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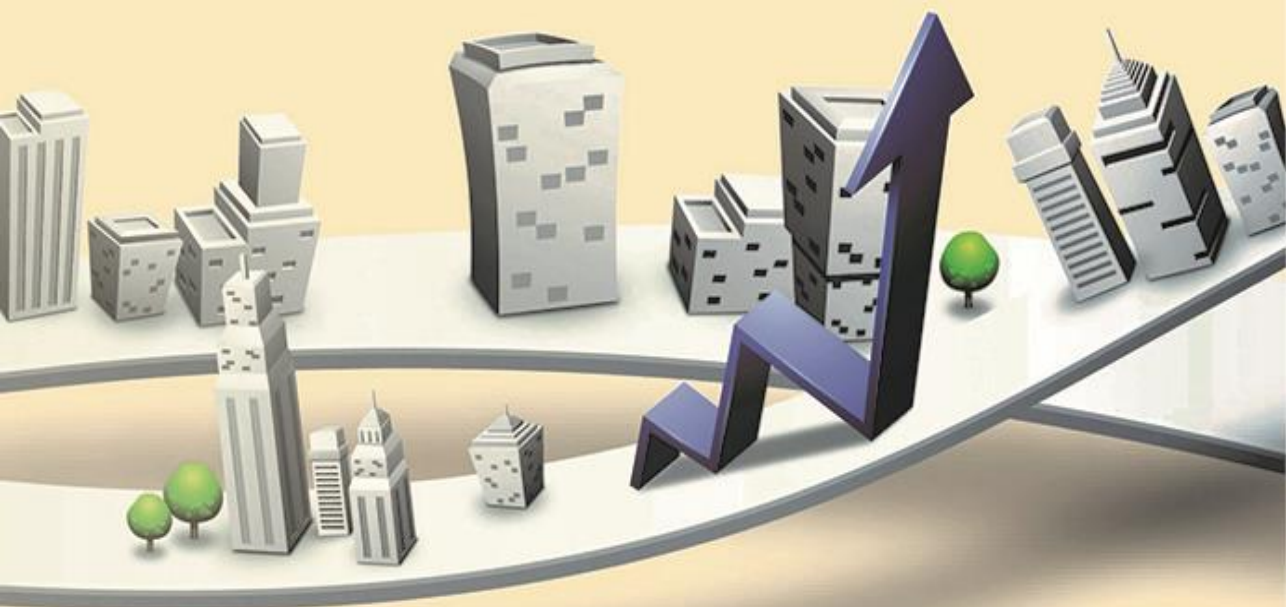
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CONTENTS

Articles

Ana Nešić / Oliver Lajić

JUVENILES' PERCEPTION OF DRUG CRIME AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE 1–26

Tatjana D. Janovac / Goran Đoković

THE APPLICATION OF THE "LEADERSHIP GRID" MODEL: CASE STUDY OF HUMAN RESOURCES SECTOR IN THE MINISTRY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS OF SERBIA 27–45

Ozren N. Uzelac / Mirjana S. Đukić Mijatović

GENDER DIVERSITY IN CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN SERBIA: LEGAL ISSUES AND POTENTIAL REMEDIES 46–64

Željko Đ. Bjelajac

PROFILING HUMAN TRAFFICKERS 65–81

Lazar V. Stošić / Aleksandra V. Janković

CYBERCRIME IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA: PREVALENCE, SITUATION AND PERSPECTIVES 82–99

Joko Dragojlović / Ljubica Prica

CRITICAL REVIEW OF DECISION ON DETENTION AND RIGHTS OF THE DETAINED PERSON 100–123

Veran Stančetić

NETWORKING OF SOCIAL SCIENCES KNOWLEDGE IN THE FUNCTION OF SOLVING PRACTICAL PROBLEMS AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIETY 124–145

