčić, M., Belij, J., & Belij, M. (2014). Sustainable planning and tourism development policy exemplified by medieval fortresses along the river Danube.

- Glasnik Srpskog geografskog društva*, 94(3), 69-82. <https://doi.org/10.2298/GSGD1403069B>
- Benfield, R. W. (2001). Good things come to those who wait: Sustainable tourism and timed entry at Sissinghurst Castle Garden, Kent. *Tourism Geographies*, 3(2), 207-217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680010030275>
- Berti, E. (2015). The cultural context: fundamental resolutions and conventions at the European and international level. In *Council of Europe, Cultural Routes Management: From Theory to Practice* (pp. 23-33), Strasbourg, Council of Europe Publishing.
- Besermenji, S., Pivac, T., & Wallrabenstein, K. (2009). Significance of the Authentic Ambience of the Petrovaradin Fortress on the Attractiveness of EXIT Festival. *Geographica Pannonica*, 13(2), 66-74.
- Blagojević, M. R., Milošević, G., Milić, R. J., & Nikolić, M. (2013). A new life of the Ottoman fortress Ram. *Journal of cultural heritage*, 14(3), 20-24.
- Boateng, H., Okoe, A. F., & Hinson, R. E. (2018). Dark tourism: Exploring tourist's experience at the Cape Coast Castle, Ghana. *Tourism management perspectives*, 27, 104-110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.05.004>
- Bogacz-Wojtanowska, E., Góral, A., & Bugdol, M. (2019). The role of trust in sustainable heritage management networks. case study of selected cultural routes in Poland. *Sustainability*, 11(10), 2844. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11102844>
- Bogacz-Wojtanowska, E., & Góral, A. (2018). Networks or structures? Organizing cultural routes around heritage values. Case studies from Poland. *Humanistic Management Journal*, 3(2), 253-277. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41463-018-0042-1>
- Božić, S., & Tomić, N. (2016). Developing the cultural route evaluation model (CREM) and its application on the Trail of Roman Emperors, Serbia. *Tourism management perspectives*, 17, 26-35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.11.002>
- Bratić, M., Marjanović, M., Raivojević, A., Pavlović M. (2021). Motivation and segmentation of tourists in rural areas: case study of Serbia. *Teme*, 3, 867-883. <https://doi.org/10.22190/TEME200810051Z>
- Chen, G., & Huang, S. (2018). Understanding Chinese cultural tourists: Typology and profile. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(2), 162-177. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1350253>
- Council of Europe. Impact of European Cultural Routes on SMEs' Innovation and Competitiveness: Provisional Edition. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing. (2011).
- Czifra, S., Pálincás, A., Márkus, Z. L., Szkaliczki, T., Veres, M., & Weisz, Z. (2019). Smart Solutions for Guided Cultural Routes along the Iron Age Archaeological Sites of the Danube Basin. *Digital Presentation and Preservation of Cultural and Scientific Heritage*, 9, 43-54.
- du Cros, H. (2001). A new model to assist in planning for sustainable cultural heritage tourism. *Int J Tour Res*, 3, 165-170. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.297>
- Erhartič, B. (2010). Geomorphosite assessment. *Acta Geographica Slovenica*, 50(2), 295-319. <https://doi.org/10.3986/AGS50206>
- Gajete, J. M. M., Rojas, R. H., & Millán, M. G. D. (2018). Turismo de Castillos y fortalezas: La ruta de los templarios en España. *International journal of scientific management and tourism*, 4(1), 469-484.
- Graf, M., & Popesku, J. (2016). Cultural routes as innovative tourism products and possibilities of their development. *International Journal of Cultural and Digital Tourism*, 3(1), 24-44.
- Koo, S., Kim, J., Kim, C., Kim, J., & Cha, H. S. (2019). Development of an augmented reality tour guide for a cultural heritage site. *Journal on Computing and Cultural Heritage*, 12(4), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3317552>

- Laing, J., Wheeler, F., Reeves, K., & Frost, W. (2014). Assessing the experiential value of heritage assets: a case study of a Chinese heritage precinct, Bendigo, Australia. *Tour Manag.* 40, 180–192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.004>
- Lečić, N., Mitković, P., & Manić, B. (2017). Tourist valorisation of medieval fortresses along the Danube river: From the Serbian perspective. *Facta Universitatis, Series: Architecture and Civil Engineering*, 15(3), 465-475.
- Lourens, M. (2007). Route tourism: a roadmap for successful destinations and local economic development. *Development Southern Africa*, 24, 475–490. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03768350701445574>
- Marina, L., Muntean, A., & Stefani, C. (2009). Development directions for the tourism offer of the Alba Iulia Fortress. Qualitative assessments. *Annales Universitatis Apulensis: Series Oeconomica*, 11(2), 1041.
- Marjanović, M., Radivojević A.R., Antić, A., Peppoloni S., Di Capua, G., Lazarević, J., Marković, R., Tomić, N., Milićević, A., Langović, Z., Mišić, I., & Marković, S. B. (2022a). Geotourism and geoethics as support for rural development in the Knjaževac municipality, Serbia. *Open Geosciences*, 14(1), 794-812. <https://doi.org/10.1515/geo-2022-0388>
- Marjanović, M., Milenković, J., Lukić, M., Tomić, N., Antić, A., Marković, R. S., Atanasijević, J., Božić, D., Buhmiller, S., Radaković, M., Radivojević, A., Milićević, A., Gavrilov, M., & Marković, S. B. (2022b). Geomorphological and hydrological heritage of Mt. Stara Planina in SE Serbia: From river protection initiative to potential geotouristic destination. *Open Geosciences*, 14(1), 275-293. <https://doi.org/10.1515/geo-2022-0340>
- Marjanović, M., Tomić, N., Radivojević, A. R., & Marković, S. B. (2021). Assessing the geotourism potential of the Niš city area (Southeast Serbia). *Geoheritage*, 13(3), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12371-021-00597-1>
- Mason, R. (2002). Assessing values in conservation planning: methodological issues and choices. In M. De la Torre (Ed.), *Assessing the values of cultural heritage* (5–30). Research report. Los Angeles: The Getty Conservation Institute.
- McKercher, B. (2020). Cultural tourism market: a perspective paper, *Tourism Review*, 75 (1), 126-129. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-03-2019-0096>
- McKercher, R., & Ho, P. (2006). Assessing the tourism potential of smaller cultural and heritage attractions. *J Sustain Tour*, 14, 473–488
- Meyer, D. (2004). *Tourism routes and gateways: Key issues for the development of tourism routes and gateways and their potential for Pro-Poor Tourism*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Morar, C., Grama, V., Stupariu, I. M., Nagy, G., Boros, L., Tiba, Al., Gozner, M., & Szabo-Alexi, S. (2020). Local perspectives over cultural tourism to heritage sites: the case study of Oradea Fortress (Romania). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33, 1470-1479. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl04-595>
- Muzaini, H., Teo, P., & Yeoh, B. S. (2007). Intimations of postmodernity in dark tourism: The fate of history at Fort Siloso, Singapore. *Journal of tourism and Cultural Change*, 5(1), 28-45. <https://doi.org/10.2167/jtcc082.0>
- Pavluković, V., Nikić, B., & Stankov, U. (2020). Local residents' attitudes towards cycling tourism in the upper Danube region (Serbia). *Teme*, XLIV(3), 913-928. <https://doi.org/10.22190/TEME181014062P>
- Pattanaro, G., & Pistocchi, F. (2016). Linking destinations through sustainable cultural routes. *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management*, 1, 83-96.
- Pereira, P., Pereira, D., & Caetano Alves, M.I. (2007). Geomorphosite assessment in Montesinho Natural Park (Portugal). *Geogr Helvetica*, 62, 159–168. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gh-62-159-2007>

- Pralong, J.P. (2005). A method for assessing the tourist potential and use of geomorphological sites. *Géomorphologie: Relief, processus, environnement*, 3, 189–196.
- Radosavljević, U., & Kuletin Čulafić, I. (2019). Use of cultural heritage for place branding in educational projects: The case of Smederevo and Golubac fortress on the Danube. *Sustainability*, 11(9), 5234. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11195234>
- Rakocija, J. M. (2013). The Fortress in the Center of the City-Nis, Serbia: Urban Landscape Architecture for the Historical and Cultural Site (No. GRI-2014-12703). Master's thesis. Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. Retrieved from <http://ikee.lib.auth.gr/record/134691/files/?ln=en>
- Reynard, E., Fontana, G., Kozlik, L., & Scapozza, C. (2007). A method for assessing “scientific” and “additional values” of geomorphosites. *Geogr Helvetica*, 62, 148–158. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gh-62-148-2007>
- Richards, G. (2018). Cultural tourism: A review of recent research and trends. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 36, 12-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhttm.2018.03.005>
- Sanches, M., Secomandi, E., Scherer, M., & de Castro, A. V. (2009). Tourism in Fortress: the Process of Creating a Latin American Network. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 56, 1150-1153.
- Santa, E. D., & Tiatco, A. (2019). Tourism, heritage and cultural performance: Developing a modality of heritage tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 31, 301-309. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.06.001>
- Sarmento, J. (2010). Fort Jesus: guiding the past and contesting the present in Kenya. *Tourism Geographies*, 12(2), 246-263. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616681003725185>
- Severo, M. (2017). European Cultural Routes: Building a Multi-Actor Approach. *Museum International*, 69(1-2), 136-145. <https://doi.org/10.1111/muse.12157>
- Sharma, M. (2008). Forts of Rajasthan and recent tourist inclinations. *South Asian Journal of Tourism and Heritage*, 1(1), 87-90.
- Song, H., Park, C., & Kim, M. (2020). Tourism Destination Management Strategy for Young Children: Willingness to Pay for Child-Friendly Tourism Facilities and Services at a Heritage Site. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(19), 7100. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17197100>
- Song, H., & Kim, H. (2019). Value-based profiles of visitors to a world heritage site: The case of Suwon Hwaseong Fortress (in South Korea). *Sustainability*, 11(1), 132. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11010132>
- Stoddart, H., & Rogerson, C. (2009). Tourism routes, local economic promotion and propoor development: The case of the Crocodile Ramble. *Africa Insight*, 38(4), 10–26.
- Stanojlović, A., Čurčić, N., & Pavlović, N. (2010). Tourism valorisation of site 'Lazar's town' in Kruševac. *Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijic", SASA*, 60(2), 77-92.
- Timothy, D., & Boyd, S. (2006). Heritage tourism in the 21st century: valued traditions and new perspectives. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 1(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17438730608668462>
- Tomić, N., & Božić, S. (2014). A modified geosite assessment model (MGAM) and its application on the Lazar Canyon area (Serbia). *Int J Environ Res*, 8(4), 1041–1052.
- Tomić, N. (2011). The potential of Lazar Canyon (Serbia) as a geotourism destination: inventory and evaluation. *Geographica Pannonica*, 15, 103–112. 10.5937/GeoPan1103103T
- Tomka, D. (1994). Tourism assessment of cultural and historical monuments—case study monasteries of Fruška Gora Mountain. *Res Rev Instit Geogr*, 24, 159–172

- Throsby, D. (2006). The value of cultural heritage: what can economics tell us? In K. Clark (Ed.), *Capturing the public value of heritage* (pp. 40–43). London: English Heritage.
- Tuan, H. T., & Navrud, S. (2008). Capturing the benefits of preserving cultural heritage. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*, 9, 326–337. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.culher.2008.05.001>
- Vaništa Lazarevic, E., Komatina, D., Maric, J., & Vucur, A. (2019). Valorisation and revitalization of heritage alongside Danube river: case study of Smederevo castle. In *Places and technologies 2019: keeping up with technologies to turn built heritage into the places of future generations: conference proceeding: 6th international academic conference, Pécs, Hungary, 9-10 May 2019* (pp. 410–419). Pécs: University of Pécs Faculty of Engineering and Information Technology.
- Vuksanović, N., Tešanović, D., Demirović, D., & Kalenjuk, B. (2019). Experiencing destination through local food and beverages – the case study of Republic of Serbia. *Teme*, XLIII(2), 439–453. <https://doi.org/10.22190/TEME171219027V>
- World Tourism Organization. *Tourism and Culture Synergies*, UNWTO, Madrid, (2018).
- Zaraś-Januszkiewicz, E., Botwina, J., Żarska, B., Swoczyna, T., & Krupa, T. (2020). Fortresses as specific areas of urban greenery defining the uniqueness of the urban cultural landscape: Warsaw Fortress—a case study. *Sustainability*, 12(3), 1043. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12031043>
- Zouros, N.C. (2007). Geomorphosite assessment and management in protected areas of Greece. The case of the Lesvos island coastal geomorphosites. *Geogr Helvetica*, 62, 169–180. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gh-62-169-2007>
- <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/serbia>; (accessed on 22.09.2022).
- <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/by-theme> (accessed 23.09.2022)
- www.tvrdjavagolubackigrad.rs (accessed 23.09.2022)
- <https://www.coe.int/en/web/cultural-routes/fortified-towns-of-the-grande-region> (Accessed 23.09.2022.)
- www.smederevskatvrdjava.com (accessed 23.09.2022)
- www.ramskatvrdjava.rs (accessed 23.09.2022)
- <https://www.serbia.travel/en/explore-serbia/thematic-routes/fortresses-on-the-danube> (accessed 23.09.2022.)
- www.castlesregions.eu (accessed 23.09.2022.)

МОГУЋНОСТ ПРОМОЦИЈЕ КУЛТУРНОГ НАСЛЕЂА СРБИЈЕ КРОЗ КУЛТУРНУ РУТУ УТВРЂЕНИХ ГРАДОВА

Милош Марјановић¹, Растко С. Марковић², Немања Томић¹,
Нинослав Голубовић², Златко Ланговић³, Александар Р. Радивојевић²

¹Универзитет у Новом Саду, Природно-математички факултет, Нови Сад, Србија

²Универзитет у Нишу, Природно-математички факултет, Ниш, Србија

³Универзитет у Крагујевцу, Факултет за хотелијерство и туризам у Врњачкој Бањи,
Врњачка Бања, Србија

Резиме

Промоција утврђених градова, као значајног културног наслеђа Србије, представља битан елемент развоја туризма. Основни циљ овог рада је да укаже на туристички потенцијал утврђења у Србији и да истражи могућност креирања кул-

турне руте утврђених градова. Рута се састоји од шест тврђава у Србији. Применом модела CREM (Cultural Route Evaluation Model) процењене су могућности за креирање културне руте и туристички потенцијал сваког утврђења. CREM модел је пружио основне информације о могућностима развоја културне руте и указао је на потребе за унапређењем и туристичким уређењем сваког локалитета. У раду је указано на појединости које треба унапредити како би тврђаве биле посећене од стране већег броја туриста у наредном периоду. За потребе овог истраживања, изабране су тврђаве које су већ афирмисане као туристичке атракције, а то су: Петроварадин у Новом Саду, Београдска тврђава, Смедеревска тврђава, тврђава Рам, Голубачка тврђава и Нишка тврђава. Добијени резултати указују на то да потенцијална културна рута има релативно високу оцену Главних вредности. Историјске, Уметничке, Друштвене, Образовне и Истраживачке вредности су високо оцењене. Веза руте са културним идентитетом земље и региона је значајна, јер се тематска рута односи на период који је уско повезан са културом региона и земље. Историјска вредност руте је високо оцењена јер ова утврђења пружају драгоцене податке о прошлим временима и начину живота, будући да су локалитети имали важну улогу у српској историји. Сви вредновани локалитети се налазе у туристичкој понуди и најрепрезентативнији су локалитети ове врсте у Србији. Значајно је истаћи да тема ове културне руте свакако спада у групу високо привлачних, јер је Савет Европе 2016. године покренуо културну руту утврђених градова Велике регије, која обухвата регион између Француске, Немачке, Белгије и Луксембурга. Приоритет руте утврђених градова у Србији је повезивање више региона и допринос локалном друштву стварањем нових радних места и позитивним утицајем на раст локалног бизниса, и туристичких производа и услуга. Економски допринос локалној заједници могао би бити од великог значаја јер се нека утврђења налазе у мање развијеним подручјима. Стога би културни туризам могао бити значајан за економски развој ненасељених подручја, за отварање нових радних места и за привлачење нових инвестиција. Културна рута утврђених градова у Србији може допринети стварању позитивног имиџа и креирању туристичког брэнда, посебно на светском тржишту. Ова тематска рута показује потенцијал за прекограничну сарадњу, јер се неколико локалитета (Смедеревска тврђава, Рамска тврђава, Голубачка тврђава) налази на, или је повезано са границом Србије и Републике Румуније. Такође, бројни слични локалитети постоје у Хрватској, Босни и Херцеговини, Црној Гори, Северној Македонији, Бугарској, Румунији и Мађарској. Повезивањем ових утврђења, ова рута би могла имати међународни карактер. Културна рута утврђених градова треба да буде укључена и истакнута у предстојећем плану развоја туризма Србије, како би постала просперитетни туристички производ. Потенцијална културна рута би имала неколико важнијих циљева, а то су: да задовољи очекивања туриста, подстакне отварање нових радних места и постане уносна за становнике уз промоцију културног наслеђа Србије кроз тематску руту утврђених градова. Она треба да буде самоодржива и да генерише средства за очување сваког од локалитета, тј. да омогући развој туризма на одржив начин. Циљ ове студије је представљање оригиналног и јединственог туристичког производа. Утврђења у Србији су већ добила прилично висок ниво признања и уважавања, али повезивање ових локалитета у тематску руту помогло би им да у наредном периоду постану препознатљиви туристички производи. Различити додатни садржаји дуж руте утицаће на атрактивност саме руте. Могућност посете археолошких налазишта у близини утврђења, која су имала велики утицај на њихово формирање, на посебан начин повезује историју и културу. Успостављање руте утврђених градова у Србији сигурно ће допринети креирању брэнда, те осигурати Србији место на светској мапи креативног туризма.

THE FACTORS INFLUENCING OVERALL GUEST EXPERIENCE IN HOTELS IN SOUTHEAST EUROPE

Jovana Lončar*, Slobodan Čerović

Singidunum University, Belgrade, Serbia

Abstract

The subject of this research is guest experience in hotels. We started this research with the initial hypothesis that individual aspects of hotel products and services influence overall guest experience. The aim was to show which aspects of hotel products and services have the strongest impact on guest satisfaction. Another aim was to find out whether there is a difference between the periods before and during the Covid-19 pandemic where factors influencing guest satisfaction are concerned. Guest satisfaction is one of the main goals of a hotel and its business philosophy. Numerous papers investigating the attributes determining guest satisfaction are referred to in the literature review. Data for this research was collected by analysing the 590 surveys sent to guests following their stay in hotels during 2019 and 2021. Via these surveys, guests rated their overall experience during their stay, as well as different individual categories related to the stay. According to the results of the study, guestroom experience has the most significant impact on overall guest experience. Therefore, hotel management should pay attention to room attributes that could be a competitive advantage in differentiation strategy. Cleanliness should be considered one of the most important room attributes, as it now has a stronger impact on overall guest satisfaction than was the case before the outbreak of Covid-19.

Key words: guest satisfaction, guest experience, hotels, evaluated categories, hotel room, Covid-19

ФАКТОРИ КОЈИ УТИЧУ НА СВЕУКУПАН ДОЖИВЉАЈ ГОСТИЈУ ХОТЕЛА У ЈУГОИСТОЧНОЈ ЕВРОПИ

Апстракт

Предмет истраживања је искуство, односно доживљај гостију у хотелима. Почевши од хипотезе да појединачни аспекти хотелских производа и услуга утичу на укупан доживљај гостију, циљ истраживања је био да прикаже који аспекти хотелских производа и услуга имају најјачи утицај на задовољство гостију.

* Corresponding author: Jovana Lončar, Singidunum University, Danijelova 32, 11010 Belgrade, Serbia, jovanaloncarb@gmail.com

Такође, циљ је да се истражи да ли постоји разлика у периодима пре и током Ковид 19 пандемије у односу на факторе који утичу на укупно задовољство гостију. Задовољство гостију је један од најважнијих циљева хотела и његове пословне филозофије. У прегледу литературе су приказани бројни радови у којима су се истраживали атрибути који утичу на задовољство гостију. Подаци за ово истраживање су прикупљени анализирањем 590 упитника који су послати гостима након њиховог боравка у хотелима током 2019. и 2021. године. Путем ових упитника гости су оцењивали свеукупан доживљај током боравка у хотелу, као и различите појединачне категорије повезане са боравком. Према резултатима истраживања, доживљај хотелске собе има најзначајнији утицај на укупан доживљај боравка у хотелу. Према томе, менаџери хотела би требало да обрате пажњу на атрибуте хотелских соба који би могли да буду конкурентска предност у стратегији диференцирања. Чистоћу би требало сматрати једним од најважнијих атрибута хотелске собе, с обзиром на то да она сада има јачи утицај на укупно задовољство него што је то био случај пре почетка Ковид 19 пандемије.

Кључне речи: задовољство гостију, доживљај гостију, хотели, категорије за оцењивање, хотелска соба, Ковид-19

INTRODUCTION

Guest satisfaction is a major objective of a hotel company. It determines the company's success in the hotel industry, because hotels cannot compete effectively if they are not able to take responsibility in meeting their guests' expectations and creating special value for their guests. Hotel management strives to build a successful relationship with hotel guests in order to better understand them and in order to be able to satisfy them. Satisfied guests are loyal to the hotel company, they typically intend to re-use the hotel's services in future, and they recommend the hotel to others. The possibility of complaints is reduced if guests are satisfied. Satisfied guests positively impact business growth and hotel revenue. Guest surveys are used for measuring guest satisfaction. Hotel management uses these surveys in order to gather information about the guests' opinions on different service aspects. By analysing online reviews, hotel managers can gain better insight into guests' expectations. The term 'guest satisfaction' is often used in marketing, as a part of marketing strategy. It is an inevitable part of strategic management.