Petar Milutinović

DIGITAL PUBLIC POLICY AND E-GOVERNANCE AS FACTORS OF THE ENHANCED SOCIO-ECONOMIC COHESION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION	146-163
List of Reviewers in 2022	164-166
Authors Guidelines.....	167-195

Juveniles' Perception of Drug Crime Among Young People

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Abstract

Modern society is affected by the problem of drug addiction and drug crime on a global and national level, and the damaging consequences of drug abuse are extremely serious and widespread. The fact that minors are more often than before in the role of perpetrators of criminal acts related to narcotic drugs contributes to the additional seriousness of the overall situation. As the trend of drug crime among young people in the last few years indicates growing of this phenomenon in our society, the focus of our work will be determining the importance of certain factors on the perception of young people about drug crime. In order to achieve this task, we conducted a survey among high school students whose goal was to examine the influence of family environment and school environment factors, and also influence of certain media content on their perception of drug crime. A hundred students participated in this research. The research results show that the socio-demographic characteristics of young people do not have a significant impact on their perception of drug crime. The school environment, on the other hand, has a more dominant influence, due to the existence of convenient places for buying and selling drugs in close proximity to school, as well as the presence of people who "deal" drugs. In addition, minors are strongly influenced by their peers who previously had some experiences with the abuse of narcotic drugs. The research results indicate a high level of liking media content about drug crime among young people, but also an insufficiently developed awareness among them about the impact that such content has on them.

Keywords: minors, drug crime, family environment, school environment, media

Juveniles' Perception of Drug Crime Among Young People

According to data of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), expressed in the World Drug Report from 2021, the scale of psychoactive substance abuse is alarming. The Report states that in the previous year 275 million people used narcotic drugs, unlike 226 million users in 2010. During the ten-year period, the number of drug users increased by 22%. The report also estimates that around 36 million people suffer from drug use disorders (World drug report, 2021, p. 48). The Report indicates a high number of cannabis abuse among young people, which causes serious health problems. Surveys conducted among students and young people in the United States and Europe support the fact that cannabis causes numerous mental disorders. The significant piece of information obtained through these surveys is that among the younger population there is no adequate awareness of drug abuse risk (World drug report, 2021, p. 22).

Drug abuse problem among young people is not negligible even at the national level. A worrying circumstance is a noticeable increase in the number of criminal charges and verdicts in the period between 2016 and 2017 for criminal acts of drug abuse in which minors appear as perpetrators. In 2016, the number of criminal charges filed against minors for the criminal offense of unauthorized production and distribution of narcotic drugs, from Article 246 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia, was 145 and in 2020, that number reached 248 criminal charges (Republički zavod za statistiku, 2020, p. 2).

Due to the increased number of crimes committed by minors, which are related to narcotic drugs, it is necessary to conduct research that would refer to juveniles' awareness and attitudes regarding this phenomenon. Bearing in mind this problem, we compiled a survey that analyzed the attitudes of high school students about drug crime. Our research aim is determining factors that contribute to the greatest extent to the perception that young people have about this phenomenon. Also, we found examining respondents' self-assessment of the impact that certain media content has on their perception of drug crime particularly important.

Factors That Influence the Awareness of Juveniles About Drug Crime

The occurrence of a juvenile crime can be influenced by numerous factors, and the division that is most often encountered in the literature is into objective (socio-economic) and subjective factors. By observing objective factors, we get the idea that social conditions lead to the criminal behaviour of minors, while subjective factors of juvenile crime include the psychological characteristics of minors' personalities. Both types of mentioned factors influence the occurrence of juvenile crime, but social factors play a decisive role (Igrački & Ilijić, 2016, pp. 187–188). Individual factors can influence juvenile crime, such as low intelligence, poor school results, insufficient empathy, aggressiveness, hyperactivity, etc., but it is emphasized that the social, family factor plays decisive role. Conflict situations in the family, inconsistent discipline, insufficient supervision of parents over children, as well as non-involvement in their everyday life and psychological state, can be trigger for delinquentbehaviourr of minors (Subotin & Odalović, 2016, p. 46). Certain studies indicate a connection between the age structure of the population and various social and economic disorders that can lead to socio-pathological phenomena. In other words, a larger number of dependent groups, such as children, the unemployed and pensioners, can lead to an increase in deviant behavior (Gajić, 2011, p. 288). Circumstances in minor's family, such as parents' occupation, possible divorce of parents or economic situation can influence them to try their hand in world of drug crime.

The school environment is also a suitable place for the development of the criminal career of minors. Research shows that every second adolescent did not receive any information about drug addiction, either at home or at school (Bjelajac, 2019, p. 239). A factor that can influence the involvement of minors in the crime of drug abuse could be their closest friends, who somehow found themselves in the sphere of illegal. In addition, peer groups play a significant part in manifestation of certain forms of deviant or criminogenic behavior among young people (Radovanović & Spasić, 2019, p.1585). A certain number of researchers even give preference to factors originating from the peer environment over factors from the social environment, such as family. It is to be expected that there is an interaction between school environment factors and family factors, and that the strongest simultaneous influence is coming from both factors (Zapolski et

al., 2019). The great influence that peer groups have on the occurrence of juvenile crime is also indicated by the assertion of a certain group of authors that substance abuse in a peer group is one of the strongest predictors of personal use (Allen et al., 2012). One part of the authors thinks that peer influence is actually group pressure and they explain such pressure as persuasion and encouragement of minors to use drugs. Others, on the other hand, believe that verbal and non-verbal communication play a major role within peer group, emphasizing that minor's perception on behavior of individual members of the group is of the greatest importance for their own behavior. In other words, the perception that friends use drugs is highly correlated with their own use (Radovanović & Spasić, 2019, p. 1586).

Mass media content has a great influence on minors, which is confirmed by the research conducted in Croatia on the subject of impact that mass media content has on life of adolescents. In that research 184 high school students in Zagreb were questioned about the types of media they use, time they spend with them, as well as the ways in which the use of various media affects their lives. The research results shows that the most used mass media among minors is the Internet. The results indicate the necessity of taking into account mass media as significant social factor in adolescents' life, but also draw attention to the necessity of providing guidelines in order to properly use these contents and avoid unwanted effects on minors (Šegregur et. al., 2014, p. 86). Mass media has an extremely large influence as a way of knowing about crime. A significant part of society acquires its knowledge symbolically, that is through media, which justifies the concern of certain authors regarding the contents that are presented to the audience (Surette, 2007, p. 34).

Minors, as group who lack life experience, represent an audience that is suitable for uncritical acceptance of marketed content. The special characteristics of the younger population lead to their susceptibility to media content that is shown on a daily basis. Content depicting crimes is ubiquitous, it can be seen in movies, newspapers, books, magazines, articles on the Internet, television, radio, as well as in ordinary communication with others (Ilić, 2017, p. 47). American research indicates that young people are exposed to the negative influences that come from entertainment programs that promote the use of tobacco, alcohol and drugs. Statistical data indicate the predominance of a positive attitude towards drug use in relation to scenes

with a negative attitude towards the same phenomenon. Research conducted in America which concerns the negative effects of films with such content is also applicable to our society, considering that 90% of television programs are of American origin (Ivanović, 2013, pp.147–148). In last few years several television series about drug crime were shown to our audience. Through general impression that these series had on minors, it is possible to come to a conclusion about the influence that such content had on juveniles' perception of crime related to narcotic drugs. Displaying content involving drug crime is always interesting to watch, but also potentially problematic when you think about the negative impact it can have on minors.