Strategic management is a management process which involves the organisation's commitment to developing strategic plans, and their further implementation. Business strategy includes identifying different ways for achieving the company's mission and goals. Tourism and hospitality companies are faced with an increasingly changing, turbulent, and complex environment and, therefore, it is of vital importance for them to accept and practice strategic management (Čerović, 2020, pp. 112-113).

A successful strategy results in the continuous creation of a real and unique value for customers. Continuous adjustment is essential in creating new value for customers because otherwise there are no incen-

tives for customers to buy services. Competitive, or differential, advantage is based on this fact (Milisavljević & Todorović 1991, p. 74). Differentiation strategy is focused on achieving a competitive advantage based on uniqueness and special value to consumers. Understanding consumer needs and preferences is one of the key elements which lead to successful differentiation. Focus should be placed on those characteristics of products and services that are relevant to consumer preferences (Milisavljević, 1999, pp. 269-270). Marketing strategy is necessary and desirable in hospitality companies. Successful marketing strategies create interest in consumers, which leads to sales and ensures resales. Managing customer-seller interactions is the essence of a strategic approach in service industries (Milisavljević & Todorović, 2000, p. 218). Many authors explain satisfaction as the emotional reaction of consumers to the assessment of the difference between their expectations and the actual product and service performance. It is considered that comfort and satisfaction are achieved if the consumer gets the right product or service in the right place and at the right time. The best effects are achieved by creating a new dimension of consumer satisfaction. Highly successful companies raise expectations and give their consumers what they promise. These are companies that strive for total consumer satisfaction (Milisavljević, 2003, pp. 41-43).

There is a strong need for hotel managers to have a clear knowledge of factors which provide a distinctive value for guests. The aim of this study is to discover which factors represent the strongest determinants of overall service value and experience for hotel guests.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hotel management faces one of its biggest challenges in aiming to achieve and maintain guest satisfaction. Numerous studies show that factors such as cleanliness, price, security, location, employee service, standardised service, aesthetics, image, and reputation are recognised as determining. As an online platform where guests can evaluate specific categories related to their stay, Booking.com can be used as a source in measuring guest satisfaction (Radojevic et al., 2015). There are two major approaches to research: the expectation-performance approach, which measures guest expectations before and after their hotel stay; and the performance-only approach, where focus is not placed on the guests' expectations prior to their stay, but on their opinions following their stay (Moreno-Perdigon et al., 2021). According to Lewis (1987), quality is not measurable. What can be measured is the difference between expectations and perception, in terms of its existence or absence.

In their research, Vukosav et al. (2020) investigated the perceived quality of hotel products and guest satisfaction in city hotels in Vojvodi-

na, and the results of their research indicated that hotels with high ratings were estimated as being of higher quality in relation to four quality factors concerning the hotel-product (staff, facilities, restaurant, reception).

Petrović (2020) researched service quality and guests' expectations on a sample of mountain, spa and city hotels in Serbia, and concluded that service is one of the most important aspects of a hotel. Hotel service quality can be measured by measuring different attributes. These attributes can be tangible and intangible. Understanding guests' expectations is crucial for delivering high quality services. However, guests' expectations are different, depending on location.

Numerous tourism and hospitality studies suggest how important it is to understand online guest reviews. Zhou et al. (2014) marked the overall satisfaction score as a dependent variable in their study of hotel reviews on the Agoda website. The independent variables were 23 detailed attributes. These attributes were classified into the following categories: bi-directional attributes (those attributes are all remarkably different in relation to the overall satisfaction score); satisfier attributes (those by which the group that provided positive comments was remarkably more satisfied); dissatisfier attributes (those attributes by which the group that commented negatively was marked remarkably lower in overall satisfaction); neutrals (the rest of the 6 attributes which had no remarkable impact on the overall satisfaction scores).

Djeri et al. (2018) investigated the difference between the importance and performance of particular hotel attributes. They concluded that the quality of accommodation attributes highly affected guest experience. Hotel management should keep guests satisfied, and make their stay so pleasant that they would want to come back. This can be achieved if management maintains the high performance of those hotel attributes which are of importance to guests.

In their research, Torres et al. (2014) point out the strategic importance of guest experience management exploring which key drivers evaluated as components of guest experience have significant impact on the overall evaluation. According to their findings, management should create memorable experiences for their guests in order to make them emotionally attached. It was also found that peak moments for guests significantly influence their evaluation. Highlighting the aspects of emotional engagement and peak moments, they present the concept of customer delight as a strategic resource in competitiveness. In his research, Lockyer (2005) illustrates the complexity of the process of choosing accommodation, and concludes that managers should consider various variables when they create their offer. Managers need to take into consideration different triggers, which may be relevant for different market segments at different times, and in different places. In his previous research, Lockyer (2003) highlighted hotel cleanliness as one of the most important attrib-

utes driving guest satisfaction. Knowing these attributes can help managers make both their short-term operational and long-term strategic decisions.

Empirical research on the hospitality sector shows that different authors analysed guest satisfaction from different points of view. In their study, Nicolau et al. (2020) analyse hotel scores and emphasise the differences between scores with monetary components (value for money) and those that consider non-monetary components (such as comfort, staff, location, services, cleanliness, and Wi-Fi). Satisfied guests mostly cite intangible attributes, like attention from hotel staff. On the other hand, dissatisfied guests tend to refer to material attributes, like furniture or decoration. According to Akbaba (2005), it is complicated to define, deliver and measure service quality due to the attributes characteristic of the hospitality industry, such as imprecise standards, short distribution channel and consistency, face to face interactions and fluctuating demand. It is of vital importance for hotel management to be able to define service quality, and to identify the attributes of service quality, their relative importance for guests, as well as the specific expectations of customers and the dimensions of service quality crucial for their quality evaluations. In his findings, Kozak (2002) concludes that multiple attributes impact overall guest satisfaction, and that they are different from one customer group to another. Bearing in mind the definition of satisfaction as the feeling resulting from the comparison between the guest's expectations and the perceived service provided, Moreno-Perdigon et al. (2021) suggest that satisfaction with a hotel stay is a sum of one's satisfaction with the individual attributes of all the products and services that create the guest experience. In their research, Pullman et al. (2005) suggest that the best way to acquire a complete understanding of guests' feelings about a hotel is to analyse the context of their comments in reviews. Guests' feelings are difficult to measure on a quantitative scale and, therefore, qualitative text analysis is an opportunity for hotel management to gain a full understanding of guests' emotional attachment. Padma & Ahn (2020) analysed guest satisfaction in luxury hotels. They suggest that the analysis of guest comments should be used to improve service. Their results prove that room-related attributes such as cleanliness, view, attractiveness or size, and staff-related attributes, such as employee service, are the most important in determining guest satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Hecht & Martin (2006) analysed the characteristics determining the choice of a hostel and concluded that the top five preferences for respondents were: cleanliness, location, personal service, security, and hostel services such as internet and laundry facilities.

When guests are satisfied with their room or with the service provided by employees, they provide positive evaluation and online comments. On the other hand, if guests are not satisfied with room-related at-

tributes and service attributes, they evaluate their experience in the hotel negatively. Manhas & Tukamushaba (2015) identify attributes that influence guest satisfaction and make the hotel meet the guests' expectations. Value for money is something that is highly demanded by guests where the price and the quality of the services or products are concerned. Public area and room cleanliness is shown to be an important determinant of service quality. The variety of available food and drinks is considered to be of great importance for evaluating service quality, along with the front desk area where guests can gain relevant information about the hotel services provided. According to Magnini et al. (2011), who investigated the causes of customer delight, customer service and cleanliness were two major triggers of customer delight. Weaver & Chul (1993) researched the service categories most important for business travellers when they select a hotel. Their findings show that cleanliness was perceived as the most important, with an average rate of 4.5 marked on a five-point scale.

The physical surroundings in which the service takes place are important for guest experience, since aesthetics and appearance affect guest satisfaction. Bitner (1992) investigated the influence of the servicescape on consumers and employees in service companies. According to him, the term servicescape refers to the physical environment. He concludes that service organisations can achieve their goals by carefully and creatively managing the servicescape. Hoffman et al. (2003) researched the possibilities of service recovery strategies when servicescape failures arise. Servicescape failures are frequently related to cleanliness, and human interaction is needed for service recovery. Saleh & Ryan (1992) also emphasise the importance of the tangible components of the hotel product. Their research supports the argument that, in evaluating the hotel, guests pay special attention to the interior and exterior appearance, and the aesthetics of the hotel.

In service companies, the servicescape needs to be constantly evaluated and observed by management, because it is easier to manage and control physical appearance than it is to manage and control staff. Managers should control the cleanliness and hygiene of the facilities so as to ensure that all spaces are clean and free of clutter. Furthermore, managers should be conscious of the correlation between the consumers' perception of cleanliness and their perception of the service staff (Hooper et al., 2013).

In their research, Wakefield & Blodget (1996) analysed the effect of the servicescape on consumers' behavioural intentions. Many customers directly associate cleanliness with the quality of the servicescape. It is essential for managers to not only work to prepare the servicescape prior to the customers' arrival but also control the servicescape and its cleanliness throughout the stay. Vilnai-Yavetz & Gilboa (2010) presented similar findings, in which they emphasised the correlation between the cleanliness of a servicescape and emotions of satisfaction. In their research,

Vos et al. (2019) define perceived cleanliness and its dimensions in order to develop the cleanliness perceptions scale. Their content analysis found six concepts related to perceived cleanliness: clean, cleaning-staff behaviour, fresh, well-maintained, smooth, and uncluttered.

Since the outbreak of Covid-19, cleanliness has become the focus of safe travelling. Guests have higher expectations related to health and safety. Cleanliness is an essential factor for decision-making and health risk perception. Expected cleanliness is even more important for guests during a pandemic, since hotel rooms and facilities are shared with other guests (Shin & Kang, 2020). In their study, Jiang and Wen (2020) suggest that enhanced cleanliness and sanitisation processes can be promoted as selling points during and after the pandemic. There may be a possibility that there are guests willing to pay more for a higher level of cleanliness and disinfection when they visit a hotel (Zemke et al., 2015). To guarantee the guests' safety, sales and marketing strategies for recovery emphasise health and cleanliness protocols across all property types (Heredia-Colaco & Rodriguez, 2021). Crisis management on a macro level has been researched extensively. Smart et al. (2021) researched risk management strategies in a case study which examined how daily operations in hotels were influenced by COVID-19, and how the hotel management teams reacted to challenges at operational and strategic levels. In their research, Hao et al. (2020) present a case study of Chinese hotels and their risk management strategies for health risk reduction. Preliminary findings show that sanitising protocols and procedures (hand sanitisers, wearing masks and gloves, social distancing, limited number of customers, intensive cleaning of high-touch areas) are expected by guests. Hotel managers should be aware of the fact that guests need to perceive a low health risk – a low probability of catching the Covid-19 virus during the hotel stay, and a low emotional risk – guests should be reassured that they will still be able to avoid stressful feelings during their stay, and feel happy and satisfied despite the possibility of catching Covid-19 (Peco-Torres et al., 2021).

METHODOLOGY

Data was collected by analysing questionnaires designed by the customer experience platform Medallia¹. The online questionnaires were sent to guests by e-mail after their departure from four and five-star hotels located in four cities in Southeast Europe: Belgrade, Ljubljana, Bucharest and Sofia. A total of 591 questionnaires were analysed: 318 dating from May 2019, and 273 dating from the period between May and October 2021.

The questionnaires consist of 3 general questions (gender, age, stay purpose), and 9 questions by which guests are asked to evaluate different

¹ <https://ihg.medallia.com>

categories related to their stay (overall experience, likelihood to recommend, overall arrival experience, overall service, overall room experience, cleanliness, overall bathroom experience, overall food and beverage experience, breakfast) on a 10 points rating scale.

Data description was shown as n (%), or median (range). The normality of the distribution of numerical data was assessed based on the Shapiro-Wilk test and the appearance of histograms. The correlation between *Overall experience* and other variables was estimated using the Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient. Quantile regression was used to model the relationship between the scores of *Overall experience* and other evaluated variables that were potential predictors.

Statistical hypotheses were analysed at the level of significance of 0.05.

Statistical data analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA).

RESULTS

The total number of guests included in the research was 591. The following table shows the characteristics of guests in terms of gender, age, stay purpose, and the year in which they visited one of the aforementioned hotels.

Table 1. Characteristics of guests

Characteristics	n (%)
Gender	
Male	441 (74.6%)
Female	150 (25.4%)
Age category	
18-34	84 (14.2%)
35-49	269 (45.5%)
50-64	187 (31.6%)
65+	51 (8.6%)
Stay purpose	
Business	299 (50.6%)
Leisure	292 (49.4%)
Year	
2019	318 (53.8%)
2021	273 (46.2%)

(Authors' analyses)

There were more male guests among the respondents (74.6%). In terms of age, the majority of the respondents are between 35 and 49 years old (45.5%). Business was the professed purpose of the stay in the majority of the responses (50.6%). Of the total number of guests, 53.8% of them visited the hotels in 2019, and 46.2% in 2021.

The following table shows the categories that were evaluated in the questionnaires.

Table 2. Evaluated categories

Evaluated categories	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Overall experience	9.00	1	10
Likely to recommend	10.00	1	10
Overall arrival experience	10.00	1	10
Overall service	10.00	1	10
Overall guestroom experience	10.00	1	10
Cleanliness	10.00	1	10
Overall guest bathroom experience	9.00	1	10
Overall food and beverage experience	9.00	1	10
Breakfast	9.00	1	10

(Authors' analyses)

The range of scores was between 1 and 10. Guests rated all categories with high scores.

The variables do not have a normal distribution (Shapiro Wilk test, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and quantile regression were used for correlation analysis. *Overall experience* is the outcome variable. Quantile regression was used to model the correlation between *Overall experience* and potential predictors.

The following table shows the correlations between the evaluated *Overall experience* and other evaluated individual categories.

Table 3. Correlations between evaluated Overall experience and other evaluated individual categories

Correlations with Overall experience		2019	2021	Total
Likely to Recommend	rho	0.829	0.861	0.844
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Overall arrival experience	rho	0.680	0.718	0.697
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Overall service	rho	0.721	0.737	0.727
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Overall guestroom experience	rho	0.717	0.776	0.745
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Cleanliness	rho	0.585	0.707	0.642
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Overall guest bathroom experience	rho	0.585	0.642	0.611
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Overall food and beverage experience	rho	0.607	0.649	0.628
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Breakfast	rho	0.583	0.656	0.619
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

(Authors' analyses)

*rho – Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

When the Spearman coefficient is positive, the higher value of one variable is related to the higher values of the other variables. There are statistically significant correlations between all individual categories and *Overall experience* evaluated in both 2019 and 2021. P-value is <0.001 for all categories. The Spearman coefficient is the highest for the category *Overall guestroom experience*, if the category *Likely to recommend* is excluded. As is, the category *Likely to recommend* was not taken into consideration. The Spearman coefficient was higher for all categories in relation to 2021 than in relation to 2019, and the biggest difference was evident in the category of *Cleanliness*.

All potential predictors of *Overall experience* are included in the multivariate quantile regression model. The results are shown in the following table.

Table 4. Predictors of overall experience

Parameter	B	p-value
Overall arrival experience	0.143	<0.001
Overall service	0.357	<0.001
Overall guestroom experience	0.429	<0.001
Cleanliness	<0.001	1.000
Overall guest bathroom experience	<0.001	1.000
Overall food and beverage experience	<0.001	1.000
Breakfast	0.071	<0.001

(Author's analyses)

Statistically significant predictors of higher values of overall experience are: higher *Overall arrival experience* ($B = 0.143$; $p < 0.001$), higher *Overall service* ($B = 0.357$; $p < 0.001$), higher *Overall guestroom experience* ($B = 0.429$; $p < 0.001$) and higher rate of *Breakfast* ($B = 0.071$; $p < 0.001$). The variable *Overall guestroom experience* has the highest B coefficient. This variable also had the highest value of Spearman's correlation coefficient.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Guest experience and guest satisfaction are among the most important concerns of hotel management. A hotel cannot be successful without satisfied guests who are willing to come back and be the source of positive word-of-mouth. This study's main objective was to discover whether there was any specific category that guests evaluated after their stay which could be considered the most influential factor determining overall guest experience. The results showed that all the categories the guests evaluated in feedback questionnaires (*Overall arrival experience*,

Overall service, Overall room experience, Cleanliness, Overall bathroom experience, Overall food and beverage experience, Breakfast) had a statistically significant impact on overall experience. Therefore, hotel management should think of all service aspects, from check in, through cleanliness, room and bathroom experience, and food and beverage, as factors influencing overall experience. However, *Overall guestroom experience* had the most statistically significant correlation with *Overall experience*. Hence, management of rooms should constantly work on improving the main hotel product – the rooms. Future studies could focus on exploring, in more detail, the room attributes which impact guest satisfaction and experience the most. This study is also limited by the fact that guest feedback was obtained upon the guests' departure and by e-mail, instead of in person during their stay, at the moment of experiencing the hotels' services and facilities. Furthermore, this research was restricted to four and five-star city hotels – the range of hotels considered could be expanded in future research.

Another aim of this research was to find out whether there were differences in the correlations between the evaluated categories before and during the Covid-19 period. Although there were statistically significant correlations between individual categories and *Overall experience*, the Spearman coefficient was higher for all categories in relation to 2021 than in relation to 2019, and the biggest difference was in the category of *Cleanliness*. The reason for the higher values of the Spearman coefficient in 2021 may be that hotels provided a better service than before the outbreak of Covid-19 in an attempt to recover business. Alternatively, guests were more satisfied because travel restrictions were gradually being lifted. These assumptions could be tested in future research. As far as cleanliness is concerned, it is evident that cleanliness became more important for guests during the Covid-19 period than it had been before. The impact of cleanliness on overall satisfaction was stronger than it had been before. Having in mind that guests have higher expectations, management should consider hotel cleanliness an inevitable part of service quality, as well as a room attribute that is among the most important for overall room experience.

Guest satisfaction analysis is extremely useful in order to recognise the most important aspects of a company's performance which contribute to guest satisfaction.

REFERENCES

- Akbaba, A. (2005). Measuring service quality in the hotel industry: A study in a business hotel in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(2), 170-192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2005.08.006>.
- Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The Impact of Physical Surroundings on Customers and Employees. *Journal of Marketing*, 56(2), 57-71. DOI: 10.1177/002224299205600205.

- Čerović, S. (2020). *Strategijski menadžment u turizmu. [Strategic management in tourism]*. Beograd, Univerzitet Singidunum.
- Djeri, L., Božić, S., & Seker, R. (2018). Exploring the difference between performance and importance of particular hotel attributes: The case study of hotel Galleria in Subotica. *Teme*, 42(1), 77-95. 10.22190/TEME1801077D
- Gursoy, D. & Chi, C.G. (2020). Effects of COVID-19 pandemic on hospitality industry: review of the current situations and a research agenda. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 29(5), 527-29. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2020.1788231.
- Hao, F., Xiao, Q., & Chon, K. (2020). COVID-19 and China's Hotel Industry: Impacts, a Disaster Management Framework, and Post-Pandemic Agenda. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 90(102636). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102636>.
- Hecht, J. & Martin, D. (2006). Backpacking and hostel-picking: an analysis from Canada. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 69-77. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110610641993>
- Herédia-Colaço, V., & Rodrigues, H. (2021). Hosting in turbulent times: Hoteliers' perceptions and strategies to recover from the Covid-19 pandemic. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94(102835). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102835>.
- Hoffman, K.D., Kelley, S.W. & Chung, B.C. (2003). A CIT investigation of servicescape failures and associated recovery strategies. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 17(4), 322-340. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040310482757>.
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. & R. Mullen, M. (2013). The servicescape as an antecedent to service quality and behavioural intentions, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 27(4), 271-280. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876041311330753>
- Jiang, Y. & Wen, J. (2020). Effects of COVID-19 on hotel marketing and management: a perspective article. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(8), 2563-2573. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2020-0237>.
- Kozak, M. (2002). Measuring tourist satisfaction with multiple destination attributes. *Tourism Analysis*, 7(3-4), 229-240(12). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3727/108354203108750076>.
- Lewis, R.C. (1987). The measurement of gaps in the quality of hotel services. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 6(2), 83-88. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319\(87\)90020-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(87)90020-X).
- Lockyer, T. (2003). Hotel cleanliness—how do guests view it? Let us get specific. A New Zealand study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(3), 297-305. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319\(03\)00024-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(03)00024-0).
- Lockyer, T. (2005). Understanding the dynamics of the hotel accommodation purchase decision. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(6), 481-492. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110510612121>.
- Magnini, V.P., Crotts, J.C., & Zehrer A. (2011). Understanding Customer Delight: An Application of Travel Blog Analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 535-545. doi:10.1177/0047287510379162.
- Manhas, P.S., & Tukamushaba E.K. (2015). Understanding service experience and its impact on brand image in hospitality sector. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 45, 77-87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.11.010>.
- Milislavljević, M. (1999). *Osnovi strategijskog menadžmenta. [Basics of strategic management]*. Beograd, Poslovna škola Megatrend.
- Milislavljević, M. (2003). *Marketing*. Beograd, Savremena administracija a.d.