Method of Work

By taking into account a certain group of factors that can influence juveniles' perception about crime, especially that related to drugs, we conducted a survey which aim was determining perception that minors have towards drug crime. The research sample was made by students from high schools in the Belgrade municipality Obrenovac - Gymnasium in Obrenovac, Agricultural and Chemical School in Obrenovac and Technical School in Obrenovac (100 students in total), with 34 students from the Gymnasium, while in the remaining two the school sample consisted of 33 students each. The students who participated in the research were in their third and fourth year of high school. The research was conducted at the beginning of 2021/22 in the territory of the city municipality of Obrenovac.

The survey which was delivered to students consisted of 19 questions, divided into five parts. The first part of the questionnaire consists of questions directed towards obtaining basic data about the respondents, such as information about the gender structure and respondents age, the most common GPA they had during school time and information about the residential place.

The second part of the questionnaire was composed in a way that can provide insight into minors' family circumstances and the economic situation in their family. The questions were related to the respondents' housing conditions, the education their parents have, the marital status of their parents and the assessment of the economic situation that exists in their family.

The next part of the survey is about minors' school environment. Its aim was to determine to what extent school environment represents a suitable place for buying or selling drugs, what kind of perception the respondents have about it, and what kind of influence their environment, more specifically, peers, has on them when it comes to drug abuse. One of the questions in the survey was related to the experience of drug use by their schoolmates and situations in which they persuaded them to use drugs.

The fourth part of the survey represents a special unit and the ultimate goal of the questions asked in this part of the questionnaire is determining how media content affects minors' perception about drug crime. Approach that was used in this work should allow us to find out whether and to what extent new domestic television series about drug crime influence minors to form or change their attitude towards drug crime and the abuse of psychoactive substances. The television series that have been singled out are "Južni vetar", "Klan", "Grupa" and "Besa". Respondents were asked to state whether they had watched any of the mentioned television series, to evaluate the content they had the opportunity to watch, as well as to answer the question of how much influence they think such content has on the perception of minors about drug crime.

The last part of the survey contains questions related to the experiences that minors had with narcotic drugs, how old they were when they first consumed it, and whether the use of drugs happened more than once.

Review of Empirical Research Results

When it comes to the basic data on the people who participated in the research, the total number was 100 students, of which 39 were boys and 61 were girls. In the Gymnasium, 12 boys and 22 girls participated in the survey, while the situation at the other two schools was significantly different. In the Technical School the sample was dominated by boys, while in the Agricultural and Chemical School, girls predominated. All respondents were of legal age at the time of filling out the questionnaire.

Although the question related to the respondents' experiences with narcotic drugs is in the last part of the questionnaire, it is important to draw attention to the answers given by the respondents at the beginning of review

of the research results. The reason for this approach is the comparison that will be made throughout the review of the research results in relation to the factors of influence on minors on their perception of drug crime. The authors believe that through the example of respondents who had experience with narcotic drugs, the factors that have a significant impact on minors can be most adequately determined, so there will be more such comparisons throughout the work.

From the sample that included 100 students, 13 students stated that they had experience with narcotic drugs, 86 gave a negative answer, while one questionnaire had no answer to that question. Ivana Radovanović conducted research on the abuse of narcotic drugs in the population of high school students in Belgrade municipalities on a sample of 1287 respondents, where she came to the data on the prevalence of drug abuse of 20.5% (Radovanović, 2016, p. 412), while our research reached 13% of the total sample.

The GPA that examined students have is mostly very good and excellent, while a small number of them have a good or sufficient average grade. From respondents who had experience with drugs 15.4% had an excellent average, 61.5% of them very good, while 23.1% of the respondents achieved a good average. Based on these data, we cannot say that engaging in drug abuse is related to bad students, or that the GPA they have in school is of particular importance when it comes to their perception of drug crime.

The most of respondents stated that they live in the city (44 students), while a smaller number of students live in the suburbs or in the countryside (28 in both areas). However, when comparing the results of respondents who mentioned their experiences with drugs, it can be noted that these are students who mostly live in the suburbs, 46% of them, or in the countryside, where the same percentage of respondents live.