- Milislavljević, M., & Todorović, J. (1991). *Strategijsko upravljanje. [Strategic management]*. Beograd, Ekonomski fakultet Beograd.
- Milislavljević, M., & Todorović, J. (2000). *Marketing strategija. [Marketing strategy]*. Beograd, Ekonomski fakultet Beograd, Institut za tržišna istraživanja.
- Moreno-Perdigón M.C., Guzmán-Pérez B., & Mesa T.R. (2021). Guest satisfaction in independent and affiliated to chain hotels, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94(102812). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102812>.
- Nicolau, J.L., Mellinas, J.P., & Martín-Fuentes, E. (2020). Satisfaction measures with monetary and non-monetary components: Hotel's overall scores. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 87(102497). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102497>.
- Padma, P., & Ahn, J. (2020). Guest satisfaction & dissatisfaction in luxury hotels: An application of big data. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 84(102318). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.102318>.
- Peco-Torres, F., Polo-Peña, A.I., & Frías-Jamilena, D. (2021). The effect of COVID-19 on tourists' intention to resume hotel consumption: The role of resilience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 99(103075). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103075>.
- Petrović, J. (2020). Modified multi-criteria methods for improving service quality. *Teme*, 44(2), 533-548. <https://doi.org/10.22190/TEME180918038P>
- Pullman, M., McGuire, K., & Cleveland, C. (2005). Let Me Count the Words: Quantifying Open-Ended Interactions with Guests. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 46(3), 323-343. doi:10.1177/0010880405276309.
- Radojevic, T., Stanisic, N., Stanic, N. (2015). Ensuring positive feedback: Factors that influence customer satisfaction in the contemporary hospitality industry. *Tourism Management*, 51, 13-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.04.002>.
- Saleh, F., & Ryan C., (1992). Client perceptions of hotels: A multi-attribute approach, *Tourism Management*, 13(2), 163-168. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(92\)90058-F](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(92)90058-F).
- Shin H., & Kang J. (2020). Reducing perceived health risk to attract hotel customers in the COVID-19 pandemic era: Focused on technology innovation for social distancing and cleanliness. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91(102664). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102664>.
- Smart, K., Ma, E.Q.H., & Ding, L. (2021). COVID-19 impacts, coping strategies, and management reflection: A lodging industry case. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94(102859). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102859>.
- Torres, E.N., Fu, X. & Lehto, X. (2014). Examining key drivers of customer delight in a hotel experience: A cross-cultural perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 255-262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.09.007>.
- Vilnai-Yavetz, I. & Gilboa, S. (2010). The Effect of Servicescape Cleanliness on Customer Reactions. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 31(2), 213-234. DOI: 10.1080/15332961003604386.
- Vos, M.C., Galetzka, M., Mobach, M.P., Hagen, M., & Pruyn, A. (2019). Measuring perceived cleanliness in service environments: Scale development and validation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 83, 11-18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.04.005>.
- Vukosav, S., Wallrabenstein, K., Bradić, M., & Garača, V. (2020). Hotel product perceived quality: a case study of city hotels in Vojvodina (Serbia)- a factor analysis. *Teme*, 44(1), 268-283. 10.22190/TEME180423019V

- Wakefield, K.L. & Blodgett, J.G. (1996). The effect of the servicescape on customers' behavioural intentions in leisure service settings. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 10(6), 45-61. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876049610148594>.
- Weaver, P.A. & Chul Oh, H. (1993). Do American Business Travellers Have Different Hotel Service Requirements? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 5(3). <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596119310040525>.
- Zemke, D.M.V., Neal, J., Shoemaker, S. & Kirsch, K. (2015). Hotel cleanliness: will guests pay for enhanced disinfection? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(4), 690-710. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2014-0020>.
- Zhou, L., Ye, S., Pearce, P.L., & Wu, M.Y. (2014). Refreshing hotel satisfaction studies by reconfiguring customer review data. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 38, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.12.004>.

ФАКТОРИ КОЈИ УТИЧУ НА СВЕУКУПАН ДОЖИВЉАЈ ГОСТИЈУ У ХОТЕЛИМА У ЈУГОИСТОЧНОЈ ЕВРОПИ

Јована Лончар, Слободан Черовић
Универзитет Сингидунум, Београд, Србија

Резиме

Како је задовољство купаца један од основних циљева сваке организације и њене пословне филозофије, тако је задовољство гостију главни циљ хотелске компаније. Менаџмент хотела настоји да изгради успешан однос са гостима како би их боље разумео и како би могао да одговори на њихове потребе. Задовољни гости су лојални и типично чешће имају намере да убудуће поново користе хотелске услуге и хотел препоручују другима. Анкете гостију се користе као део маркетинг стратегије и стратегије управљања за мерење задовољства гостију, како би се прикупиле информације о мишљењу гостију о различитим аспектима услуге и стекао бољи увид у очекивања гостију. У овом раду анализирани су упитници који су послати гостима након њиховог боравка у хотелима са четири звездице у четири различита града у Југоисточној Европи: Београду, Љубљани, Софији и Букурешту, током 2019. и 2021. године. Гости су у упитницима на скали од 1 до 10 оцењивали различите појединачне услуге у хотелу, као и свеукупан доживљај током боравка. Циљ је био да се истражи који појединачни фактори најзначајније утичу на укупно задовољство боравком у хотелу, као и да ли постоји разлика у периодима пре и током пандемије Ковид 19. Категорије које су гости оцењивали су: укупан доживљај, сервис, долазак, соба, купатило, чистоћа, храна и пиће, доручак. Подаци су статистички анализирани на основу 590 узорака. Резултати су показали да највећи утицај на укупан доживљај има задовољство хотелском собом. Што се тиче упоредне анализе података који се односе на 2019. и 2021. годину, резултати су показали да је корелација између свих појединачних категорија и укупног доживљаја већа у 2021. години, а највећа за категорију чистоће. Ово се може објаснити важношћу чистоће током пандемије. Менаџмент хотела може да примени резултате истраживања приликом стратегијског планирања и управљања квалитетом производа и услуга. Резултати такође могу наћи примену у креирању понуде и стварању конкурентске предности.

**CRIMINAL GROUPS –
CRIMINOLOGY AND SECURITY PERSPECTIVES
(CASE STUDY: BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA)^a**

Mile Šikman*, Velibor Lalić

University of Banja Luka, Faculty of Security Studies, Banja Luka,
Republika Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract

This paper analyses court cases which qualified as organised crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H). The final judgments were analysed according to the following criteria: the number of defendants; the continuity of membership within the crime organisation; the existence of criminal structure; the existence of a developed plan of activities; the type and number of the offences committed; influence on public authorities, the judiciary, and citizens; and sentences imposed on the defendants. This paper seeks to identify the extent to which court judgments are based on these criteria. A secondary analysis of the data related to the organised crime cases heard in the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the period between 2015 and 2018 was conducted. This analysis encompassed 21 organised crime cases in which 27 judgments were pronounced. In the observed period (2015-2018), we identified two organised criminal groups that meet the criteria analysed. The identified number of organised criminal groups is minimal in relation to the total number of organised crime cases processed. Our findings contradict the prevailing view in public discourse that organised crime is a widespread security threat in B&H. The findings of our research demonstrated the existence of legal gaps, reflected in the lack of clear criteria on the basis of which OCGs can be distinguish from other forms of criminal activity. Legal and institutional weaknesses create opportunities for OCGs to operate and create a sense of insecurity among citizens in the already complex security environment in B&H.

Key words: organised crime, organised criminal groups, Bosnia and Herzegovina, security

^a This paper was presented at the conference *Criminal Justice and Security in Central and Eastern Europe: Perspectives of Rural Safety, Security and Rural Criminology*, Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Maribor. The conference was held between September 13 and 15, 2021 (Šikman & Lalić, 2021).

* Corresponding author: Mile Šikman, University of Banja Luka, Faculty of Security Studies, Bulevar Živojina Mišića 10a, 78000 Banja Luka, Republika Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina, mile.sikman@pf.unibl.org

ОРГАНИЗОВАНЕ КРИМИНАЛНЕ ГРУПЕ – КРИМИНОЛОШКИ КОНТЕКСТ И БЕЗБЕДНОСНЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВЕ (СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА: БОСНА И ХЕРЦЕГОВИНА)

Апстракт

У овом раду анализирају се судски предмети квалификовани као организовани криминал у Босни и Херцеговини (БиХ). Правоснажне пресуде анализирани су према следећим критеријумима: број окривљених, континуитет чланства, постојање криминалне структуре, постојање израженог плана активности, врста и број почињених кривичних дела, утицај на органе власти, судство и грађани, казне изречене оптуженима. Овај рад настоји да идентификује у којој мери су судске пресуде засноване на овим критеријумима. Извршена је секундарна анализа података у предметима организованог криминала који су се водили пред Судом Босне и Херцеговине између 2015. и 2018. године. Овом анализом обухваћен је 21 предмет организованог криминала у оквиру којих је донето 27 пресуда. У посматраном периоду (2015–2018.) идентификовали смо две организоване криминалне групе које испуњавају анализирани критеријум. Идентификовани број организованих криминалних група је минималан у односу на укупан број процесуираних предмета организованог криминала. Наши налази су у супротности са преовлађујућим ставом у јавном дискурсу да је организовани криминал широко распрострањена претња безбедности у БиХ. Налази нашег истраживања су показали да постоје правне празнине у погледу јасних критеријума на основу којих се организоване криминалне групе могу разликовати од других облика криминалне делатности. Правне и институционалне слабости стварају могућности за рад организоване криминалне групе и стварају осећај несигурности међу грађанима у ионако сложеном сигурносном окружењу у БиХ.

Кључне речи: организовани криминал, организоване криминалне групе, Босна и Херцеговина, сигурност

INTRODUCTION

Organised crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina [B&H] has a decades-long genesis. The first period encompasses the years preceding the beginning of the Bosnian War in 1992, and is characterised by the crime situation of the former joint state, especially as concerns the attitudes toward the criminal phenomenon of organised crime¹. The second period can be observed during the span of the Bosnian War, in the period between 1992 and 1995 (Griffiths, 1999; Andreas, 2004), and it includes various forms of war profiteering, the grey economy, and the illicit trafficking of excise

¹ Available research indicates that although the forms of organised crime (though not all forms) manifested themselves in the pre-war SFRY (Petrović & Dobovšek, 2007; Petrović & Meško, 2008), the authorities did not recognise the existence of this criminal phenomenon, which was in fact a reflection of the then crime policies (Cf. Marinković, 2010, p. 68; Ignjatović & Škulić, 2012, pp. 80-95).

goods, military equipment, weapons or ammunition². It is worth mentioning that the sanctions and embargoes imposed by the international community during the Bosnian War led, albeit unintentionally, to the spread of organised crime in B&H, which also had an impact on the period following the lifting of those sanctions (Bradly, 2012, p. 16; Andreas, 2005, p. 335). Afterwards, organised crime erupted in the period between 1995 and 2000, characterised by criminal activities related to reconstruction, and the transfer of public capital to the private sector, or the so-called privatisation³. During this period, criminal activities related to arms trafficking intensified and the routes used for drug trafficking, illicit cigarette trade, and human trafficking, which had previously been disrupted, were re-established. Finally, the period between the year 2000 and the present moment is characterised by ‘traditional’ organised crime and the formation of typical organised criminal groups, including the commission of criminal acts inherent in this criminal phenomenon such as drug trafficking, human trafficking, arms trafficking, organised violent crime, and so on (Šikman, 2011). The legal and institutional framework against organised crime in B&H developed alongside organised crime. International documents dealing with this issue were ratified,⁴ key legal provisions were adopted⁵ and government bodies⁶ responsible for detecting and prosecuting the perpetrators of organised crime were established.

Previous research on organised crime in B&H had a different goal and purpose, which conditioned the available research results. In this regard, Bradly (2012) points out that the extent of organised crime in B&H

² Previous studies indicate that there are a total of 1,244,142 weapons in B&H, of which 1,098,762 (or 88.31%) are held by civilians, while there are 144,378 firearms (11.61%) within government institutions at the state and entity levels, and the level of the Brcko District of B&H. Agencies which provide property and people protection services possess 1,002 weapons (0.08%) (Hadžović, Kržalić & Mihajlović, 2011, p. 4).

³ Fragmented legal and economic space and regional economic connections established in the war economy provided a unique set of opportunities for organised crime (Vijeće Evrope & Evropska unija, 2006, p. 80).

⁴ For example, B&H adopted and ratified: the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime Palermo, 15.11.2000.), which came into effect internationally and internally on September 29, 2003 (Službeni glasnik BiH broj: 03/2002); the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, which came into effect internationally and internally on January 28, 2004 (Službeni glasnik BiH, broj: 03/2002); and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime came into effect internationally and internally on December 25, 2003 (Službeni glasnik BiH broj: 03/2002).

⁵ The Criminal Code of B&H was adopted in 2003, and it systematised provisions on organised crime (Krivični zakon BiH, 2003).

⁶ We primarily mean specialization within the judicial bodies and the police agencies in B&H.

cannot be fully determined due to the complexity of the state system (p. 4). According to the “Study on Organized Crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina”, numerous criminal associations involved in various organised criminal activities were formed in B&H in a relatively short time (Centar za sigurnosne studije [CSS], 2014). Additionally, as a part of the UNODC (2020) project entitled “Measuring and assessing organized crime in the Western Balkans”, a study using statistical data and an analytical framework to measure and assess organised crime in six Western Balkan countries was conducted (p. 5). Also, it is important to point out the judicial practice regarding organised crime cases in B&H (Marković, 2008; Smajić, 2010; Maljević, 2020; Jamaković, 2019). It should also be noted that the USAID (2019) published the “Universal Benchbook on How to Prosecute and Adjudicate Corruption, Economic Crime, and Organized Crime Cases”, dealing with important issues in prosecuting and adjudicating those criminal offences. Finally, two studies, which were the starting point of our research, were published (Šikman, 2019, Simović & Šikman, 2019). What was concluded is that judicial practice in criminal cases is quite unequal and different (Šikman, 2019), which certainly had an impact on the appropriateness of the penal policy in these cases (Simović & Šikman, 2019).

Given the existing social circumstances in B&H and the possible security implications, it seems that this phenomenon does not attract much interest among professionals or scholars. Of particular concern is the rather broad approach to the criminal prosecution of offences regarded as organised crime. This inevitably reflects upon specific criminal proceedings before the competent authorities, and the image of the prevalence of this criminal phenomenon. This does not mean that organised crime does not exist in B&H. Rather, indictments are more often brought forth for the forms of criminal organisation that do not have elements of organised crime. And precisely because of that, in theory and in practice, a distinction is made between organised crime and other forms of criminal activity.

The aim of this paper is to analyse court cases in B&H which qualified as organised crime based on the criteria for differentiating organised crime from other criminal offences established in scholarly literature. This paper seeks to identify the extent to which court judgments are based on these criteria. Such an approach is important for an objective view of the situation of organised crime, and thus for an appropriate response to the same problem.

ORGANISED CRIME IN B&H

A review of previous studies indicates that organised crime has been present in B&H for more than 30 years (Brady, 2012; Smajić, 2010; Petrović & Dobovšek, 2007; Petrović & Meško, 2008), manifesting itself in various forms (Šikman, 2011). So far, various assessments of the situa-

tion of organised crime have been conducted in B&H. The official position on organised crime in B&H indicates that it is a very dangerous and harmful phenomenon, which directly affects the stability and security of the country, undermines the rule of law, and harms economic growth (Savjet ministara B&H [SM B&H], 2017, p. 7). In this regard, the document entitled “Organized crime threat assessment in B&H“ and adopted by the Council of Ministers of Bosnia and Herzegovina (Savjet Ministara B&H [SM B&H], 2016), states that all hitherto differentiated forms of organised crime are still present in B&H (p. 4). It also points to the tendency in criminal groups in B&H and countries in the region, which relates to the emergence of young perpetrators and their gradual introduction as increasingly important perpetrators of various types of organised crime offences (Ministarstvo bezbjednosti B&H, [MB B&H], 2018, p. 27). At the same time, according to the UNODC (2020) data collected in B&H for the period between 2012 and 2017, the majority of convictions for organised crime offences were related to arms trafficking, which accounted for as much as 76% of all convictions, while convictions for drug trafficking accounted for 17%. The Council of Ministers noted that “According to available data, the largest number of organized criminal groups in B&H are engaged in illicit trafficking in narcotics and human trafficking, as these are the most lucrative criminal activities” (SM B&H, 2016, p. 7). However, it seems that the Western Balkans, including B&H, is no longer just a ‘transit region’, because local drug consumption is also increasing (Amerhauzer & Kemp, 2021, p. 13). An increasing number of B&H citizens participating in international drug smuggling and trafficking chains (Šikman, 2019), including residents of other countries who are staying (hiding) in B&H⁷, should be added to this. This is a cause for serious concern, which could lead to a sudden expansion of organised crime in B&H.

Additionally, a number of studies addressing organised crime in B&H indicate that this criminal phenomenon has a huge impact on citizens’ perceptions of security. Thus, the “Study on Organized Crime in B&H” reports that:

respondents believe that corruption and organized crime contribute to their feeling of being unsafe (69%), followed by violence with the use of weapons 49.3% (bank robberies, shopping malls robberies, cash-in-transit robberies...), and street crime (theft, shoplifting, pickpocketing) with 46.3%.
(CSS, 2014, p. 7)

⁷ The conflict between two criminal clans from Montenegro, the so-called “Kavački” and “Škaljarski” clans, is well known in the Western Balkans, and a number of members of the two clans have their helpers in the neighboring countries, primarily Serbia and B&H. Numerous murders, kidnappings and other violent offences are connected to this perennial conflict.

However, this is not reflected in judicial practice regarding organised crime cases⁸. It could even be said that this data is contradicting. If we add to this the lengths of the sentences imposed, which are mainly below the statutory minimum, it is clear that such a penal policy is not in line with the purpose of punishment in regards to these offences (see more: Šikman, 2019).

CRIMINAL LAW FRAMEWORK

The Criminal Code of B&H (2003) defines a structured group (Article 1, para. 21) and an organised criminal group (Article 1, para. 22) in the General Part. This may be regarded as a reflection of modern criminal policy and harmonisation with the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000). Specifically, the definitions of key terms in the Convention (Article 2), such as “organized criminal group” (para. a), “serious crime” (para. b) and “structured group” (para. c) make a clear distinction between organised crime and other criminal offences. In this sense, the criminal offence of organised crime (Article 250) has two forms. The first form refers to an individual who commits a criminal offence provided for in the B&H Criminal Code as a member of an organised criminal group, unless a more severe penalty is prescribed for a particular criminal offence (paragraph 1), or an individual who, as a member of an organised criminal group, commits a criminal offence provided for in the B&H Criminal Code, which is punishable by three years in prison or a more severe penalty if one is prescribed for a specific criminal offence (paragraph 2). In the first case, a sentence of imprisonment of no less than three years is prescribed, while in the second case, a sentence of imprisonment of no less than five years is prescribed. The second form refers to an individual who organises or in any way directs and manages an organised criminal group which by joint action commits or attempts to commit a criminal offence provided for in the B&H Criminal Code. A sentence of imprisonment of no less than ten years, or a long-term sentence, is passed for this form of offence (paragraph 3). Less serious forms of this offence occur when an individual becomes a member of an organised criminal group which by joint action commits or attempts to commit a criminal offence provided for in the B&H Criminal Code, unless a more severe punishment is prescribed for a particular criminal offence. A sentence of imprisonment of at least one year (paragraph 4) is prescribed. Fi-

⁸ This problem may be regarded as particularly pronounced, given that there is extensive judicial practice regarding organised crime in B&H, because criminal proceedings have been conducted for these crimes before the courts of all instances and jurisdictions since 2003 (Simović & Šikman, 2019).

nally, for criminal and political reasons, it is prescribed that a member of an organised criminal group who exposes that group may be released from punishment (paragraph 5). Thus, it is essential to determine the existence of the basic elements of an organised criminal group in a specific criminal event.

Accordingly, it is necessary to prove the connection (objective and subjective in nature) of three or more persons who, for a certain period of time, act in agreement with the aim of committing one or more criminal offences, which carry the sentence of imprisonment of over three years or a more serious sentence, in order to acquire material gain (Article 1, paragraph 22). In this sense, the main elements of an organised criminal group are the following (USAID, 2019, p. 88): systematic (the existence of a specific and connected system of work in the operation of an organised criminal group); organised (the forming and existence of a group with an organisational structure, with a clear division of roles among its members); hierarchy (the existence of superiors and subordinates among the organisers and the members of an organised criminal group); authority (which is reflected in the respect for the decisions and ideas of the group leader); and the methods applied by the organisers and members of organised criminal groups in their criminal activities. The goal of every organised criminal group is always the acquisition of material gain. The commission of serious crimes and the impact on public authorities, the judiciary, and citizens should be added to this (Šikman, 2011).

This is particularly significant, because determining the clear structure of an organised criminal group, its organiser, the number of its members, their roles and tasks, and the time frame of and motivations for joint actions represents an important feature of these crimes. Therefore, it would be necessary to prove that an organised criminal group was organised to acquire material gain and has a clear hierarchical structure, whereby the organiser wilfully acted as an organiser and manager, and the members of the group wilfully participated in criminal activities as members, so that each member carried out predetermined tasks. Within the organisation's activities, an additional criterion for the existence of organised crime has to be met, and it consists of intimidation and threats used by the organiser in relation to other members of the organisation (S1 2 K 006087 11 K). In other words, if it is not possible to determine or prove these elements, then the criminal offence of organised crime does not exist (Šikman, 2019).

METHODOLOGY

A secondary analysis of the data contained in the court cases for organised crime heard in the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina⁹ in the period between 2015 and 2018 was carried out (Sud B&H, n.d.). The analysis included 21 organised crime court cases, in which 27 judgments were passed on 44 people. Individual criminal offences perpetrated by organised criminal groups were selected using subject analysis (see Šikman, 2019; Simović & Šikman, 2019).

The judgments were analysed according to the following criteria: number of indicted persons; continuity of membership (the existence of awareness of joint actions and the execution of activity for the purpose of joint action); the existence of criminal structure (organiser/and groups and membership in the group); the existence of a developed plan of activities (division of roles and type of duty); type and number of criminal offences committed; influence on public authorities, judicial bodies and citizens; and criminal sanctions imposed against defendants.

For the purposes of data analysis, a matrix was created, into which the previously coded parts of the text of the judgments were entered. All entered data from the judgments was analysed according to the established criteria.

FINDINGS

In the analysed court judgments, the numbers within and composition of the groups¹⁰ were different and ranged from the minimum number of members – three to thirty-two members. According to the gender structure of the perpetrators, male perpetrators dominated¹¹, while their age structure varied from 23 to 55 years of age, with the largest number of convicted persons being between 30 and 50 years old. A number of the criminal groups analysed had a clear hierarchical structure (S1 2 K 006087 11 K and S1 2 K 015384 14 K), while other groups were made up of interconnected persons with loose connections between them (S1 2 K 020632 16 K; S1 2 K 024459 17 K; S1 2 K 025666 17 K) (Šikman, 2019).

⁹ The data was collected through the website of the Court of B&H, by selecting the year (2018, 2017, 2016, 2015), *Department* (department II), and *Type of Judgment* (First-Instance judgment) in the section *Judicial Practice of B&H* (Sud BiH, n.d.).

¹⁰ Interestingly, in two cases, the organised criminal group consisted of parents and their children (S1 2 K 023545 17 Ko.; S1 2 K 017901 15 K). Although these were the only cases of this nature in the judgments analysed, many studies show a substantial correlation between the criminal activity of parents and their children, and the possible implications should not be overlooked (van Dijk, Kleemans, Eichelsheim, 2019).

¹¹ In the court judgments analysed, which included 44 convicted persons, only one female was found (S1 2 K 017901 17 Kžk.).

Our findings indicated that all the criteria on the basis of which we qualify a certain criminal activity as organised crime were fully met in only two cases. The details of the criminal cases filed against Z.T. et al (S1 2 K 006087 14 Kžk) and D.E. et al (S1 2 K 013756 15 Kž 3; S1 2 K 015384 17 Kž), are as follows:

- The criminal group Z.T consisted of 14 members, while the criminal group D.E. consisted of 32 members;
- The criminal group Z.T. operated between early 2005 and September 2010, while the criminal group D.E. operated between 2005 and 2008. The continuity of membership in the organised criminal group follows from the above mentioned, considering that this is a ‘certain’ period of time. In contrast, in some criminal cases, it was established that the group operated for six months (S1 2 K 019373 15 K; S1 2 K 017901 15 K; S1 2 K 019332 15 K; S1 2 K 023109 16 K), which is obviously a period of time during which special investigative actions are applied, therefore the elements of continuity of membership are not visible in the reasoning of the judgment;
- During the same period, in the cases of Z.T. and D.E., elements of complicity were achieved, and they are reflected in the willingness to act jointly (mental elements) and the undertaking of joint actions for the purpose of committing criminal acts (objective elements). In another court case analysed, the mentioned elements were determined through indications (S1 2 K 020632 16 K), which is not typical in relation to an organised criminal group. In other words, if the elements of complicity, and aiding and abetting cannot be determined on the bases of material and testimonial evidence, then the question arises as to what type of group it is;
- There was an established criminal structure in these criminal groups, because it was clear who the organiser of the criminal group was, and who its members were. Thus, in the criminal group D.E., the Court found that: “E.D. and D.B. within each interconnected and organized group: made decisions and ordered the execution of activities, arranged and planed the execution of actions, executed the agreed activities with other members, supervised and controlled the execution of actions and decided on the splitting of proceeds derived from the agreed criminal acts executed by the group” (S1 2 K 015384 14 K), whereby the identical qualification was given in the case of the criminal group Z.T. (S1 2 K 006087 11 K). In contrast to the above, in some criminal cases the Court considered that there was an organised criminal group “without the need to determine the individual actions or the actions carried out by the organizer of the group, given that membership in the group exists as a criminal offense” (S1 2 K 020632 16 K). Although in this case there is a certain

degree of organisation, it is evident that the defendants acted quite independently. Also, in the second case, it was stated that the defendant was a member of an organised criminal group, but there was nothing within the statement that would indicate the specific organisation and structure of the group (S1 2 K 025168 17 Ko). Also, in a third criminal case, it was stated that the defendant “developed a plan” and “organized an organized criminal group” (S1 2 K 027624 18 K), which cannot be a sufficient explanation for the existence of an organised criminal group;

- These criminal groups had a developed plan of the activities of the group, with clearly defined roles and responsibilities for each member. This was proven in the case of the criminal group Z.T (S1 2 K 006087 11 K). A similar legal qualification was found in the case of the criminal group D.E. (S1 2 K 015384 14 K);
- The criminal group Z.T. was formed for the purpose of conducting drug trafficking (heroin and cocaine), while the criminal group D.E. was organised for the purpose of committing criminal offences to obtain mutual or personal material gain. Thus, the criminal group D.E. committed a cash-in-transit robbery in the settlement of Nedžarići in Sarajevo in June 2006, and stole 2.2 million euros which belonged to the Commerce Bank of Sarajevo (S1 2 K 015384 14 K), while the criminal group Z.T. committed a robbery in 2007 at the Sarajevo International Airport (Cargo centre) and stole about 2.5 million KM (S1 2 K 006087 11 K);
- The aforementioned criminal groups had committed several criminal offences during the period of their activity, including those for which purpose they were formed, as well as other serious criminal offences (for example, the criminal group D.E., among other things, was charged with three murders, an attempted murder, etc.). In other court cases, the persons were charged with the offence of Organised Crime; however, during the course of the criminal proceedings, it was determined that the elements of this criminal offence did not exist and the indictment was amended to charge a different criminal offence¹² (S1 2 K 014792 14 K and S1 2 K 023838 16 K). Additionally, persons were charged with the criminal offence of Organised Crime in conjunction with the criminal offence of Forgery of Documents and Verification of False Content in three of the studied court cases, (S1 2 K 027624 18 K; S1 2 K 026064 17 Kž; S1 2 K 026155 17 Kž). These are certainly not typical organised crime offences;

¹² Thus, in the criminal case S 1 2 K 014792 14 K, the B&H Prosecutor's Office submitted an amended indictment charging the defendants with the criminal offence of International Procuring in Prostitution under Article 187, Paragraph 1 of the B&H CC.

- By perpetrating their activities, these criminal groups exerted impact and disturbed the public. This is supported by the fact that the criminal group Z.T. was proved to have committed five murders in a particularly cruel (e.g., the murder of a pregnant woman), insidious (using the victim's trust) and callous manner (kill 'certified' by a shot to the head), causing great unrest, fear, and feelings of unsafety among the citizens (S1 2 K 006087 11 K). Also, the criminal group D.E. disturbed the general public by the manner in which the crimes were committed. A typical method of execution consisted of firing automatic rifles from a moving vehicle, which had previously been stolen, and abandoning and setting the vehicle on fire after killing the target (S1 2 K 015384 14 K);
- The verdicts passed in the criminal cases discussed confirmed that, given the length of the sentence, these were serious criminal charges. Thus Z.T., as the organiser, was sentenced to the maximum prison sentence of 40 years, while another member of the group was sentenced to long-term imprisonment (35 years), and the remaining defendants to prison sentences (S1 2 K 006087 14 Kžk). In another case, a member of the group was sentenced to 20 years in prison (S1 2 K 015384 14 K). The decision of the Appellate Panel in the same case can be cited as an example of appropriateness, because it upheld the appeal filed by the Prosecutor's Office of B&H and amended the sentence of the first-instance court (the prison sentence was increased for another member from 13 to 15 years) (S1 2 K 013756 15 Kž 3). On the other hand, in some criminal cases, a sentence was passed based on a plea agreement, which is particularly surprising if we take into account that the agreement was concluded with the group organiser (S1 2 K 019373 15 K; S1 2 K 019332 15 K; S1 2 K 023545 17 Ko), and that this practice is not in line with the criminal and political orientation regarding organised crime cases.¹³ An even more controversial issue is the imposition of sentences in the cases which qualified as organised crime. Thus, sentences below the statutory minimum were passed in these cases (S1 2 K 019332 15 K; S1 2 K 023109 16 K; S1 2 K 023545 17 Ko; S1 2 K 024459 17 K), including a suspended sentence (S1 2 K 021401 16 K); S1 2 K 027624 18 K; S1 2 K 025666 17 K), although the defendants had previously been convicted of the same criminal offences.

¹³ "Benefits" are usually given to members of an organized criminal group who decide to cooperate with judicial bodies, which is prescribed by the law.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Since the 1980s, there has been considerable debate whether and to what extent a specific group and/or its activities constitute organised crime (Hagan, 1983, p. 52). In this sense, it was accepted that organised crime can be defined in relation to its members or in relation to the activities of a criminal group (Mallory, 2012, p. 2). Although these two models of organised crime, the Mafia Model (Paoli, 2003) and the Activity Model (van Duyne, 1997), have been maintained to this day (Paoli, 2016), the prevailing view is that the terms ‘criminal organisation’ and ‘criminal network’¹⁴ must be defined and agreed upon (von Lampe, 2002, p. 197). Some scholars (Finckenauer, 2005) define special characteristics of organised crime. Finally, the criminal group occupies a central place in international legal documents (United Nations, 2000; European Commission, 2008), as well as in most national legislation. That is the reason we decided to consider a typical example of a criminal group which constitutes organised crime, and to determine its differences from those criminal activities that are not organised crime.

Based on the conducted research, two key conclusions were reached. First, it is evident that there are reliable criteria based on which it is possible to determine that a certain group is an organised criminal group. These criteria include the number of members, the continuity of membership, joint action, clear group structure, the existence of the division of tasks and defined roles among its members, the type and number of offences committed, influence on citizens, and the type and length of the sentences passed. If these elements can be proven in relation to a specific criminal activity, then an organised criminal group exists.

Secondly, although the existence of the aforementioned elements was found in other studied cases, it cannot be claimed with certainty that an organised criminal group or an organised crime offence exist. Specifically, the fact that three or more persons jointly perpetrated a criminal offence is not sufficient – a higher level of their mutual connection is required. Likewise, the type and number of crimes committed clearly indi-

¹⁴ This concept has often been criticised. For example, Woodiwiss (2000) states that there are two main problems with the global pluralistic theory of organised crime: “The first is that Mafia-type groups only participate in illegal markets, despite countless claims to the contrary, they rarely, if ever, control them. The second problem with the global pluralistic theory is that, like the Mafia conspiracy theory, it uses semantics to camouflage the involvement of respectable institutions in organised criminal activity. However, as a great deal of historical and contemporary research shows, government agencies and key institutions, such as corporations, have frequently gained from and sometimes helped to sustain organised crime (Block & Chambliss, 1981; Chambliss, 1978; Gardiner, 1970; McCoy, 1991; Pearce, 1976; Ravlinson, 1998; Ruggiero, 1996)” (as cited in Woodiwiss, 2000).

cates the difference between the levels of criminal organisation. Thus, an organised criminal group will have a tendency to operate for a long period of time and to continuously perpetrate criminal offences; however, an organised group may be formed for the purpose of perpetrating one criminal offence (or possibly an extended criminal offence).

An important difference between an organised criminal group and an organised group, according to the derived criteria, lies in the type and length of the sentence. Although the most severe penalties are prescribed for organised crime offences which are, as a rule, usually imposed (as confirmed in the court cases analysed), milder sentences, even suspended sentences were passed in other cases. The question arises as to how it is possible to charge a person with an organised crime offence and subsequently sentence him/her to a suspended sentence. Clearly, in such cases, the offences were not regarded as organised crime offences. Also, the filing of charges for crimes which cannot be regarded as ‘typical’ organised crime offences was evident. This example relates to the criminal offences of document forgery and false certification. It seems illogical to organise an organised criminal group in order to commit these offences. We do not have a proper answer to this question, except that it is an irrational organised crime charge. Such judicial practice is not the best choice, because it ‘blunts’ the edge of criminal justice in these cases.

It is very important to establish clear criteria and make a distinction between these two concepts, although this is not entirely precisely determined by the current judicial practice. Today, it is considered that understanding and presenting the essential elements of organised crime leads to a successful criminal investigation (Mallory, 2012, p. 11). Specifically, a systematic investigation into activities in the fight against organised crime indicates that we need to have a better understanding of it, which means understanding its key characteristics today, especially its transnational dimension, and describing its specific local characteristics (Longo, 2010).

The findings of this research confirm that, in the observed period (2015-2018), the number of organised criminal groups in B&H was minor in relation to the total number of the cases processed. In other words, it is possible that organised crime processed in courts significantly differs from actual organised crime in B&H (Maljević, 2020). This conclusion is significant not only because it points to inconsistencies in the application of criminal law but also because it has broader implications. In literature (Dobovšek, 2006; Muehlmann, 2008) and public discourse (MB B&H, 2018), the prevailing opinion is that organised crime is a widespread phenomenon in B&H. Such views are not based on empirical verification. In this regard, further research is necessary, on the basis of which practical policy would assess the situation and design policies to reduce crime, including organised crime.

REFERENCES

- Amerhauzer, K., & Kemp, V. (2021). *Snažnije zajedno: Jačanje otpornosti civilnog društva na Zapadnom Balkanu* [Stronger Together: Strengthening the Resilience of Civil Society in the Western Balkans]. Geneva: Global Initiative Against Transnational Organized Crime.
- Andreas, P. (2004). Criminalized legacies of war: the clandestine political economy of the Western Balkans. *Problems of Post-Communism*, 51(3), 3–9.
- Andreas, P. (2005). Criminalizing Consequences of Sanctions: Embargo Busting and Its Legacy. *International Studies Quarterly*, 49, 33–360.
- Brady, S. (2012). *Organizovani kriminal u Bosni i Hercegovini – tih rat koji iz zasjede vode bezubi tigrovi ili rat koji još nije vođen* [Organized crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina – a silent war fought in the ambush by toothless tigers or a war not yet waged]. Sarajevo. Retrieved from <https://sarconint.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/OK-u-BiH-BHS-verzija.pdf>
- Centar za sigurnosne studije. (2014). *Studija o organizovanom kriminalu u Bosni i Hercegovini* [Study on Organized Crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina]. Sarajevo: Centar za sigurnosne studije.
- Dobovšek, B. (2006). Transnational organised crime in the Western Balkans. In *First Annual Conference on Human Security, Terrorism and Organized Crime in the Western Balkan Region*, organized by the HUMSEC project in Ljubljana, 23-25 November 2006. Retrieved from https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/102341/2_Dobovsek.pdf
- European Commission. (2008). Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council based on Article 10 of Council Framework Decision 2008/841/JHA of 24 October 2008 on the fight against organised crime. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=CELEX:52016DC0448&from=en>
- van Duyne, P. (1997). Organized Crime, Corruption, and Power. *Crime, Law, and Social Change*, 26, 201–38.
- van Dijk, M., Kleemans, E., & Eichelsheim, V. (2019). Children of Organized Crime Offenders: Like Father, Like Child? An Explorative and Qualitative Study Into Mechanisms of Intergenerational (Dis)Continuity in Organized Crime Families. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 25, 345–363.
- Finckenauer, J. (2005). Problems of Definition: What is Organized Crime? *Trends in Organized Crime* 8(3), 63–82.
- Griffiths, H. (1999). A political economy of ethnic conflict ethno-nationalism and organised crime. *Civil Wars*, 2(2), 56–73.
- Hagan, F. (1983). The Organized Crime Continuum: A Further Specification of a New Conceptual Model. *Criminal Justice Review*, 8(2), 52–57.
- Hadžović, D., Kržalić, A., & Mihajlović, S. (2011). *Studija o malom i lakom naoružanju* [A study on small arms and light weapons]. Sarajevo: UNDP.
- Ignjatović, Đ., Škulić, M. (2012). *Organizovani kriminalitet* [Organized crime]. Beograd: Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu.
- Jamaković, A. (2019). Politika sankcionisanja počinitelja organizovanog kriminaliteta u i van zločinačkog kolektiviteta u praksi Suda bosne i hercegovine za period 2009 – 2015. godine [Sanctioning policy against perpetrators of organized crime within and outside the criminal community in the practice of the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina for the period 2009 - 2015]. *Društvena i tehnička istraživanja*, 2/2019, 107–127.

- Krivični zakon BiH, Službeni glasnik BiH [Criminal Code of BiH, Official Gazette of BiH] br. 3/2003, 32/2003 - ispr., 37/2003, 54/2004, 61/2004, 30/2005, 53/2006, 55/2006, 8/2010, 47/2014, 22/2015, 40/2015, 35/2018, 46/2021.
- Longo, F. (2010). Discoursing Organized Crime: Towards a Two-Level Analysis. In F. Allum, F. Longo, D. Irrera, & P. Kostakos (Eds.), *Defining and Defying Organised Crime* (pp.17-31). London: Routledge.
- Paoli L. (2016). Towards a Theory of Organized Crime: Some Preliminary Reflections. In G. Antonopoulos (Ed.), *Illegal Entrepreneurship, Organized Crime and Social Control*. Studies of Organized Crime, Vol. 14. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31608-6_1
- Paoli, L. (2003). *Mafia brotherhoods: Organized Crime, Italian style*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Petrović, B., & Dobovšek, B. (2007). *Mreže organiziranog kriminala [Organized crime networks]*. Sarajevo: Pravni fakultet Univeziteta u Sarajevu.
- Petrović, B., & Meško, G. (2008). *Kriminologija [Criminology]*. Sarajevo: Pravni fakultet Univeziteta u Sarajevu.
- Mallory, S. (2012). *Understanding Organized Crime*. Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett.
- Maljević, A. (2020). Organizovani kriminal u Bosni i Hercegovini - između teorije i prakse [Organized crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina – between theory and practice]. *Pravna misao*, 7-8/2020, 7–26.
- Marković, M. (2008). Organizirani kriminal u presudama Suda Bosne i Hercegovine (u 2006. i 2007. godini) [Organized crime in the judgments of the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina (in 2006 and 2007)]. *Pravo i pravda*, 1, 339–351.
- Marinković, D. (2010). *Suzbijanje organizovanog kriminaliteta [Suppression of organized crime]*. Beograd: Prometej.
- Ministarstvo bezbjednosti BiH. (2018). *Informacija o stanju sigurnosti u Bosni i Hercegovini u 2017. godini [Information on the security situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2017]*. Sarajevo: Ministarstvo bezbjednosti BiH.
- Muehlmann, T. (2008). EU Civil–Military Cooperation and the Fight against Organised Crime: Lessons to be Learned from the Bosnian Example. *European Security*, 17(2-3), 387–413.
- Savjet ministara BiH. (2017). *Strategija za borbu protiv organizovanog kriminala u Bosni i Hercegovini (za period 2017. – 2020. godine) [Strategy for the Fight against Organized Crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina (for the period 2017-2020)]*. Sarajevo: Savjet ministara BiH.
- Savjet Ministara BiH. (2016). *Procjena prijetnje od organizovanog kriminaliteta u Bosni i Hercegovini [Organized crime threat assessment in Bosnia i Herzegovina]*. Sarajevo: Savjet ministara BiH.
- Simović, M., & Šikman, M. (2019). Adequacy of Penal Policy in Criminal Cases of Organized Crime. *Teme*, 43(4), 931–956.
- Smajić, M. (2010). Organizovani kriminal u Bosni i Hercegovini - Tranzicijske dileme [Organized crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina – Transitional dilemmas]. *Pregled*, 2/2010, 203–225.
- Sud BiH, (n.d.). *Sudska praksa Suda Bosne i Hercegovine [Judicial practice of the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina]*. Retrieved from <http://www.sudbih.gov.ba/>
- Šikman, M., Lalić, V. (2021). Organized Criminal Groups – Criminology Context and Security Perspectives (Case Study: Bosnia and Herzegovina). In Mesko, G., Dobovšek, B., Tominc, B. (Eds.). *Criminal Justice and Security in Central and Eastern Europe – Perspectives of Rural Safety, Security and Rural Criminology, Book of Abstracts* (p. 126). Maribor: University of Maribor Press, Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security.

- Šikman, M. (2019). Organizovani kriminalitet – kriminalistička i sudska praksa u Bosni i Hercegovini [Organized crime – criminalistic and judicial practice in Bosnia and Herzegovina]. U *Kaznena politika i prevencija kriminaliteta [Penal policy and crime prevention]*, (369-392). Trebinje: Srpsko udruženje za krivičnopravnu teoriju i praksu.
- Šikman, M. (2011). *Organizovani kriminalitet [Organized crime]*. Banja Luka: Visoka škola unutrašnjih poslova.
- UNODC. (2020). *Measuring and assessing organized crime in the Western Balkans*. Vienna: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. Retrieved from <https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/OC/Measuring-OC-in-WB.pdf>
- United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocols Thereto, General Assembly resolution 55/25 of 15 November 2000.
- USAID. (2019). *Vodič kroz dobre prakse u procesuiranju koruptivnih krivičnih djela, krivičnih djela sa finansijskim elementom i krivičnih djela organizovanog kriminala i Priručnik za opšta pitanja krivičnog postupka* [Universal bench book on how to prosecute and adjudicate corruption, economic crime, and organized crime cases and General issues of the criminal procedure]. Sarajevo: USAID.
- Vijeće Evrope i Evropska unija. (2006). *Izveštaj o stanju u oblasti organizovanog i privrednog kriminaliteta* [Situation Report on Organised and Economic Crime]. Strastoburg: Vijeće Evrope i Evropska unija. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/16806ef39f>
- von Lampe, K. (2002). Organized Crime Research in Perspective. In: P. van Duyne, K. von Lampe, & N. Passas (Eds), *Upperworld and Underworld in Cross-Border Crime*. (pp.189-198). Nijmegen: Wolf Legal Publishers.
- Woodiwiss, M. (2000). Organized Crime – The Dumbing of Discourse. In G. Mair & R. Tarling (Eds.), *The British Criminology Conference 1999: Selected Proceedings*. Vol 3. Liverpool.