Family Circumstances Influence on Juveniles' Perception of Drug Crime

After we gathered some basic information about respondents, following part will refer to their family circumstances. The main reason for collecting this data is determining the impact that minors' family circumstances have on the abuse of narcotic drugs or a different perception of drug crime. The respondents were asked to answer with whom they live

and the most of them answered they live with both parents (83 students). This answer was expected. One part of respondents stated that they live with their mother or father, but those were respondents whose parents are divorced. Of the 13 respondents who consumed narcotic drugs, 84.6% stated that they live with both parents, only 7.7% with their mother and 7.7% chose the option "other".

The education of the respondents' parents is the next examined factor. The research results show that the largest number of their parents have secondary education, that is, 72% have a high school diploma. Only 1% of parents have completed elementary school, 7% have a higher education, while 12% have college education. The purpose of examining respondents' parents' education was finding out if there was a connection between the parents' education, whether it is at a lower or higher level, and the abuse of narcotic drugs by minors. If we take into account the respondents who consumed drugs, we will come to conclusion that the largest number of respondents' parents have a secondary education. The exceptions are two respondents, one whose parents only completed elementary school, and the other whose parents have college education.

Divorce of parents was taken as a special factor influencing minors to try drugs, as a form of dissatisfaction or revolt due to the parents' separation. According to research results, 16 out of 100 questioned students stated that their parents were divorced. Only one respondent stated that his parents were divorced and that he had tried drugs, while for the rest of the respondents there was no connection between parental divorce and the drug use.

The assessment of the respondents' economic situation is a factor that needed to be examined in order to determine the connection between the financial circumstances of the respondents' family and their perception of drugs. The economic situation is an important factor when it comes to the abuse of narcotic drugs among minors, so it is necessary to compare it with those respondents who answered that they had consumed narcotic drugs. From total number of respondents who stated they had tried drugs (13), the economic situation was described as average by 38.5%, as very good by 46.1%, and as excellent by 15.4% of respondents. This situation corresponds to the one shown in the total sample. The majority of students assess their economic situation as average or very good, with a slightly smaller number of those who describe it as excellent.

School Environment Influence on Juveniles' Perception of Drug Crime

In addition to the influence of the family environment on juveniles' perception of drug crime, it was important to examine the influence of the school environment. In order to establish what kind of idea minors have about the ongoings in their school environment, they were asked if there are places near their school that are suitable for buying or selling drugs. It is specific that only 8 respondents gave negative answer, while the rest believed that such places exist (34 students), and more than half of them stated that they did not notice such places (58 students). In addition to the fact that more than half of the respondents answered that they did not notice places suitable for selling/buying drugs, such answer may also indicate that they have heard of such places but are not sure if they really exist, which makes a large number of respondents who are not aware of the existing risks in their school environment or that they haven't even thought about it.

When it comes to the presence of persons "dealing" drugs in the school environment, whether it is the school yard or a place in the immediate vicinity of the school, half of the respondents stated they did not notice such persons (49 students). The other half of the respondents, on the other hand, stated they noticed the presence of such persons (19 students), while the rest (30 students) did not personally notice their presence, but they heard that was happening. An interesting fact that we came to through research is that out of 13 respondents who had some experiences with drugs, 76.9% gave an affirmative answer to the question regarding the existence of suitable places for buying/selling drugs in the immediate vicinity of the school. When it comes to the presence of persons who sell or offer to sell drugs close to schools, 61.5% of respondents who already had experience with drugs believes that there are such persons in the immediate vicinity of schools. The conclusion that can be drawn is that people who are interested in finding and seeing something, find it, while for others, who are not interested, certain things can easily go unnoticed.