Presude Suda BiH [Judgments - Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina]:

1. S1 2 K 027624 18 K
2. S1 2 K 017901 17 Kžk
3. S1 2 K 019373 15 K
4. S1 2 K 017901 17 Kž
5. S1 2 K 023109 17 Kž
6. S1 2 K 023109 16 K
7. S1 2 K 023545 17 Ko
8. S1 2 K 020632 17 Kž
9. S1 2 K 024459 17 K
10. S1 2 K 025666 17 K
11. S1 2 K 026064 17 Kž
12. S1 2 K 026064 17 K
13. S1 2 K 026155 17 Kž
14. S1 2 K 026684 17 Ko
15. S1 2 K 014792 14 K
16. S1 2 K 006087 14 Kžk
17. S1 2 K 025168 17 Ko
18. S1 2 K 021401 16 K
19. S1 2 K 023617 16 Ko
20. S1 2 K 023838 16 K

21. S1 2 K 021292 16 K
22. S1 2 K 013756 15 Kž 3
23. S1 2 K 015384 17 Kž
24. S1 2 K 019332 15 K
25. S1 2 K 013756 14 K
26. S1 2 K 006087 14 Kžk
27. S1 2 K 006087 11 K.

ОРГАНИЗОВАНЕ КРИМИНАЛНЕ ГРУПЕ – КРИМИНОЛОШКИ КОНТЕКСТ И БЕЗБЕДНОСНЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВЕ (СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА: БОСНА И ХЕРЦЕГОВИНА)

Миле Шикман, Велибор Лалић

Факултет безбједносних наука, Универзитет у Бањој Луци, Бања Лука,
Република Српска, Босна и Херцеговина

Резиме

Организовани криминал у Босни и Херцеговини (БиХ) има вишедеценијску генезу, која се може посматрати кроз неколико периода. Истовремено, развијао се правни и институционални оквир против организованог криминала у БиХ, укључујући ратификацију међународних докумената и увођење потребних инкриминација у домаће законодавство (организова криминална група, појединачна кривична дела, и др.). Према ономе што претхдона истраживања сугеришу чини се да не постоји довољно интересовања за овај феномен, како код стручне, тако и научне јавности. Посебно забрињава прилично широк приступ када се ради о кривичном процесуирању дела која се сматрају организованим криминалом. То се неминовно одражава и на конкретне кривичне поступке који се воде пред надлежним органима, али и на стање слике о распрострањености овог криминалног феномена. То не значи да организовани криминал не постоји у БиХ, већ да се много чешће подижу оптужбе и за оне облике криминалног организовања које немају елементе организованог криминала. Управо се због тога у теорији и пракси и прави разлика између онога што јесте организовани криминал и онога што није.

Из тог разлога је припремљен овај рад. Његов циљ јесте да се на основу утврђених критеријума у литератури, који се односе на то шта се сматра организованим криминалом, анализирају правноснажни судски предмети у БиХ који су квалификовани као организовани криминал. Намера је да идентификујемо у којој су мери судске пресуде базиране на тим критеријумима. Такав приступ је значајан ради објективног сагледавања стања организованог криминала, а самим тим и адекватног одговора на исти проблем. Такође, организовани криминал у БиХ треба да буде анализиран и у друштвеном контексту, будући да организоване криминалне групе делују у одређеном друштвеном окружењу.

Резултати истраживања потврђују да је у посматраном временском периоду (2015–2018) број организованих криминалних група у БиХ био миноран у односу на укупан број процесуираних предмета. Другим речима, могуће је да је процесуирани организовани криминал значајно другачији од стварног организованог криминала у БиХ.

THE AWARENESS OF REGULATIONS IN THE FIELD OF OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY OF HEALTHCARE PROFESSIONALS – A CASE STUDY

Aleksandra Ilić Petković*, Vesna Nikolić, Tamara Vukić

University of Niš, Faculty of Occupational Safety, Niš, Serbia

Abstract

The global pandemic crisis caused by the coronavirus has demonstrated the importance of occupational safety of healthcare professionals. Workplace risks are not the same across all categories of healthcare professionals. This research is focused on healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions. We wanted to explore to what extent healthcare professionals are familiar with their rights and obligations in the field of occupational safety. Empirical research was conducted using the survey method. The research sample consisted of healthcare professionals (medical doctors and nurses/technicians) employed at the Special Hospital for Psychiatric Diseases Gornja Toponica in Niš. The study included 215 respondents. The age of the respondents ranged between 20 and 64 years. Their educational qualifications varied from high school education to completed PhD studies. We concluded that the majority of healthcare professionals included in the sample were familiar with legal regulations in the field of occupational safety and health. This is encouraging if we bear in mind the fact that the knowledge of how to react in specific cases, the need for cooperation with persons in charge of occupational safety, and care for occupational safety are preconditions for reducing occupational risks, improving health and increasing safety.

Key words: healthcare professionals, risks, occupational safety and health, regulations

ПОЗНАВАЊЕ ПРОПИСА О БЕЗБЕДНОСТИ И ЗДРАВЉУ НА РАДУ ЗДРАВСТВЕНИХ РАДНИКА – СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА

Апстракт

Светска пандемијска криза узрокована корона вирусом указала је на значај заштите на раду здравствених радника. Ризици на радном месту нису исти за све

* Corresponding author: Aleksandra Ilić Petković, University of Niš, Faculty of Occupational Safety, Čamojevića 10, 18000 Niš, Serbia, aleksandra.ilic@zrfak.ni.ac.rs

категорије запослених у здравственим установама. Предмет овог истраживања је усмерен на здравствене раднике у психијатријским установама. Нас је интересовало да истражимо колико здравствени радници познају своја права и обавезе у области безбедности и здравља на раду. Спроведено је емпиријско истраживање. Истраживачки узорак су чинили здравствени радници (лекари и медицинске сестре/техничари) запослени у Специјалној болници за психијатријске болести „Горња Топоница“ у Нишу. У истраживање је било укључено 215 испитаника старосне доби у распону између 20 и 51 и више година, и стручне спреме од средње школе до доктората. Закључили смо да већина здравствених радника познаје законску регулативу из области безбедности и здравља на раду. Овај податак је охрабрујућ уколико се пође од чињенице да познавање начина реаговања у конкретним случајевима, потреба за сарадњом са лицима задуженим за безбедност и обавеза да се води рачуна о безбедности радног места представљају предуслов за смањење професионалних ризика, унапређење здравља и повећање безбедности.

Кључне речи: здравствени радници, ризици, безбедност и здравље на раду, прописи

INTRODUCTION

The health of the world's population has significantly improved in the last decades, partly due to the improved effects of prevention, diagnostics, treatment and recovery methods. The global pandemic caused by COVID-19 has caused global changes in different aspects of contemporary existence (Videnović, Hanić & Sućeska, 2021), and emphasised problems in healthcare systems. Despite these advances, there are some segments of the healthcare system that require improvement. The analysis of these features is important in order to take the steps necessary to solve the problems (Holland, 2016). One of these is the position of healthcare providers, or healthcare professionals. Due to the introduction of market competition and self-regulation in the health sector, healthcare institutions in many countries have faced numerous challenges and an uncertain future (Van Wijngaarden, Scholten & Van Wijk, 2012) as, nowadays, the healthcare system strives to achieve financial sustainability in addition to providing quality healthcare (De Rosis & Nuti, 2018). In achieving these complex goals, it is possible to neglect healthcare professionals, and especially their occupational safety and health.

Healthcare professionals are faced with numerous challenges of occupational safety and health. They are not the same across all categories of healthcare professionals, and they also differ depending on the type of service that a healthcare institution provides. Researchers have paid special attention to the occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions. Psychiatry is considered one of the most stressful medical disciplines, since healthcare professionals in this field treat chronic or incurable patients with mental illnesses (Liu, Wang & Zhao, 2015). They often face continuous stress, develop burnout

syndrome, and job dissatisfaction (Spear, Wood, Chawla et al, 2004), and they are at high risk of developing some psychiatric disorders (Finnøy, 2009). Occupational safety and health problems in psychiatric institutions are particularly emphasised in literature on nurses, who play a major role in providing care for patients with mental illnesses (Heydari, Meshkin-yazd, & Soudmand, 2017). All this points to the need to further study the issue of occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals – medical doctors and nurses in psychiatric institutions. The aim of this analysis is to explore the problem and point to its possible practical solutions, since safe, healthy and satisfied healthcare professionals undoubtedly provide better healthcare to their patients (Rey, Walter & Giuffrida, 2004).

BACKGROUND

The Challenges of Occupational Safety and Health Faced by Healthcare Professionals in Psychiatric Institutions

The analysis of sources on the occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions pointed out some frequent problems, which are a common research subject. These include several groups of problems - workplace stress, burnout syndrome, job dissatisfaction, lack of motivation to work, and workplace violence.

Healthcare institutions are often a very stressful place for healthcare professionals (Andres Rozo, Olson et al, 2017). Workplace stress occurs when the demands of the work environment exceed the employee's ability to cope with them (EUOSHA, 2002). Frequent sources of workplace stress include work overload, poor interpersonal relationships, organisational structure and climate, an insufficient number of associates in a team, and on-call duty (Družić Ljubotina & Friščić, 2014; Knežević, Golubić, Milošević et al, 2009).

Workplace stress can lead to burnout syndrome. It is a negative work-related psychological state which includes a whole range of symptoms – physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and loss of motivation, among others (Freudenberger, 1974). It denotes the employee's state of frustration or fatigue (Freudenberger, 1980), wherein they disconnect from their job and feel physically and emotionally exhausted (Kafry & Pines, 1980). This growing feeling of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal achievement (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) implies a pessimistic view of oneself and one's environment, which leads to psychosomatic exhaustion (Kahn, 1978). When an employee suffers from emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1976), there is a progressive loss of energy (Škrinjar, 1996), which is followed by a cynical attitude towards the environment and distance from colleagues (Maslach, 1982). Growing inefficiency at work further leads to fear, frustration, and emotional exhaus-

tion (Golembiewski, 1989). Numerous studies have shown that burnout syndrome is more common in healthcare professionals who are in daily contact with patients (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). They are expected to continuously demonstrate assertiveness, technical abilities, and physical fitness. Many factors which lead to burnout in health professionals have not yet been sufficiently researched, but there are studies arguing that it is largely the result of work environment factors (Bilal & Hafiz Mushtaq, 2016; Bejer, Domka-Jopek, Probachta et al, 2019).

Every employee has certain expectations from the work organisation. When employees' expectations and needs are met, productivity is obviously higher (Temesgen, Wubie Aychew & Tesema Leshargie, 2018). Additional risks to the safety and health of healthcare professionals are a lack of motivation to work and job dissatisfaction. Healthcare professionals' low motivation to work has a great impact on the patients themselves. This issue requires the attention of the healthcare institution's management (Đorđević, Petrović, Vuković et al, 2015). Job satisfaction represents an individual's cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions towards their job. Many studies point to a relationship between job satisfaction, productivity and commitment to work (Marković, Deljanin Ilić, Milošević et al, 2013). For healthcare professionals, it is an important factor which determines the quality of the healthcare provided and affects the work of the entire health system. Research shows that gender, age, level of education, years of experience, salary and working hours are important factors influencing healthcare professionals' job satisfaction (Grujičić, Jovičić, Rađen et al, 2016).

Workplace violence, as a violent act directed at an individual at work or on duty, is a phenomenon that seriously endangers the health of employees (Yao, Wang, Wang et al, 2014). Some definitions of workplace violence include only physical violence, while others define it as only psychological (WHO, 2002). It is also defined as any behaviour intended to harm an employee or the organisation itself (Neuman & Baron, 1998). These are incidents in which persons have been threatened or attacked in work-related circumstances (Fišeković Krečić, 2016). According to the EU, workplace violence is most prevalent in public administration and defense (14%), followed by the education and healthcare systems (12%) (Paunović & Kosanović, 2010). Nurses are considered to be particularly at risk of workplace violence (Milutinovic, Prokeš, Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2009). The existence of violence against healthcare professionals in psychiatric facilities is evidenced by the fact that one of the first models of on-the-job training was developed at St. Thomas Psychiatric Hospital in 1976 (Lipscomb & El Ghaziri, 2013). Despite state regulations and the organisations' warnings, it still exists as a workplace hazard in healthcare facilities (Arbury, Zankowski, Lipscomb et al, 2017).

Some other hazards can be noticed, such as the communication of team members within a healthcare organisation (Manojlovich & Antonakos, 2008), hostile behaviour in the workplace (Kordić & Babić, 2014), work-family conflict, physical and mental health problems (Zhang, Punnett & Nannini, 2017), and patient satisfaction (Vermeir, Downs, Degroote et al, 2018).

Legal Regulations on the Occupational Safety and Health of Healthcare Professionals in Psychiatric Institutions in the Republic of Serbia

Occupational safety and health is a right that is clearly recognised in the legal system of the Republic of Serbia. It is guaranteed to all employees by the Constitution of Serbia (2006). Legal regulations on the occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions can be divided into several groups.

The first group consists of regulations on occupational safety and health which apply to all categories of employees, including healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions. This includes the Law on Occupational Safety and Health (2005), and rulebooks and decrees based on this law. This law regulates the implementation and improvement of the occupational safety and health of employees, including healthcare professionals, with the aim of preventing workplace injuries, occupational diseases and work-related diseases. It allows the employer and employee to regulate their mutual rights, obligations and responsibilities in relation to occupational safety and health in more detail by a collective agreement, the organisation's rulebook on occupational safety and health, or the employment contract. There is a Special Collective Agreement for Health Institutions in Serbia founded by the Republic of Serbia, an autonomous province, and a unit of local self-government (2019), which dedicates an entire chapter to the occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals.

The second group consists of regulations which regulate employment relationships in Serbia in general terms, including labour relations of healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions. The basic law in this group is the Labor Law (2005), which regulates the rights, obligations and responsibilities of the employment subject, and to which the right to safe and healthy working conditions belongs. On the basis of this law, there are a number of decrees which also regulate employment relationships that refer to healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions. Certain segments of occupational safety are regulated by other laws, such as the Law on Prevention of Harassment at the Workplace (2010).

The third group of regulations, which incorporates specific legal solutions pertaining to the features of the occupational safety and health of healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions, consists of acts that regulate the healthcare system of Serbia. The Law on Healthcare Protection (2019) and the Law on Protection of Persons with Mental Disorders (2013) are of special importance for healthcare professionals in psychiat-

ric institutions. They are accompanied by the Rulebook on Detailed Conditions for Performing Healthcare Activities in Healthcare Institutions and Other Gorms of Healthcare Services (2006) and the Rulebook on the Conditions and Manner of Internal Organization of Healthcare Institutions (2006). The Law on Protection of Persons with Mental Disorders is accompanied by the Rulebook on Detailed Conditions for the Application of Physical Restraint and Isolation of Persons with Mental Disorders who are in Treatment in Psychiatric Institutions (2013), which also regulates certain issues of importance for these employees.

In addition to the above documents, the Occupational Safety and Health Convention No. 155 (1981), and the Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention No. 187 (2006), adopted by the ILO, are part of our legal system. These conventions have been ratified by the Republic of Serbia, and they establish the basic principles according to which a system of safety and health at work should be established in the country that ratifies them. The regulations of our country rely on these conventions in their legal solutions, and this likewise pertains to the safety and health at work of healthcare workers in psychiatric institutions.

METHODS

An empirical research was conducted. A survey questionnaire was designed for the purposes of this research. The research was based on a sample of healthcare professionals (doctors and nurses/technicians) employed at the Special Hospital for Psychiatric Diseases *Gornja Toponica* in Niš who voluntarily agreed to participate in the research. The study included 215 respondents (140 women and 75 men). The age of the respondents ranged between 20 and 64 years. Their educational qualifications varied from high school education to completed PhD studies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The structure of the respondents based on their level of education is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Structure of respondents based on their level of education

Educational qualifications	N	%
High school degree	145	68.4
(higher) Vocational education	41	19.3
University degree (bachelor, master, specialisation)	25	11.8
PhD	1	0.5
Total	212	100

Source: Authors' research

Table 2. Knowledge on occupational safety and health

	Educational qualifications	Strongly agree		Partly agree		Undecided		Partly disagree		Strongly disagree		χ^2	df	p
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
I am aware that employee and employer rights and obligations in the field of occupational safety and health are regulated by the Law on Occupational safety and health	High school	86	59.3	43	29.7	9	6.2	4	2.8	3	2.1	40.960	12	0.000
	Vocational	28	68.3	9	22	2	4.9	1	2.4	1	2.4			
	University	21	84	3	12	1	4	0	0	0	0			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0			
	Total	135	63.7	55	25.9	12	5.7	6	2.8	4	1.9			
I am aware that the Risk Assessment Act has identified all possible hazards to my workplace	High school	67	46.2	39	26.9	21	14.5	10	6.9	8	5.5	15.083	12	0.237
	Vocational	26	63.4	8	19.5	3	7.3	3	7.3	1	2.4			
	University	13	52	9	36	3	12	0	0	0	0			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0			
	Total	106	50	56	26.4	28	13.2	13	6.1	9	4.2			
When establishing an employment relationship, I was trained for safe and healthy work by the employer	High school	68	46.9	53	36.6	6	4.1	12	8.3	6	4.1	26.653	12	0.009
	Vocational	20	48.8	17	41.5	2	4.9	2	4.9	0	0			
	University	14	56	5	20	1	4	3	12	2	8			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0			
	Total	102	48.1	75	35.4	10	4.7	17	8.0	8	3.8			
I believe that I am familiar with all types of workplace risks and safety measures in the jobs I perform	High school	71	49	53	36.6	9	6.2	8	5.5	4	2.8	21.868	12	0.039
	Vocational	24	58.5	11	26.8	3	7.3	2	4.9	1	2.4			
	University	15	60	8	32	1	4	0	0	1	4			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0			
	Total	110	51.9	72	34	13	6.1	11	5.2	6	2.8			
I have the right to give suggestions, remarks and notifications to the employer on the issues of occupational safety and health	High school	65	44.8	32	22.1	19	13.1	13	9	16	11	12.636	12	0.396
	Vocational	22	53.7	5	12.2	8	19.5	4	9.8	2	4.9			
	University	15	60	5	20	2	8	1	4	2	8			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0			
	Total	102	48.1	42	19.8	30	14.2	18	8.5	20	9.4			
When my life and health are in imminent danger because the prescribed OSH measures have not been implemented at my workplace, I have the right to refuse to work until these measures are provided.	High school	68	47.2	40	27.8	13	9	8	5.6	15	10.4	20.093	12	0.065
	Vocational	17	41.5	12	29.3	2	4.9	5	12.2	5	12.2			
	University	10	40	8	32	3	12	0	0	4	16			
	PhD	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0			
	Total	95	45	60	28.4	18	8.5	14	6.6	24	11.4			

When my life and health are in imminent danger, I have the right to take appropriate measures in accordance with my knowledge and available resources at my disposal.	<i>High school</i>	85	58.6	38	26.2	9	6.2	8	5.5	5	3.4	26.634	12	0.017
	<i>Vocational</i>	18	43.9	14	34.1	6	14.6	2	4.9	1	2.4			
	<i>University</i>	15	60	7	28	2	8	0	0	1	4			
	<i>PhD</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0			
	Total	118	55.7	59	27.8	17	8	11	5.2	7	3.3			
I am aware that there is a person in charge of occupational safety and health in my work organization	<i>High school</i>	108	74.5	18	12.4	8	5.5	1	0.7	10	6.9	4.215	12	0.979
	<i>Vocational</i>	31	75.6	3	7.3	3	7.3	0	0	4	9.8			
	<i>University</i>	21	84	3	12	0	0	0	0	1	4			
	<i>PhD</i>	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	Total	161	75.9	24	11.3	11	5.2	1	0.5	15	7.1			
I have the right to elect one or more representatives for occupational safety and health	<i>High school</i>	67	46.5	30	20.8	26	18.1	6	4.2	15	10.4	15.625	12	0.209
	<i>Vocational</i>	15	36.6	14	34.1	9	22	1	2.4	2	4.9			
	<i>University</i>	11	44	3	12	5	20	0	0	6	24			
	<i>PhD</i>	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0			
	Total	93	44.1	47	22.3	41	19.4	7	3.3	23	10.9			
I am obliged to apply the prescribed protection measures for safe and healthy work	<i>High school</i>	117	80.7	18	12.4	7	4.8	2	1.4	1	0.7	9.577	12	0.653
	<i>Vocational</i>	35	85.4	4	9.8	2	4.9	0	0	0	0			
	<i>University</i>	22	88	2	8	1	4	0	0	0	0			
	<i>PhD</i>	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	Total	174	82.1	25	1.8	10	4.7	2	0.9	1	0.5			
Before leaving my workplace, I am obliged to leave my workplace and means of work in a condition that does not endanger other employees.	<i>High school</i>	127	87.6	11	7.6	4	2.8	1	0.7	2	1.4	28.072	12	0.005
	<i>Vocational</i>	37	90.2	1	2.4	3	7.3	0	0	0	0			
	<i>University</i>	22	88	1	4	1	4	0	0	1	4			
	<i>PhD</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0			
	Total	186	87.7	13	6.1	9	4.2	1	0.5	3	1.4			
I am obliged to cooperate with my employer and person in charge of occupational safety and health	<i>High school</i>	118	81.4	14	9.7	5	3.4	3	2.1	5	3.4	11.554	12	0.482
	<i>Vocational</i>	34	82.9	5	12.2	2	4.9	0	0	0	0			
	<i>University</i>	20	80	3	12	1	4	0	0	1	4			
	<i>PhD</i>	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	Total	172	81.1	23	10.8	8	3.8	3	1.4	6	2.8			

Source: Authors' research

The data presented in Table 2 shows that the majority of the respondents are familiar with the fact that the Law on Occupational Safety and Health regulates the relations between employees and employers in this area, given that 63.7% of the respondents *strongly agree*, and 25.9% *agree* with the statement “I am aware that employee and employer rights and obligations in the field of occupational safety and health are regulated

by the Law on Occupational Safety and Health". By conducting the χ^2 test, it was determined that there is a statistically significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents regarding this claim ($p = 0.000$; $p < 0.05$). Despite the fact that it had been determined that healthcare professionals largely agree with the claim, their attitudes are related to their educational qualifications. The fact that healthcare professionals with a higher level of education are better acquainted with the existence of the Law on Occupational Safety and Health can be partly explained by the information that Occupational Medicine is studied as a subject at medical faculties, and that some of its segments are dedicated to legal solutions from the regulations regarding occupational safety and health. Additional knowledge on the regulations in the field of occupational safety and health is not acquired at the level of doctoral academic studies. All categories of employees, regardless of their education, should be familiar with the basic law governing occupational safety and health.

Healthcare professionals are also aware that the Risk Assessment Act identifies possible hazards and harms related to their workplace (50% of the respondents *strongly agree* and 26.4% of the respondents *agree*). Nevertheless, 13.2% of the respondents were *undecided*, including those with a PhD degree. There were those who responded with *partly disagree* (6.1%), and *strongly disagree* (4.2%), which points to their doubts regarding the issue. The fact that the majority of healthcare professionals are familiar with the Law on Occupational Safety and Health, and the Risk Assessment Act is encouraging.

When establishing the employment relationship, healthcare professionals are trained for safe and healthy work (48.1% *strongly agree* and 35.4% *partly agree*). They are familiar with the risks and protective measures at the jobs they perform (51.9% *strongly agree* and 34% *partly agree*). We must not neglect the possibility that they gave the expected and desirable answers because they are responsible individuals as regards the field of occupational safety and health. There are respondents who were undecided or expressed disagreement. Although their percentage is significantly lower, this data indicates their insufficient ability to work in a safe and healthy manner, which can be alarming. This may point to the fact that the training of employees for safe and healthy work in healthcare institutions is often conducted just as a formal obligation. The data obtained by conducting the χ^2 test shows that there is a statistically significant difference in the answers of the respondents when it comes to the claims "When establishing an employment relationship, I was trained for safe and healthy work by the employer" ($p = 0.009$; $p < 0.05$), and "I believe that I am familiar with all types of workplace risks and safety measures in the jobs I perform" ($p = 0.039$; $p < 0.05$), which suggests that the attitudes of healthcare professionals with a lower level of education are different from the attitudes of respondents with a higher level of education. In this case, there was a respondent with a PhD degree who was

undecided. Such a response is hard to explain since the employer's obligation applies to all employees regardless of their level of education.

Bearing in mind the percentage of positive responses (*strongly agree* and *partly agree*) to the claims related to the rights of employees, it can be concluded that the largest percentage of the surveyed healthcare professionals are familiar with their right to: give suggestions, remarks and notifications on the issues of occupational safety and health (48.1% *strongly agree*, 19.8% *partly agree*); refuse to work in the event of imminent danger to their health and life until the prescribed occupational safety and health measures are taken (45% *strongly agree*, 28.4% *partly agree*); take measures in accordance with their knowledge and available resources in case of imminent danger to life and health (55.7% *strongly agree*, 27.8% *partly agree*); and elect one or more representatives for occupational safety and health (44.1% *strongly agree*, 22.3% *partly agree*). Many respondents were *undecided* when it comes to their right to choose representatives for work (19.4%), and the largest disagreement pertains to the statement regarding the right of employees to give suggestions, remarks and notifications to the employer on occupational safety and health issues (8.5% *partly disagree* and 9.4% *strongly disagree*), which means that these healthcare professionals are not aware of all their rights. It is possible that healthcare professionals are denied these rights in practice, although they are prescribed by law, which is why they responded negatively. This group includes healthcare professionals with a PhD degree who are either *undecided* (in case of giving suggestions, remarks and notifications regarding occupational safety and health, and electing representatives for occupational safety and health) or show disagreement (in case of refusing to work when they are in imminent danger and taking action in such cases in accordance with their knowledge and available resources) with the claims relating to employees' rights.

By conducting the χ^2 test for the claims related to the employees' familiarity with the rights in the field of occupational safety and health, a statistically significant difference in the answers of the respondents was found for the claim "When my life and health are in imminent danger, I have the right to take appropriate measures in accordance with my knowledge and available resources at my disposal" ($p = 0.017$; $p < 0.05$). Despite the fact that the largest percentage of the respondents are familiar with this right, their answers vary depending on their level of education, as evidenced by the answer of a respondent with a PhD degree who *partly disagrees* with being familiar with this right.

Even though it is possible that healthcare professionals are denied their rights in the field of occupational safety and health, and that their answers regarding their knowledge of their rights are socially desirable, the percentage of those who stated that they are aware of their rights is significantly higher. It can be assumed that they will act accordingly in order to reduce occupational risks, while creating a safe and healthy environment.

The largest percentage (75.9%) *strongly agree* with the claim “I am aware that there is a person in charge of occupational safety and health in my work organisation”. There are those who show disagreement (6.9% of the respondents with high school degrees, and 9.8% of the respondents with (higher) vocational education *strongly disagree*).

They are aware of their obligations in the field of occupational safety and health – they *strongly agree* that: they are obliged to apply the prescribed protection measures for safe and healthy work (82.1%); before leaving their workplace, they are obliged to leave their workplace and means of work in a condition that does not endanger other employees (87.7%); and they are obliged to cooperate with the employer and the person in charge of occupational safety and health (81.1%). The questions are whether these answers are socially desirable, and whether these professionals adhere to their obligations. A statistically significant difference in the answers of the respondents was found for the claim “Before leaving my workplace, I am obliged to leave my workplace and means of work in a condition that does not endanger other employees” ($p = 0.005$; $p < 0.05$). In this case, a respondent with a PhD degree *partly disagreed*, which can be confusing.

The analysis of the data presented in Table 2 points to the conclusion that the majority of the healthcare professionals included in the research sample are familiar with the legislation in the field of occupational safety and health, as well as their rights and obligations in this field. This is encouraging if we consider the fact that knowing how to react in specific cases, the need for cooperation with persons in charge of occupational safety, and care for occupational safety are preconditions for reducing occupational risks, improving health and increasing safety.

The results of this research open up some important areas for further research at the intersection of occupational safety and health, and human resource management strategies in healthcare institutions. It could be interesting and useful to conduct some scientific research and to analyse both the types of risks to which healthcare workers in psychiatric institutions are exposed and their knowledge of the prescribed rights and obligations in the field of occupational health and safety. This kind of research would contribute to understanding the need for, and the possibilities of, improving the implementation of the principle of prevention through specific risks for these employees.

CONCLUSION

Personal rights and freedoms are the result of a long struggle for the respect of physical and personal integrity (Dimovski, 2021). Healthcare professionals are exposed to numerous workplace risks, which can seriously jeopardise their health. Occupational dysfunction is frequent

among healthcare professionals (Mutsumi & Makoto, 2019), and this has been proven by various studies (Harizanova & Stoyanova, 2020; Sagherian, Clinton, Abu-Saad Huijjer et al, 2017; Samur & Seren Intepeler, 2017).

This research shows that healthcare professionals in psychiatric institutions are particularly vulnerable as regards occupational safety and health due to the nature of the medical services they provide. For that reason, the employees' knowledge of the regulations in this area is a basic precondition for their implementation. The implications of this research should be observed in relation to the organisation of various forms of non-formal educational programmes for healthcare professionals in the field of occupational safety and health, especially in conditions of new workplace threats and risks.

The value of this paper lies in its potential to help understand the role of legal knowledge in managing risks, and improving the safety and working conditions in healthcare facilities. This would enable healthcare professionals to cope with occupational safety and health challenges (stress, burnout, lack of motivation, etc.) more easily, and to improve their overall health (Ilic Petković & Nikolić, 2020). Since the employer is, upon establishing an employment relationship, legally obliged to train their employees to conduct their work in a safe and healthy manner, and to periodically check their competence, it is clear that the employer (healthcare institution) needs to continuously analyse the threats posed to the safety and health of their employees. Healthcare professionals have a legal right and obligation to attend to their occupational safety and health, in which their knowledge of the prescribed rights, obligations and responsibilities of the healthcare institution, and their own rights can help them significantly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT. This research was funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia, Contract on the realisation and financing of scientific research work of the scientific research organisation in 2022, number 451-03-68/2022-14/ 200148.

REFERENCES

- Andres Rozo, J., Olson, D. et al. (2017). Situational factors associated with burnout among emergency department nurses. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 65(6), 262-265.
- Arbury, S., Zankowski, D., Lipscomb, J. et al. (2017). Workplace violence training programs for health care professionals, an analysis of program elements. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 65(6), 266-272.
- Bejer, A., Domka-Jopek, E., Probachta, M. et al. (2019). Burnout syndrome in physiotherapists working in the Podkarpackie province in Poland. *Work*, 64(4), 809-815.
- Bilal, A. & Hafiz Mushtaq, A. (2016). Organizational structure as a determinant of job burnout, an exploratory study on Pakistani pediatric nurses. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 65(3), 118-128.

- De Rosis S. & Nuti, S. (2018). Public strategies for improving eHealth integration and long-term sustainability in public health care systems: Findings from an Italian case study. *International Journal of Health Planning Management*; 33(1), 131–152.
- Družić Ljubotina, O. & Friščić, Lj. (2014). Profesionalni stres kod socijalnih radnika: izvori stresa i sagorijevanje na poslu [Occupational stress in social workers: sources of stress and burnout]. *Ljetopis socijalnog rada*, 21(1), 5-32.
- Dimovski, D. (2021). Restriction of Human Rights and State of Emergency. *TEME*, XLV(4), 1057–1079.
- Dorđević, D., Petrović, D., Vuković, D. et al. (2015). Motivation and job satisfaction of health workers in a specialized health institution in Serbia [Motivation and job satisfaction of health professionals in a specialized health institution in Serbia]. *Vojnosanitetski pregled*, 72(8), 714–721.
- EUOSHA. Factsheet 22 - Work-related stress. Belgium; 2002 Retrieved October 30, 2022, from <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/factsheets/22>.
- Finnøy, O. (2009). Job satisfaction and stress symptoms among personnel in child psychiatry in Norway. *Nordic Journal of Psychiatry*, 54(6): 397-403.
- Fišeković Krečić, M. (2016). Ispitivanje prediktora nasilja na radnom mestu kod zaposlenih u primarnoj zdravstvenoj zaštiti u Beogradu [Examination of predictors of workplace violence among employees in primary healthcare in Belgrade] (Doktorska disertacija). Beograd: Medicinski fakultet, Univerzitet u Beogradu.
- Freudenberger, H. (1974). Staff burnout. *Journal of Social Issues*, (30), 159-165.
- Freudenberger, H. (1980). Burnout: The high cost of high achievement. New York: Anchor Press.
- Golembiewski, R. (1989). A note on leiter's study: highlighting two models of burnout. *Group & Organization Management*, 14(5-13), 15-22.
- Grujičić, M., Jovičić, J., Rađen, S. at al. (2016). Radna motivacija i zadovoljstvo poslom zdravstvenih radnika u urbanim i ruralnim sredinama [Work motivation and job satisfaction of health professionals in urban and rural areas]. *Vojnosanitetski pregled*, 73(8), 735–743.
- Harizanova, S. & Stoyanova, R. (2020). Burnout among nurses and correctional officers. *Work*, 65(1), 71-77.
- Heydari, A., Meshkinyazd, A. & Soudmand P. (2017). The effect of spiritual intelligence training on job satisfaction of psychiatric nurses. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry*, 12(2), 128-133.
- Holland, W. (2016). Perspective: lessons from the past. *International Journal of Health Planning Managem.* 31(1), 5–24.
- Ilic Petković, A. & Nikolić, V. (2020). Educational needs of employees in work-related stress management. *Work*, 65(3), 661-669.
- Kafry, D. & Pines, A. (1980). The experience of tedium in life and work. *Human Relations*, 33, 477-503.
- Kahn, R. (1978). Job burnout: prevention and remedies. *Public Welfare*, 36(2), 61-63.
- Knežević, B., Golubić, R., Milošević, M. at al. (2009). Zdravstveni djelatnici u bolnicama i stres na radu: istraživanje u Zagrebu [Healthcare workers in hospitals and occupational stress]. *Sigurnost*, 51(2), 85-92.
- Kordić, B. & Babić, L. (2014). Maltretiranje na radu i karijerno savetovanje [Workplace bullying and career counseling]. *Engrami*, 36(3-4): 5-14.
- Lipscomb, J. & El Ghaziri, M. (2013). Workplace violence prevention: improving front-line health-care professional and patient safety. *New Solutions*, 23(1), 297-313.

- Liu, C., Wang, L. & Zhao, Q. (2015). Factors related to health - related quality of life among Chinese psychiatrists: occupational stress and psychological capital. *BMC Health Services Research*, 15(1), 20-10.
- Manojlovich, M. & Antonakos, C. (2008). Satisfaction of intensive care unit nurses with nurse-physician communication. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 38(1), 237-243.
- Maslach, C. (1976). Burned out. *Human Behavior*, (5), 16-22.
- Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The cost of caring*. New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.
- Maslach, C. & Jackson, E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2, 99-113.
- Milutinovic, D., Prokeš, B., Gavrilov-Jerkovic, V. et al. (2009). Mobing - osvrt na sestriinsku profesiju [Mobbing - a review of the nursing profession]. *Medicinski pregljed*, 62(11-12), 529-533.
- Mutsumi, T. & Makoto, K. (2019). Structural relationships among occupational dysfunction, stress coping, and occupational participation for healthcare professionals. *Work*, 64(4), 833-841.
- Neuman, H. & Baron, A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *JOM*, 24(3), 391-419.
- Occupational Safety and Health Convention No 155, Retrieved November 3, 2022, from https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C155
- Paunović, S. & Kosanović, R. (2010). Zlostavljanje na radu - mobing [Workplace harassment – mobbing]. *Socijalna misao*, 17(2), 37-47.
- Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention No. 187, Retrieved November 3, 2022, from https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C187
- Rey, J., Walter, G. & Giuffrida, M. (2004). Australian psychiatrists today: proud of their profession but stressed and apprehensive about the future. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, (38), 105–110.
- Sagherian, K., Clinton, M., Abu-Saad Huijjer, H. et al. (2017). Fatigue, work schedules, and perceived performance in bedside care nurses. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 65(7), 304-312.
- Samur, M. & Seren Intepeler, S. (2017). Factors influencing nurses' perceptions of occupational safety. *Archives of environmental & occupational health*, 72(1), 45–52.
- Spear, J., Wood, L., Chawla, S. et al. (2004). Job satisfaction and burnout in mental health services for older people. *Australasian Psychiatry*, 12(1), 58-61.
- Škrinjar, J. (1996). Odnos zanimanja i strategije suočavanja i svladavanja burnout sindroma [Relationship of occupation and strategies for overcoming burnout syndrome]. *Hrvatska revija za rehabilitacijska istralivanje*, 32(1), 25-36.
- Temesgen, K., Wubie Aycheh, M. & Tesema Leshargie, C. (2018). Job satisfaction and associated factors among health professionals working at Western Amhara Region, Ethiopia. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 65(16), 1-7.
- Teofilo Marković, R., Deljanin Ilić, M., Milošević, Z. et al. (2013). Procena zadovoljstva zaposlenih u zdravstvenim ustanovama nišavskog i topličkog okruga poslom koji obavljaju [Assessment of employee satisfaction in healthcare institutions in the Nisava and Toplica districts with the work they perform]. *Medicinski pregljed*, 66(9-10), 379-385.
- Ustav Republike Srbije [The Constitution of Republic of Serbia], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 98/2006, 115/2021

- Zakon o zdravstvenoj zaštiti [The Law on Healthcare Protection], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 25/2019
- Zakon o bezbednosti i zdravlju na radu [The Law on Occupational Safety and Health], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 101/2005, 91/2015, 113/2017 - dr. zakon
- Zakon o sprečavanju zlostavljanja na radu [The Law on Prevention of Harassment at the Workplace], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 36/2010
- Zakon o zaštiti lica sa mentalnim smetnjama [The Law on Protection of Persons with Mental Disorders], Sl. glasnik RS", br. 45/2013
- Pravilnik o bližim uslovima za primenu fizičkog sputavanja i izolacije lica sa mentalnim smetnjama koja se nalaze na lečenju u psihijatrijskim ustanovama [The Rulebook on detailed conditions for the application of physical restraint and isolation of persons with mental disorders who are in treatment in psychiatric institutions], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 94/2013
- Pravilnik o bližim uslovima za obavljanje zdravstvene delatnosti u zdravstvenim ustanovama i drugim oblicima zdravstvene službe [The Rulebook on detailed conditions for performing healthcare activities in healthcare institutions and other forms of healthcare services], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 43/2006, 112/2009, 50/2010, 79/2011, 10/2012, 119/2012, 22/2013, 16/2018
- Pravilnik o uslovima i načinu unutrašnje organizacije zdravstvenih ustanova [The Rulebook on the conditions and manner of internal organization of healthcare institution], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 43/2006, 126/2014
- Poseban kolektivni ugovor za zdravstvene ustanove čiji je osnivač Republika Srbija, autonomna pokrajina i jedinica lokalne samouprave [The Special Collective Agreement for Health Institutions in Serbia founded by the Republic of Serbia, an autonomous province and a unit of local self-government], Sl. glasnik RS, br. 96/2019, 58/2020 - Aneks I
- Van Wijngaarden, J., Scholten, G. & Van Wijk, K. (2012). Strategic analysis for health care organizations: the suitability of the SWOT-analysis. *International Journal of Health Planning Management*; 27(1), 34–49.
- Vermeir, P., Downs, C., Degroote, S. et al. (2018). Intraorganizational communication and job satisfaction among Flemish hospital nurses, an exploratory multicenter study. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 66(1), 16-23.
- Videnović, S., Hanić, A. & Sućeska, A. (2021). Ethically Relevant Values and Behavior of Employees in Serbia During the COVID-19. *Teme*, XLV(3), 821–842.
- WHO. (2002). Violence: a public health priority. Geneva. Retrieved April 30, 2022, from https://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/en/summary_en.pdf
- Yao, Y., Wang, W., Wang, F. et al. (2014). General self-efficacy and the effect of hospital workplace violence on doctors stress and job satisfaction in China. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 27(3), 389-399.
- Zhang, Y., Punnett, L. & Nannini, A. (2017). Work-family conflict, sleep, and mental health of nursing assistants working in nursing homes. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 65(7), 295-303.

ПОЗНАВАЊЕ ПРОПИСА О БЕЗБЕДНОСТИ И ЗДРАВЉУ НА РАДУ ЗДРАВСТВЕНИХ РАДНИКА – СТУДИЈА СЛУЧАЈА

Александра Илић Петковић, Весна Николић, Тамара Вукић
Универзитет у Нишу, Факултет заштите на раду, Ниш, Србија

Резиме

Потреба за заштитом на раду здравствених радника и њен значај су добро познати у литератури, па је предмет овог истраживања усмерен на здравствене раднике у психијатријским установама, с обзиром на то да је психијатрија једна од најстреснијих медицинских грана. Емпиријско истраживање је спроведено методом анкетања, а истраживачки узорак су чинили лекари и медицинске сестре/техничари запослени у Специјалној болници за психијатријске болести „Горња Топоница“ у Нишу. У истраживање је било укључено 215 испитаника (140 жена и 75 мушкараца) старосне доби између 20 и 64 године, а стручне спреме од средње школе до доктората. Резултати истраживања показују да већина испитаника познаје законску регулативу из области безбедности и здравља на раду, те и права и обавезе који су њима прописани. Овај податак је охрабрујућ уколико се има у виду да су здравствени радници у психијатријским установама посебно рањиви у погледу безбедности и здравља на раду због природе медицинских услуга које пружају. Неопходно је да они познају прописе из ове области, јер се тиме обезбеђују ефикасно функционисање система безбедности и здравља на раду и њихова заштита.

HATE SPEECH AND SOCIAL MEDIA

Jelena Vučković*, Sonja Lučić

University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Law, Kragujevac, Serbia

Abstract

In the 21st century – the time of the Internet, hate speech is present throughout social media. Hate speech existed even before the advent of the Internet. However, what is different about online hate speech is the speed at which it is transmitted on certain social media, such as Twitter and Facebook. In this sense, the question of whether and to what extent online hate speech should, or rather should not be protected was posed. This paper aims to explore whether online hate speech deserves freedom of expression protection. Public officials, civil servants, and politicians often use different social media platforms, especially Twitter, to communicate new political ideas, upcoming events, and even conspiracy theories. In this sense, the aim of the paper is to investigate whether a need to balance between constitutionally protected freedom of expression and the core values of democratic society arose from the development of Internet technology.

Key words: hate speech, social media, the social network, Internet, freedom of expression

ГОВОР МРЖЊЕ И ДРУШТВЕНИ МЕДИЈИ

Апстракт

У 21. веку, односно у времену интернета, говор мржње је у великој мери заступљен на друштвеним медијима. Говор мржње је постојао и пре појаве интернета. Међутим, оно што је другачије у вези са онлајн говором мржње је брзина којом се говор мржње преноси на појединим друштвеним медијима, попут Твитера и Фејсбука. У том смислу, отворило се питање да ли и у којој мери онлајн говор мржње треба, односно не треба штитити. Овај рад има за циљ да истражи да ли онлајн говор мржње заслужује да буде заштићен правом слободе изражавања. Јавни званичници, државни службеници и политичари често користе различите платформе друштвених медија, најчешће Твитер, за саопштавање нових политичких идеја, предстојећих догађаја, па чак и теорија завере. У том смислу, рад има за циљ да истражи да ли се са развојем интернет технологије јавила потреба балансирања између уставом заштићене слободе изражавања и заштите основних вредности демократског друштва.