The next part of the question about the school environment refers to the experiences their peers had with drugs, as well as situations in which they were offered drugs to try. In order to make a correlation with the research from 2015, in which 137 drug users were examined, we will list data

that researchers came up with at that time, which concern the readiness of the respondents to provide information about themselves and others. According to research results, a significantly larger number of respondents gave information about other persons who participated in the purchase, sale or possession of drugs (53 persons) or who participated in the commission of some other criminal offense (53 persons), while when they had to share some information about themselves, more precisely about the purchase, sale or possession of drugs by the respondent himself, or the commission of a criminal offense by the respondent, that number was at a significantly lower level (34, i.e. 36 persons) (Lajić & Dickov, 2015, p. 63).

A similar situation exists when it comes to our research results and which refer to other people's experience with drugs and personal drug use. A third of respondents, or 32 of them, gave an affirmative answer to question about the experience their classmates had with narcotic drugs, 27 answered negatively, while 41 respondents answered that they have no information about such experiences. When asked whether their friends had ever persuaded them to sell narcotic drugs, a very small number of respondents admitted that they had (8), an even smaller number that they had experienced such situations more than once (4), and 88 of them stated that they had no such situations. If we look at the data obtained from the answers of respondents who consumed drugs, 53.8% stated that their peers had already had experience with drugs, but that they had not been offered drugs to try.

Media Influences on Juveniles' Perception of Drug Crime

When it comes to determining media influence on juveniles' perception about drug crime, we selected four TV series whose plot is based on drug crime and we examined students' attitudes about those series. The television series "Južni vetar", "Klan", "Grupa" and "Besa" were singled out. Respondents were asked to rate the above-mentioned series, if they had the opportunity to watch them, and then to give their opinion on the extent to which these series influence juveniles' perception about drug crime. The majority of respondents gave the series the highest rating. On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means that did not like it one bit, and 5 means they liked it very much, the series " Južni vetar " was rated 5 by 50% of the respondents. "Klan" was rated the same by 45.2% of the respondents, the series "Grupa"

by 34.4%, and "Besa" liked very much even 67.6% of respondents. If we take into account the fact that a significant number of respondents rated the series with 4, or more precisely stated that they like the series, we can conclude that series of this genre have a positive impression on younger audience.

Assessing the impact that films and series have on minor viewers is of great importance. According to Zdravko and Tatjana Skakavac, today's films attract the attention of underage viewers because of their content that highlights the positive side of violence and crime. If movie contents promote violent resolution of conflicts between individuals, we can ask ourselves in what way will this reflect on thinking and behavior of viewers, especially younger ones, whether such content will have an impact only on the thinking of the viewer or will it lead to the reactions of the viewers like the one seen in the film (Skakavac & Skakavac, 2011, p. 210). One of the examples cited by the authors, which concerns the impact of screen characters on minors, is the case that happened in 2005 in Niš, where two minors first kidnapped and demanded a ransom for the minor Miloš Krinić, and then took his life. The juveniles stated they were inspired by the film "Rane" by Srđan Dragojević and its main characters Pinki and Švaba as the reason and motive for committing the crime of murder. The perpetrators stated that they watched the film over 150 times and used it as a model for committing the murder (2011, p. 211).

The attitude taken by high school students, when it comes to the influence of mentioned TV series, is mostly neutral. On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 refers to the attitude that series have no influence on the juveniles' perception about drug crime, and 5 to having an absolute influence, the largest number of respondents answered that the series have a partial influence.

Regarding the partial influence that mentioned TV series have on minors' perception of drug crime, the respondents opted for the following answers: for "Južni vetar" 40.9% of the respondents circled the number 3 on the scale, expressing neutral attitude regarding the influence of this series, for "Klan" 45.2% of students gave the same rating, for the series "Group" 50% of the respondents opted for the same answer, and for the series "Besa" 55.8% of the questioned students. An interesting fact is that the majority of respondents believe that the series "Klan", "Grupa" and "Besa" have no

influence or mostly have no influence on minors when it comes to drug abuse crime, while this is not the case with series "Južni vetar", for which 17% of respondents believe that it has a good influence, and even 23.9% of respondents think that it has an absolute influence on perception of drug crime among minors.