* Corresponding author: Jelena Vučković, University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Law, Jovana Cvijića 1, 34000 Kragujevac, Serbia, jvuckovic@jura.kg.ac.rs

Кључне речи: говор мржње, друштвени медији, друштвене мреже, интернет, слобода говора

INTRODUCTION

Social media play a significant role in our society. They serve as a means of communication and as platforms for marketing products, and represent a modern form of self-expression. Before the advent of social media, communication between people took place in writing or by phone. Today, however, the dominant form of communication is digital (Vučković, 2021b, pp. 521-539). The originators of this development are social media platforms – a group of Internet-based applications that enable the creation and sharing of user-generated content (Kaplan, Haenlan, 2010, p. 59).

Social media differ from traditional electronic media (Vučković, 2021a, pp.197-201) because they directly support or create social networks using the information and communication technologies (Kaplan, Haenlan, 2010, p. 61). Social media has developed at a rapid pace. In the last ten years, they have grown faster and changed more than any other Internet innovation (Mihajlov Prokopović, 2016, p.39). This has been largely contributed to by the number of adults who own smartphones, which allow social media to be followed anywhere, anytime (Duggan, Smith, 2013. p. 2).

Many social media encourage emotional self-expression and invite users to regularly share their thoughts, feelings, and experiences (Derks, Fischer, Bos, 2008, p. 770). Empirical studies have shown that individuals post both positive and negative emotional expressions online, albeit with a positive bias. This ‘positivity bias’ may be due to the prevailing norms of positivity established by social media (Reinecke, Trepte, 2014, pp. 105-107). Positive emotions are more suitable for online disclosure. On the other hand, revealing negative emotions seems more intimate, and may be perceived as inappropriate behaviour.

Today, social networks are an integral part of many people’s daily lives and a form of entertainment (Vučković, 2022, p. 55). Research has shown that most social media users integrate two or more platforms into their daily activities (Davenport, Bergman, Bergman, Fearington, 2014, p. 215). Now, there are numerous social networks that address target groups. The most important social media platforms are Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Instagram, Pinterest, and Twitter.

Social media greatly influence the formation of opinions. People form, among other things, an opinion about how the state and the society they live in should be designed, and which political decisions they support or reject. This free formation of individual opinion is a basic prerequisite for the functioning of democracy. Nevertheless, the media today represent a source for a wide range of information transmission

and, at the same time, a potential danger for the creation of a dominant opinion on certain topics (Veljanovski, 2010, pp. 41-55).

Social media is becoming increasingly important for the democratic process of opinion formation. This presents both opportunities and dangers for democracy and diversity of opinion. Access to information is easy and seemingly unlimited. At the same time, social and political divisions are constantly increasing in many countries. Social media certainly contribute to these divisions: social media users share information they perceive as objective, even though it is already heavily filtered, on Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc. This leads to the formation of so-called filter bubbles (Vučković, 2022b, p. 555). Namely, social media do not create their own content, but only enable the technical transmission of information on the basis of which people form opinions on various issues. The fact that, in this way, people only get information that supports their views and isolate themselves from controversial discussions is seen as a danger to democracy. A special danger is the appearance of hate speech that threatens the exchange of opinions which is necessary for every democratic society (Schmidt, 2018, p. 61).

Hate speech existed even before the advent of the Internet and social media (Milinković, 1996, p. 42). But in times of online communication, hate speech has reached a “new, often viral quality” (Fleischhack, 2017, pp. 23-25). There is no single definition of hate speech in science (Petrušić, 2012, p.75) - there are a number of different, sometimes conflicting, definitions of this term. The lack of a generally applicable definition of ‘hate speech’ is considered the central problem of its regulation (Kiska, 2012, p. 107). A large number of authors from different disciplines – from legal and political to linguistic sciences – have tried to define hate speech (Brown, 2017. p. 424). Stefanowitsch defines hate speech as a political expression with more or less strong legal facts (Stefanowitsch, 2018, p. 11). It is about humiliating and belittling people, especially because of their belonging to a group.

By hate speech, Sponholz means “more conscious public communication and/or intentional messages of discriminatory content” (Sponholz, 2018, p. 48). The same author emphasises that hate speech can be communicated in various ways, not only verbally, which is why the term itself is wrong. For example, hatred can be expressed non-verbally, through pictures, facial expressions, or gestures (Meibauer 2013. pp. 1-3). The characteristics of hate speech which are repeatedly emphasised are derogatory language and judgment of other people. However, hate speech should be distinguished from hate propaganda and cyberbullying.

Another group of authors believes that the central characteristic of hate speech is group connection. In this sense, hate speech is defined as “aggressive or generally derogatory statements about people who are assigned to certain groups” (Geschke, Klaßen, Quent, Richter, 2019, pp. 14-16). Addressing such groups may be based on characteristics such as

gender, nationality, profession, sexual orientation, religious affiliation, or appearance.

Hate speech is also expressed in sexist comments on social networks. Sexism is based on theories and prejudices that view people as inferior because of their gender, and manifests itself in stereotypical and discriminatory behaviour – more often online than offline. Unlike traditional thinking that is limited to a female-male gender perspective, the term sexism expands this understanding to include hostility toward lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people (Nikolić, 2018).

Hate speech should be distinguished from discrimination. Discrimination refers to cases in which individuals or groups are subjected to different treatment without an objective reason. Inferior treatment can be based on various grounds such as age, gender, race, ethnic origin, sexual orientation, etc. Many of these grounds overlap with those relating to hate speech. For this reason, it may happen that hate speech includes incitement to discrimination against certain groups or individuals.

Hate speech should be distinguished from hate crimes (Zekavica, 2019, p.39). Hate crimes are crimes that are motivated by bias or prejudice against certain groups of people. The OSCE defines bias or prejudice:

as preconceived negative opinions, stereotypical assumptions, intolerance or hatred directed at a particular group that shares common characteristics, such as race, ethnicity, language, religion, nationality, sexual orientation, gender or any other basic characteristics

(OSCE, Hate Crime Reporting)

Therefore, the basic difference between hate crime and hate speech lies in the fact that hate speech does not constitute a criminal offense. However, hate speech can be evidence of a hate crime (Milenković, 2010, p.66). Hate crimes fall into the category of violent crimes (Dimovski, 2021, p. 740).

METHODOLOGY

Online hate speech differs from offline hate speech, which, among other things, has posed numerous challenges to the attempts to regulate so-called “cyberhate” (Brown, 2018, p. 297). One of the advantages of the Internet is that it gives individuals the ability to say what they want while remaining anonymous. It has been proven that the anonymity of the internet, and the fact that people are sitting behind a screen encourages people to say things they would never say in real life (Brown, 2018, p. 300). On the other hand, it is easier for victims of hate speech to express themselves and defend themselves against hate speech on the Internet. Even when individuals do not want to hide their identity, online

invisibility contributes to making statements on social media that would never be uttered in real life. On the other hand, in traditional forms of media, there is editorial supervision before the publication of certain content (Mihajlov Prokopović, 2018, p.1086).

The legal regulation of hate speech varies from country to country. The USA leads the way in terms of the legal regulation of hate speech. American courts give almost absolute protection to freedom of expression (Brugger, 2002, p. 7). The protection of freedom of expression is absent only in cases in which the statement directly calls for immediate illegal action and is suitable to trigger such behaviour. This standard, which is still valid today, was upheld by the US Supreme Court in 1969 in the *Brandenburg vs. Ohio* 395 U.S. 444 case, after which it was named the *Brandenburg test* (Bleich, 2011, p. 922). The occasion for this case was a speech made by Clarence Brandenburg at a rally in Ohio, in which he made “derogatory and vengeful comments” (Fagan, 2000, p. 609). Brandenburg was arrested and convicted under the Ohio Criminal Syndicalism Act for assembling and promoting illegal activities for the purpose of political reform. However, Brandenburg appealed the ruling, citing the First and Fourteenth Amendments to the US Constitution. The Supreme Court ultimately ruled that speech is protected, and that the State may not constitutionally prohibit the advocacy of violations of the law unless that advocacy has caused immediate illegal action.

The First Amendment to the US Constitution prohibits the government and public authorities from restricting free speech. There are slight exceptions for hate speech, understood as speech likely to incite immediate violence. The First Amendment, however, does not prevent private actors, such as social media platforms, from imposing their own restrictions on hate speech. Social media platforms are further protected from private litigation because they are not considered the publishers of the content published on their sites within the meaning of section 230 of the Communications Decency Act 1996 (Vučetić, Bončić & Pešić, 2016, pp. 8-9).

At the level of the European Union, no legal regulation on the prohibition of hate speech on the Internet has been adopted to date. However, in May 2016, the EU Code of Conduct on the Fight against Hate Speech on the Internet was adopted, to which four IT companies – Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Microsoft committed themselves. To date, other IT companies have also decided to join the Code (Instagram, Google+, Snapchat, Dailymotion, Jeuxvideo.com, TikTok, and LinkedIn).

The EU directive on audio-visual media services contains rules against hate speech. The provisions of this Directive bind both Video on Demand and video sharing platforms such as YouTube, Netflix, or Facebook. The provisions of this Directive oblige Member States to ensure that there is no hatred, violence, or calls to terrorism in audio-

visual media. The operators of such platforms must be available for cooperation and must create mechanisms through which, for example, videos glorifying violence or hate speech can be reported. Platform providers must delete such content after appropriate review.

The e-commerce directive also contains certain provisions on hate speech. Article 3(2) and (4) of the e-Commerce directive provides that:

Member States may not, for reasons falling within the coordinated field, restrict the freedom to provide information society services from another Member State... Member States may take measures to derogate from paragraph 2 in respect of a given information society service if the following conditions are fulfilled: (a) the measures shall be:

(i) necessary for one of the following reasons:

- public policy, in particular the prevention, investigation, detection, and prosecution of criminal offenses, including the protection of minors and the fight against any incitement to hatred on grounds of race, sex, religion, or nationality, and violations of human dignity concerning individual persons.

(Directive 2000/31 on Electronic Commerce)

The EU Court of Justice has so far only dealt with the definition of hate speech (e.g. in the joined cases of *Mesopotamia Broadcast and Roj TV*, C-244/10 and 245/10). However, in no case did the Court deal with the dimension of hate speech from Art. 3(4) of the Directive on electronic commerce. Unlike the EU Court of Justice, the national courts of the Member States, including the European Court of Human Rights, have on many occasions dealt with the issue of hate speech in the media and in the online context.

The European Court of Human Rights dealt with hate speech on the Internet for the first time in the *Delphi vs. Estonia* case (*Delfi vs. Estonia*). In this case, the Court held that the Estonian newspaper internet portal *Delphi*, which published an article about how the ferry company SLK destroyed the territory traditionally used for sailing from the Estonian mainland to its islands, was responsible for the offensive comments of its readers. Under the article, readers wrote allegedly offensive and threatening comments. In this case, ECHR established several important principles. First, ECHR established that the *Delphi* portal is the publisher of the comments. The website of the portal states that the authors of the comments will be responsible for their content, and that threatening or offensive comments are not allowed. However, the Court concluded that, although it knew and could have prevented the defamation, *Delphi* failed to do so and left it on the website for six weeks.

According to ECHR, defamation contained in electronic communication, compared to traditional print or electronic media, differs in that it can remain there forever and cause much greater

damage. ECHR has drawn particular attention to the uncontrolled spread of potentially defamatory and hateful rhetoric.

In the case of *OOO Flavus a. o. vs. Russia*, The ECHR established that the application of measures to block internet media or sites due to a critical attitude towards the authorities or the political system can never be considered a necessary restriction of freedom of expression (*Flavus a. o. vs. Russia*). Blocking complete access to a website is an extreme measure that should be compared to banning a newspaper or television station.

Some individual EU Member States have adopted their own regulations containing provisions against hate speech. In Germany, statements that can be characterised as ‘hate speech’ are often brought under the criminal offense of Incitement of the Masses in accordance with Art. 130 of the Criminal Code. Besides, hate speech can be classified under the criminal offenses of Public Incitement to Commit Offenses (Section 111), Insult (Section 185), and Threat (Section 241). In 2017, the Act to Improve Enforcement of the Law in Social Networks (Network Enforcement Act) was adopted in Germany in order to better enforce substantive law on the Internet. This Law obliges social network operators to delete obviously illegal content or block access to it within 24 hours of receiving a complaint. For content subject to deletion or blocking, the Law does not use the term hate speech but refers to the existing provisions of the Criminal Code (Sections 86, 86a, 89a, 91, 100a, 111, 126, 129 to 129b, 130, 131, 140, 166, 184b, in connection with 184d, 185 to 187, 241 or 269 of the Criminal Code).

The Network Enforcement Act defines social networks as:

Telemedia service providers which, for profit-making purposes, operate internet platforms which are designed to enable users to share any content with other users or to make such content available to the public (social networks).

(Network Enforcement Act, Art. 1, Sec. 1 (1))

Platforms offering journalistic or editorial content, the responsibility for which lies with the service provider itself, do not constitute social networks within the meaning of this Act. The same applies to platforms that are designed to enable individual communication or the dissemination of specific content (Network Enforcement Act, Section 1(1)). Section 2(1) of the Act states:

Providers of social networks which receive more than 100 complaints per calendar year about unlawful content shall be obliged to produce half-yearly German-language reports on the handling of complaints about unlawful content on their platforms.

(Network Enforcement Act, Sec. 2(1))

Fines for social network providers that violate reporting requirements or regulations for handling complaints about illegal content can amount to up to €50 million.

The French Law on the Freedom of the Press and the French Criminal Code contain various norms directed against hate speech. In the middle of 2019, a law was adopted in France with the aim of suppressing hate content on the Internet. The law established a specialised prosecutor's office for the fight against hateful content on the Internet. In addition, the Law obliges large operators of online platforms, whose activity consists of connecting multiple people in order to share content or refer to this content, to remove 'obviously' illegal content within 24 hours of receiving the notification. Otherwise, they risk being fined up to €1.25 million. Removal applies to content that includes incitement to hatred, violence, racist or even religious insults. For terrorist or child pornography content, the removal period is reduced to one hour. Platforms are given a week to remove less explicit content. Content reporting is up to the user, and relies on a 'report' button made visible by the platforms. However, the Constitutional Council condemned these provisions in a decision dated June 18, 2020.

As a critic of the law, the Constitutional Council condemned the obligation imposed on social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat, and YouTube, to delete 'hate' content reported to them within twenty-four hours under the threat of large fines. According to the opinion of the Constitutional Council, this mechanism, which is devoid of legal intervention, can cause "an attack on the exercise of freedom of expression and communication that is not necessary, appropriate and proportionate to its goal" (Constitutional Council of France, Decision no 2020-801 DC). The absence of legal intervention specifically refers to the obligation of social networks to remove any child pornography or terrorist content reported by the authorities within an hour.

In Great Britain, the Public Order Act from 1986 provides that:

A person who uses threatening, abusive or insulting words or behavior, or displays any written material which is threatening, abusive or insulting, is guilty of an offense if - (a) he intends thereby to stir up racial hatred, or (b) having regard to all the circumstances racial hatred is likely to be stirred up thereby.

(Public Order Act)

Section 17 of the same Law reads: "racial hatred means hatred against a group of persons defined by reference to color, race, nationality (including citizenship) or ethnic or national origins" (Public Order Act, Section 17).

Unlike Germany and France, Great Britain has not passed a Law on the Suppression of Hate on the Internet. However, the UK Government has repeatedly emphasised that what is illegal offline is also illegal online. In April 2019, the British government published the White Paper, which

outlined the government's proposals for regulating harmful content on the Internet. Online harm is defined in the White Paper as:

online content or activity that harms individual users, particularly children, or threatens the way of life in the UK, either by undermining national security or by undermining trust and undermining shared rights, responsibilities and opportunities to foster integration.

(The Online Harms White Paper)

In the middle of 2021, a draft of the Online Safety Bill was published in Great Britain, but it is yet to be adopted.

Legal Regulation of Hate Speech in Serbia

In Article 46, paragraph 1, the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia guarantees freedom of expression. This freedom can be limited by law "if it is necessary to protect the rights and reputation of others, preserve the authority and impartiality of the court and protect public health, morals of a democratic society and national security of the Republic of Serbia" (The Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, Article 46, paragraph 1). Article 43, paragraph 4 of the Constitution stipulates that:

freedom of expression of religion or belief can be limited by law, only if it is necessary in a democratic society, for the purpose of protecting people's lives and health, the morals of a democratic society, the freedoms and rights of citizens guaranteed by the Constitution, public security and public order, or to prevent or inciting religious, national or racial hatred.

(The Constitution of the RS, Art. 50, para. 3)

In addition, the Competent Court can prevent the dissemination of information and ideas through the means of public information, among other things, in order to prevent advocacy of racial, national or religious hatred, which incites discrimination, hostility, or violence.

Unlike the Constitution, the Law on Prohibition of Discrimination expressly prohibits hate speech. This Law defines hate speech as

the expression of ideas, information, and opinions that incite discrimination, hatred or violence against a person or a group of persons because of their personal characteristics, in public newspapers and other publications, at gatherings and places accessible to the public, by writing and displaying messages or symbols and in another way.

(Law on Prohibition of Discrimination, Art. 11)

Such behaviour is prohibited by this Law.

The Criminal Code prescribes four criminal offenses related to the prohibition of discrimination: (1) violation of equality (Section 128); (2) violation of the right to use language and script (Section 129); (3) racial discrimination (Section 387); and (4) inciting national, racial and religious hatred and intolerance (Section 317).

Hate speech in Serbia is also regulated by media regulations. Article 75 of the Law on Public Information and Media prohibits hate speech:

Ideas, opinions, or information published in the media must not incite discrimination, hatred or violence against a person or group of persons because of their belonging or not belonging to a certain race, religion, nation, gender, or because of their sexual orientation or other personal property, regardless of whether a criminal offense was committed by publishing it.

(Law on Public Information and Media, Art. 75)

However, hate speech does not exist if that information is part of an objective journalistic report and if there was an intention to critically point to discrimination, hatred, or violence against a person or group, or to phenomena that represent or can represent incitement to such behaviour (Law on Public Information and Media, Article 76).

Hate speech is also prohibited by the Law on Electronic Media. This Law prescribes that:

the regulator ensures that the program content of the media service provider does not contain information that encourages, in an open or covert manner, discrimination, hatred or violence because of race, skin color, ancestry, citizenship, national affiliation, language, religious or political beliefs, gender, gender identity, sexual orientation, property status, birth, genetic characteristics, health status, disability, marital and family status, convictions, age, appearance, membership in political, trade union and other organizations and other real or assumed personal characteristics.

(Law on Electronic Media, Art. 51)

To date, no special law on banning hate speech on the Internet has been passed in Serbia.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The legal regulation of hate speech is largely related to the issue of freedom of expression as one of the pillars of a democratic society, and a basic prerequisite for ensuring the protection of individuals' other human rights. In many countries, freedom of expression enjoys constitutional protection. As a fundamental right, freedom of expression includes the right of every individual to express his opinion in any available way, or to remain silent, as well as the right to be informed about what is happening around the world.

In the EU, freedom of expression is explicitly recognised in Article 2 of the EU Treaty. On the other hand, Article 11 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU stipulates that:

everyone has the right to freedom of expression. This right shall include freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart information and ideas without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers.

(Charter of Fundamental Rights, Art. 11)

However, Article 52 of the EU Charter contains a general clause on the possibility of limiting freedoms and rights when they conflict with other rights.

Paragraph 153 of the General Data Protection Regulation, no. 2016/679, confirms that the reconciliation between the data protection framework defined by the Regulation and the rules on the protection of freedom of expression is the task of Member States, allowing special exceptions regarding the processing of personal data exclusively for journalistic purposes or for the needs of academic, artistic or literary expressions.

Freedom of expression is contained in Article 10 of the European Convention on Human Rights. However, Article 10 (2) of this Convention prescribes cases in which freedom of expression may be restricted in order to strike a balance with other conflicting rights. The protection of this freedom was also developed by the European Court of Human Rights in its rich judicial practice. In this sense, the ECHR took the position that the restriction of freedom of expression is legitimate if the following three conditions are met:

- 1) the interference must be prescribed by law;
- 2) it must pursue a legitimate aim as stated in Article 10;
- 3) it must be necessary in a democratic society, which implies verifying whether the national intervention corresponds to a 'pressing social need'.

(Handyside vs. United Kingdom, para. 48)

Freedom of expression is legally protected in almost all European countries. Most national constitutions include this freedom among the general principles related to the rights of citizens. Constitutional provisions make a clear distinction between freedom of expression and freedom of the media in only a few countries (e.g. Belgium, Greece, Serbia, and Romania). However, the need to balance freedom of expression is also recognised in national constitutions. For example, Article 46 of the Constitution of RS guarantees "freedom of thought and expression, as well as the freedom to seek, receive and disseminate information and ideas by speech, writing, image or otherwise". However, the same regulation stipulates that:

freedom of expression can be limited by law, if it is necessary to protect the rights and reputation of others, preserve the authority and impartiality of the court, and protect public health, morals of a democratic society, and national security of the Republic of Serbia.

(The Constitution of the RS, Art. 46)

Freedom of expression is one of the central human rights, and is considered necessary for the realisation and protection of all human rights, and for the functioning of a democratic constitutional state. However, freedom of expression is not absolute (Milojević, Surčulija, 2016). The difference between freedom of expression and dissemination, that is, incitement to discrimination, hatred, and threats to minorities, which must be prevented and punished, requires careful consideration. Freedom of expression certainly includes indecent and even offensive speech that insults the honour and reputation of those affected but still does not fall under hate speech. Conversely, statements from which no explicit messages of hate can be inferred may also constitute hate speech. According to the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD), the following facts must be taken into account when assessing whether a statement constitutes hate speech:

- Content and form of speech;
- The existing social, economic, and political climate in which the speech took place, as well as the existing patterns of discrimination against the minority in question (for example in relation to asylum seekers, groups of foreigners, sexual minorities, etc.);
- The position of the speaker in society or in the relevant media (e.g. politicians, leaders); and
- The reach of speech (internet or mainstream media etc.).

Another thing to consider is the purpose of the speech. Here the Committee points out that, for example, speaking in defence of human rights or certain groups should not be criminalised.

CONCLUSION

Social media is a big part of many people's lives today. Sharing information and communicating through social media platforms has made human life much easier. Today, information is not only obtained from traditional media, but also through social media. Namely, media companies publish information on social networks and share that information with users. It is no longer necessary to wait for news on television or radio. Today's breaking news is mostly spread through social media. In addition, users can quickly and easily react to information, and become broadcasters themselves by sharing information. Additionally, users can communicate with the world without restrictions.

Spreading and sharing information on social media are associated with certain challenges. Namely, social media greatly influence the formation of individuals' opinions. However, the problem is that fake news and hate speech are often spread and shared on social media. Regulating harmful speech in online spaces requires drawing the line between legitimate free speech and hate speech. Freedom of speech is protected by major international human rights treaties and by the constitutions of most countries around the world.

However, in today's digitised and increasingly polarised world, the current question is how to legally regulate hate speech while simultaneously protecting freedom of expression. The right to free speech also includes speech that someone might find deeply offensive. However, the right to freedom of expression is not an absolute right. States may limit this right in certain exceptional circumstances. However, all restrictions must meet the following criteria: (a) restrictions must be provided by law; (b) restrictions must pursue a legitimate aim as detailed in Article 19 (3) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and (c) restrictions must be necessary and proportionate to the goal pursued. In addition, states must restrict speech that amounts to advocacy of hatred that incites discrimination, hostility, or violence based on protected personal characteristics.

Meeting the aforementioned criteria under which freedom of speech can be restricted faces numerous challenges in the online space. Social media offers a unique space for the expression of opinion, encouraging public debate and information exchange, and strengthening the space for civic engagement. However, hate speech and abuse in the online space have led to increased pressure on social media companies to control the content posted and shared by their users. Social media platforms make decisions about what is acceptable to express online, which calls into question the protection of freedom of expression in the online space. In addition, it is problematic to hold social media platforms responsible for the content shared by their users. Furthermore, often the content moderation policies of social media platforms are not clear and accessible enough for their users to assess what is and is not allowed on the platform.

The legal regulation of hate speech and content moderation in the online space is highly complex. Certain European countries, such as Germany and France, have adopted regulations on suppressing hate speech on the Internet which are, in our opinion, too broad and unclear. On the one hand, these regulations impose serious obligations on social media in the fight against hate speech on the Internet, while on the other hand, they have serious implications for freedom of expression. In our opinion, before passing regulations on suppressing hate speech on the Internet, it is necessary to take measures aimed at solving the basic causes of discrimination, as well as social problems that contribute to the spread of hatred on the Internet. In this sense, state institutions must actively promote tolerance and equality in cooperation with other actors such as civil society organisations, media, religious leaders, and other social actors. The fight against hate speech requires the protection of freedom of expression. Existing international human rights norms, including the Rabat Action Plan, provide guidance on how to address hate speech in a manner consistent with freedom of expression. This includes calling on political and religious leaders, officials, and the media not only to refrain from hate speech but to actively reject it and speak out against it.

REFERENCES

- Bleich, E. (2011). The Rise of Hate Speech and Hate Crime Laws in Liberal Democracies, *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, Vol. 37, No. 6, 917-934.
- Brown, A. (2018). What is so special about online (as compared to offline) hate speech? *Ethnicities*, 18(3), 297-326.
- Brown, A. (2017). What is hate speech? Part 1: The Myth of Hate, *Law and Philosophy*, 419-468.
- Brugger, W. (2002). Ban on or protection of hate speech-some observations based on German and American law. *Tulane European and Civil Law Forum*, 17, 1-21.
- Davenport, S. W., Bergman, S. M., Bergman, J. Z., Fearington, M. E. (2014). Twitter versus Facebook: Exploring the role of narcissism in the motives and usage of different social media platforms. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 32, 212-220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.12.011>
- Fagan, B. (2000). Rice v. Paladin Enterprises: Why Hit Man is beyond the pale, *Chicago-Kent Law Review*, 76(1), 603-636.
- Fleischhack, J., (2017). *Der „Hass“ der vielen Formen*. In Kaspar, K., Gräßer, L., Riffi A. Online Hate Speech. Perspektiven auf eine neue Form des Hasses. Schriftenreihe zur digitalen Gesellschaft NRW, Bd. 4. Düsseldorf, München: Kopaed, 23-29.
- Dimovski, D. (2021). Case law of the European Court of Human Rights of hate crimes. *Teme*, 2/2021, 739-755, <https://doi.org/10.22190/TEME201021042D>.
- Duggan, M., Smith, A. (2013). *Cell Internet Use 2013*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center, https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/media/Files/Reports/2013/PIP_CellInternetUse2013.pdf
- Geschke, D., Klaşen, A., Quent, M., Christoph R., (2019): *#Hass im Netz: Der schleichende Angriff auf unsere Demokratie. Eine bundesweite repräsentative Untersuchung*. Institut für Demokratie und Zivilgesellschaft.
- Kaplan A.M., Haenlein M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, *Business Horizons*, 59-68, doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003
- Kiska, R. (2012). Hate speech: A comparison between the European court of human rights and the United States supreme court jurisprudence, *Regent University Law Review*, Vol. 25, 107-151.
- Meibauer, J. (2013). *Hassrede – von der Sprache zur Politik*. In: Ders. (Hrsg.): *Hassrede/HateSpeech*. Interdisziplinäre Beiträge zu einer aktuellen Diskussion. Gießen: Gießener Elektronische Bibliothek.
- Milenković, D. (2010). Ljudska i manjinska prava, sloboda izražavanja i uloga medija u uslovima sukoba i napetosti [Human and minority rights, freedom of expression and the role of the media in conditions of conflict and tension], Priručnik za rad lokalnih medija, Niš, 80.
- Milinković, B. (1996), *Medijske slobode - prava i ograničenja* [Media freedom - rights and restrictions], Medija centar, Beograd, 84.
- Milojević, Surčulija, J. (2016), *Dozvoljenost ograničenja slobode izražavanja u skladu sa međunarodnim evropskim instrumentima i medijskim zakonodavstvom Republike Srbije*, doktorska disertacija, [Permissible restrictions on freedom of expression in conformity with European law and regulation and media legislation of the Republic of Serbia, PhD dissertation], Pravni fakultet u Beogradu, www.nardus.mpn.gov.rs
- Mihajlov Prokopović, A. (2018). Internet social networks and traditional media. *Teme*, 4/2018, 1081-1105, DOI Number 10.22190/TEME1804081M.

- Nikolić, M.P. (2018). *Govor mržnje u internet komunikaciji u Srbiji*, doktorska disertacija [Internet hate speech in Serbia, PhD dissertation], Fakultet političkih nauka, Beograd, www.fpn.bg.ac.rs.
- N. Petrušić, N. (2012). Građanskopravni instrumenti za suzbijanje govora mržnje koje se šire posredstvom medija, [Civil rights instruments for suppressing hate speech spread through the media], *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Nišu*, LXI, 75-97.
- Prokopović, Mihajlov, A. (2016). *Transformacija tradicionalnih medija u novom tehnološkom okruženju*, doktorska disertacija [Transformation of traditional media in a new technological environment, PhD dissertation], Beograd, Fakultet političkih nauka. www.nardus.mpn.gov.rs
- Reinecke L., Trepte S. (2014). Authenticity and well-being on social network sites: A two-wave longitudinal study on the effects of online authenticity and the positivity bias in SNS communication, *Computers in Human Behavior*, 30, 95-102, doi:10.1016/j.chb.2013.07.030.
- Schmidt, J.H. (2017). *Meinungsbildung in und mit sozialen Medien*. In Social Media, Springer VS, Wiesbaden, 61-74.
- Sponholz, L. (2018). *Hate Speech*. In Hate Speech in den Massenmedien. Theoretische Grundlagen und empirische Umsetzung, Springer Fachmedien, Wiesbaden, 31-92.
- Stefanowitsch, A. (2015). *Was ist überhaupt Hate Speech?* In Amadeu Antonio Stiftung, <https://www.amadeu-antonio-stiftung.de/w/files/pdfs/hatespeech.pdf>
- Veljanovski, R. (2010). Izazovi i mogućnosti online novinarstva [Challenges and possibilities of online journalism], *Sloboda izražavanja na internetu*. Fond za otvoreno društvo, 41-45.
- Vučetić, D., Bončić, G., & Pešić, P. (2016). *The Liability of Social Networks for Extreme Forms of Speech*, Facta Universitatis, Law and Politics, Vol.14 , No 1, 1-14
- Vučković, J. (2022a). Uloga interneta u pružanju medijskih usluga [The Role of the Internet in providing Media Services], *Sadašnjosti budućnost uslužnog prava*. Pravni fakultet Kragujevac, Institut za pravne i društvene nauke, 2022, 555-572. doi: 10.46793/XVIIIIMajsko.555V.
- Vučković, J. (2022b). *Medijsko pravo* [Media law], Medinvest, Niš, 368.
- Vučković, J. (2021a). Digitalni mediji i medijsko zakonodavstvo Republike Srbije [Digital media and media legislation of the Republic of Serbia] *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Nišu*. 2021, god. 60, br. 92, 195-217, doi: 10.5937/zrpfno-33993.
- Vučković, J. (2021b). Neka pitanja digitalizacije medijskih usluga [Some issues of digitisation of media services], *Usluge i vladavina prava*, Zbornik referata sa Međunarodnog naučnog skupa, Pravni fakultet u Kragujevcu, Institut za pravne i društvene nauke, 2021. [521]-537. doi:10.46793/UV21.521V.
- Zekavica, R. (2019). Normativni i institucionalni okvir zabrane govora mržnje u Republici Srbiji [Normative and institutional framework for prohibition of hate speech in the Republic of Serbia], *Fondacija Centar za javno pravo*. No 37. 39-48, http://www.fcjp.ba/analize/Sveske_za_javno_pravo_broj-37.pdf

Regulations

- Audiovisual Media Services Directive 2010/13/EU: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX%3A32010L0013>.
- Directive on electronic commerce 2000/31/EC: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:32000L0031>.

- Zakon o zabrani diskriminacije [Law on Prohibition of Discrimination], “Sl.glasnik RS”, br. 22/2009 i 52/2021. https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/zakon_o_zabrani_diskriminacije.html.
- Zakon o javnom informisanju i medijima [Law on Public Information and Media], “Sl.glasnik RS”, br. 83/2014, 58/2015, 12/2016-autentično tumačenje. https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/zakon_o_javnom_informisanju_i_medijima.html.
- Zakon o elektronskim medijima [Law on Electronic Media] “Sl.glasnik RS”, br.83/2014, 6/2016-dr.zakon i 129/2021. https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/zakon_o_elektronskim_medijima.html.
- Network Enforcement Act: https://www.bmj.de/DE/Themen/FokusThemen/NetzDG/NetzDG_EN_node.html
- Online Harms White Paper: <https://www.gov.uk/government/consultations/online-harms-white-paper>. OSCE, Hate crime reporting: <https://hatecrime.osce.org/index.php/>.
- Public Order Act 1986: <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1986/64/contents>.
- Ustav Republike Srbije [The Constitution of the Republic of Serbia] “Sl.glasnik RS”, br. 98/2006, 16/2022. https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/ustav_republike_srbije.html.

Case Law

- European court of human right, Case Delfi AS v. Estonia - 64569/09: <https://hudoc.echr.coe.int/fre#%7B%22itemid%22:%5B%22002-8960%22%5D%7D>.
- European court of human right, Case OOO Flavus a. o. v. Russia: <https://hudoc.echr.coe.int/fre#%7B%22itemid%22:%5B%22001-203178%22%5D%7D>.
- European court of human right, Case Handyside v. The United Kingdom: <https://hudoc.echr.coe.int/eng#%7B%22dmdocnumber%22:%5B%22695376%22%2C%22itemid%22:%5B%22001-57499%22%5D%7D>.

ГОВОР МРЖЊЕ И ДРУШТВЕНИ МЕДИЈИ

Јелена Вучковић, Соња Лучић

Универзитет у Крагујевцу, Правни факултет, Крагујевац, Србија

Резиме

Регулисање штетног говора у онлајн простору захтева повлачење границе између легитимне слободе говора и говора мржње. Слобода говора је заштићена уставима већине земаља широм света, као и главним међународним споразумима о људским правима. Међутим, у данашњем дигитализованом и све више поларизованом свету, актуелно је питање како правно регулисати говор мржње уз исто-времену заштиту слободе изражавања. Испуњавање наведених критеријума под којима се може ограничити слобода говора наилази на бројне изазове у онлајн простору. Друштвени медији нуде јединствен простор за изражавање мишљења, подстицају јавну дебату и размену информација и јачајући простор за грађанско ангажовање. Међутим, говор мржње и злостављање у онлајн простору довели су до повећаног притиска на компаније друштвених медија да контролишу садржај који објављују и деле њихови корисници. Платформе друштвених медија доносе одлуке о томе шта је прихватљиво изразити на онлајн мрежи, што доводи у питање заштиту слободе изражавања у онлајн простору. Поред тога, проблематично је сматрати платформе друштвених медија одговорним за садржај који деле њихови корисници. Приде, политике модерирања садржаја платформи друштвених меди-

ја често нису довољно јасне и доступне својим корисницима, те је корисницима тешко да процене шта јесте, а шта није дозвољено на платформи.

Правно регулисање говора мржње и модерирања садржаја у онлајн простору је у великој мери сложено. Поједине европске државе попут Немачке и Француске су донеле, по нашем мишљењу, прешироке и нејасне прописе о сузбијању говора мржње на интернету. Ови прописи са једне стране намећу озбиљне обавезе друштвеним медијима у борби против говора мржње на интернету, док са друге стране имају озбиљне импликације по слободу изражавања. По нашем мишљењу, пре доношења прописа о сузбијању говора мржње на интернету неопходно је предузети мере у циљу решавања основних узрока дискриминације, као и друштвених проблема који доприносе ширењу мржње на интернету. У том смислу, државне институције морају активно промовисати толеранцију и једнакост у сарадњи са другим актерима као што су организације цивилног друштва, медији, верски лидери и други друштвени актери. Борба против говора мржње захтева заштиту слободе изражавања. Постојеће међународне норме о људским правима, укључујући Рабатски акциони план, дају смернице о томе како се позабавити говором мржње на начин који је у складу са слободом изражавања. То укључује позивање политичких и верских лидера, званичника и медија да се не само уздрже од говора мржње, већ и да га активно одбацују и говоре против говора мржње.

INDEXING OF DIALECT TEXTS

Jordana S. Marković*

University of Niš, Faculty of Philosophy, Niš, Serbia

The work of Brankica Marković, titled “Towards the Indexing of Dialect Texts Published in the Republic of Serbia”, appeared in the Serbian 2020 dialectological collection no. LXVII. This bibliography of works, consisting of 116 pages, includes dialect texts from the period between 1905 and 2017, published in the “relevant scientific and professional periodicals and monographic publications in the Republic of Serbia”¹, according to the author herself.

The author divided the texts into three groups: texts which were not given a corpus description; texts which were given a partial corpus description, shorter or longer; and texts found in monographs, in sentences. The review is given chronologically within the scope of all of the aforementioned groups. Bibliographical units and the accompanying comments are given in the same script the text was written in – Cyrillic or Latin. Apart from the writing, the variability of the texts is also evident in other aspects – some are presented as connected speech, some as a separate whole separated with asterisks, and some are specially titled. Therefore, the necessity for uniformity is emphasised. That is, it is necessary to create a model for these texts, and to advocate for them to be titled, as this would complement and improve their pragmatism. The introductory part gives an overview of the works, which suggests what a dialect text should look like, and what type of data should be provided by such a text.

The Inventory, whose data is mentioned in this bibliography, consists of 252 units. On the other hand, the highest number of units (112) belongs to the group of texts presented as a contribution to the monograph or the dictionary. The group containing texts with shorter or longer corpus descriptions follows (105), and the smallest number of units (35) belongs to the group which contains dialect texts without a corpus description. Shtokavian, Chakavian, and Kaikavian texts are included in this list, but the Shtokavian texts are far more numerous and stem from all areas; that is, they belong to all dialects.

The first group consists of texts written and published between 1938 (e.g. the text by Branko Miletić from Ljimpljan as an illustration of the Crmnica speech) and 2017, the final publication year included in this inventory (e.g. the

* Corresponding author: Jordana S. Marković, University of Niš, Faculty of Philosophy, Ćirila i Metodija 2, 18101 Niš, Serbia, jordana.markovic@filafk.ni.ac.rs

¹ Brankica Marković, “Towards the Indexing of Dialect Texts Published in the Republic of Serbia”, *Serbian Dialectological Collection LXVII*, Belgrade, Serbian Academy of Science and Arts and the Institute for the Serbian Language, 2020, 414.

text by Dragana Radovanović and Milica Dejanović from the village of Jažince in Sirinička župa).

The second group of texts starts with a text from the village of Brusje, from the Hvar Island in Dalmatia, which was recorded by Mate Hraste. The text was published in 1926/1927. This inventory of texts closes with the text of Olivera Totošković from Vlasotince, published in 2017.

The third group opens with a text by Aleksandar Belić, published in 1905 in the first “Serbian Dialectological Collection”. This is the oldest text in this inventory. The texts within this group originate from various parts of eastern and southern Serbia. The last in this group is a text published in 2017, written by Biljana Savić from Veliki Blašak, near Banjaluka.

Additionally, a shorter or a slightly more voluminous author’s text is provided for every bibliographical unit in this part, which complements the units by providing information related to the text in question.

The fact that texts from 2017, the last year of publication taken for review, are included in and contribute to each of the three categories cheers us up greatly. That means that authors with thematically different works realise the importance of dialect texts. Dialect texts are arguments in favour of the topic and, moreover, a source of precious data for readers. Furthermore, they are a source of precious data for researches and scholars of folk languages.

By collecting these contributions in one place and by publishing them, Branka Marković has made the endeavours of future researchers easier, i.e. she has made the search for dialect texts easier for those who will, in the future, be interested in the problems related to folk speeches.

In one part of this review, Marković classifies the texts according to the dialects they were written in. The author divides the texts into texts in the Shtokavian dialect, texts in the Chakavian dialect, and texts in the Kaikavian dialect. Furthermore, the Shtokavian dialect was further divided into: the Šumadija-Vojvodina dialect, Hercegovina-Krajina dialect, Kosovo-Resava dialect, Smederevo-Vršac dialect, Zeta-Sjenica dialect and the Prizren-Timok dialect area, followed by the more recent Ikavian Eastern Bosnian and Slavonic dialects, and transitional speech. The author attributes the Southwestern, Istrian, North Chakavian, Central Chakavian and South Chakavian dialects to the Chakavian dialect. The Kaikavian dialect is attributed to the Goran dialect and the Kaikavian speech in Banat, whereas the West Macedonian dialect was treated separately.

Since the purpose of this work is to find and record dialect texts printed in relevant publications, perhaps it might have been better if the author had not ventured into the classification of dialects. The classification needs to include the criteria on which it is based in order for it to be clear and obvious why a specific speech was placed in a specific category. Of course, that would burden this work and distract from its main task, so it would have been better to leave out this part.

The next part of this work provides valuable data about the sources reviewed for this very purpose.

The author made an effort to assemble the register of points and the register of authors. The former is given on the basis of the classification of dialects. The register of authors is divided into two parts, addressing authors whose works are in the Cyrillic or Latin script, respectively. In both of the registers, references to the bibliographical unit are made numerically.

Some ‘misunderstandings’ may occur due to the fact that it is impossible to know the names and precise locations of all the places whose speech was found in the observed texts. Such problems also include the existence of two different points bearing the same name, even if they are in a relatively limited space. Thus, Novo Selo was found in one such space, with reference to two monographs. Consequently, one might think the same village is being referred to, but this is not the case. The misunderstanding was created because both of the monographs deal with speeches from the south of Serbia – the speech of Niš and the surrounding villages, and the speech of Zaplanje. Novo Selo appears in both of these as a point, but one is located in the vicinity of Niš and the other in Zaplanje.

The author’s effort to remove such doubts is exemplified by the information added in brackets. Thus, for example, the added data *Bjelići* is used to specify where the place is located in the Odžaci point.

On page 116, Brankica Marković offers a very valuable bibliography of dialect texts, published between 1905 and 2017. The importance of this bibliography lies in the fact that all of the data on dialect texts from various regions, regardless of when they were written and what region they are from, can be accessed at any moment and can be found in the same place. These texts can be a valuable source of data about the language of a region. Moreover, there is also other information which current generations, and generations to come, can find useful for their research, because this information can, among other things, be used as support for their academic arguments. For those reasons, this bibliography must be regarded as well-constructed, and as a valuable contribution.

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., Goetze-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>

NOTES

- TEME publishes original research papers and scientific and review papers which have been approved by at least two reviewers in the blind peer review procedure.
- For papers with more than 2 authors (for theoretical papers) or 3 authors (empirical papers), please attach a written statement of each author’s individual contribution to the paper.
- TEME will publish only one paper by the same author in one year (except for book reviews and commentaries).
- Submitted papers which do not comply with these Instructions will not be included in the blind peer review procedure.
- Papers which have received positive reviews with suggestions for changes/improvements will be sent to the authors together with the anonymous reviewers' comments.
- Positive or negative reviews are not sent to the authors, whether their paper has been rejected or accepted for publication.

Electronic Submission

Papers for consideration should be submitted to the Editor in electronic form via the Journal's home page:

<http://teme2.junis.ni.ac.rs/index.php/TEME/login>

Author's statement. Together with the submission, the authors should send a signed Author's statement form (signed and scanned, in the pdf format, as Supplementary file).