If we take into account the attitudes of respondents who had experience with drugs, the situation is next: the largest number of those respondents expressed liking of recent TV series, with a rating of 4 or 5, stating that they liked or liked the content very much. Series "Južni vetar" was rated 5 by 53.8% of respondents, "Klan" by 57.1%, "Grupa" by 33.3%, while the highest rating on the scale was for "Besa" by 55.5% of the surveyed students. When it comes to the influence of such media content on minors, the mentioned group of respondents is of the opinion that these contents have no influence, mostly have no influence or that they have only a partial influence on perception about drug crime. The majority of these respondents are of the opinion that these series have a partial influence on the perception of the of drug crime: for "Južni vetar" it is 46.2%, for "Klan" 71.4%, for "Grupa" 50% and for "Besa" 44.4% of respondents. A different attitude is noticeable among this group of respondents when it comes to the series "South Wind" because a certain part of the respondents believe that this series has an impact on juveniles' perception of drug crime, which has also been noticed in the total sample. Namely, 23.1% of this group of respondents believe that "Južni vetar" has an absolute influence on the perception about crime in general and the abuse of narcotic drugs.

Juveniles' Experiences With Drugs

The last part of the questionnaire was about experiences with narcotic drugs. The respondents were asked whether they had ever tried narcotic drugs, how old they were when they had their first encounter with drugs and whether they had used drugs more than once. We have already mentioned that 13 respondents stated they had tried narcotic drugs, 86 of them said that they did not have any experiences with drugs, while one respondent did not answer that question. If we compare this information with the answers given by the respondents to the question of whether their peers have had experience with drugs, we will notice a certain discrepancy. Namely, it was previously stated that 32 respondents gave an affirmative

answer to this question, 27 answered negatively, while 41 respondents answered that they had no knowledge about it. Through these data, we can come to a conclusion that a certain number of respondents did not provide accurate information when it comes to experiences with drugs.

The gender structure of respondents who gave an affirmative answer to the question of whether they had ever tried drugs includes 61.5% boys and 38.5% girls. As for life period in which those respondents were when they tried drugs for the first time, it is most often the period when they were 16 years old, 46.1% of the respondents, or 15 years old, 38.5% of them. At the age of 17 and 18, 7.7% of respondents had experience with psychoactive substances. All respondents who stated that they had tried drugs at some point also stated that they had used drugs more than once. That information can also speak of the fact that among the respondents was a certain number of those who had one-time experience with narcotic drugs, but did not want to declare about it in the questionnaire.

Discussion

Out of 100 respondents who participated in the research, 13 of them stated that they had experience with narcotic drugs, so the most significant research results will actually represent the impact that certain factors had or could have on that group of respondents.

The influence of respondents' sociodemographic characteristics can be significant for juveniles' perception of drug crime, but it is not dominant. By looking at residential places of respondents who had experience of using narcotic drugs, we have come to the data that 46% of them lives in city, 46% in suburbs and 8% in rural areas. If we look at the number of those who live with both parents and compare it to those who live in a different environment, respondents who live with both parents predominate, and make 84.6% of respondents. When it comes to the education of the respondents' parents, the largest number of students stated that their parents have secondary education, and this information also coincides with the respondents who declared themselves as users of narcotic drugs. Parents of respondents who used drugs mostly have secondary education, 84% of them, 8% have primary education and 8% college education. Certain comparisons can be made with data from the research conducted by Ivana Radovanović. The research was conducted in order to obtain data on the abuse of narcotic drugs in the

population of high school students in Belgrade municipalities with the sample of 1287 students. The research examined, among other things, the influence of sociodemographic characteristics of respondents on engaging in drug abuse and the result was that the place of residence, with whom the students live and the education of the parents have a significant impact on drug use. According to her research results, such behaviors are more often encountered in students who live in the city, who do not live with both parents or do not live with their parents at all, whose parents have higher education and master's or doctoral degrees (Radovanović, 2016, p. 185). During the ten-year period that passed between two researches, we can notice that there are indications which suggest that the urban environment still represents dominant residential place of students who come into contact with drugs, but that now exist more significant differences in relation to the influence of who they live with, as well as the influence of their parents' education.

The connection between parental divorce and drug abuse among the surveyed students was noticed in only one respondent, so we can say that divorce does not represent a significant factor in engaging in drug abuse. Radovanović also found a low correlation between these two variables in her research (Radovanović, 2016, p. 185). By looking at economic situation of respondents with drug use experience, we have come to the same conclusion as Radovanović, that there is more drug abuse in economically better-off families (Radovanović, 2016, p. 185). According to data from our survey, 38.5% of them described the economic situation as average, 46.1% as very good, and 15.4% as excellent, while none of them stated that the economic situation is extremely or partially bad.

The influence of the school environment is more dominant in relation to the previously described influence of the respondents' family circumstances. Respondents who had contact with drugs gave a significant answer to the question about the existence of convenient places for buying or selling drugs near schools, namely, 76.9% of them stated that such places exist in the immediate vicinity of the schools. When it comes to the presence of people who "deal" drugs near schools 61.5% of respondents, from the category of those who had contact with drugs, confirm the presence of "dealers" in their school environment. It was more important determining to what extent peers influence minors on engaging in drug abuse. 32% of

respondents gave an affirmative answer to the question of whether their peers had experience with psychoactive substances, 27% gave a negative answer, while 41% stated that they had no information about it. Answer to the question about offering drugs to try and persuasion to consume drugs by peers led us to the following data: 88% opted for a negative answer, only 8% stated that they had experienced such situations, and 4% that they had been in such situations several times. A little over half of the respondents who had experience with drugs, 53.8% of them, emphasized that their friends had experience with the drug use, but that they did not persuade them to abuse them, which coincides with the answers to this question among the group of respondents who made up the entire sample.

According to the results of Ivana Radovanović's research, which concern the influence of peer groups on drug abuse among minors', use of drugs among boys and girls is dominantly determined by the use of drugs by members of the peer group, and for girls there is also group pressure expressed in "persuasion to take drugs" (Radovanović, Spasić, 2019, p. 1590). Radovanović came to the data that if minors belong to a peer group, 39.23% of them use drugs, and 60.77% do not, while when they do not belong to a group, the percentage of the ones engaged in drug use is 13.34% and 86.66% of those who are not (Radovanović, 2016, p. 186). If the research data from Ivana Radovanović is taken into account and compared to those we came to by examining minors' attitude about the experience their peers had with drugs, which is 32%, the real number of respondents who really had experience with drugs becomes questionable. There are assumptions that number is higher than 13% of respondents who shared their experiences in the questionnaire or that they do not belong to peer groups.

An important part of our research examines the role of media content on juveniles' perception about drug crime. The aim of this part of the work was to determine how the newer TV series, "Južni vetar", "Klan", "Grupa" and "Besa", whose content whose content refers to drug crime, influence the perception that minors have about drugs. The research results show that almost half of the respondents give the highest rating when it comes to liking these series. The majority of respondents expressed a neutral attitude regarding the impact these TV series have on juveniles' perception of drug crime. If we take into account the attitude of respondents who had consumed drugs, more than half of them state that they like or like the series

of that genre very much, and are of the opinion that these contents have no influence, mostly have no influence or that they have only a partial influence on perception about drug crime. The exception is one part of the respondents, more precisely 23.1%, who are of the opinion that the series "Južni vetar" has an absolute influence on minors' perception about drug crime. The impact of media content significantly depends on the society in which that content is presented. Research conducted in Colombian society analyzed the influence of television series with the drug crime theme. The research results of television series indicate that they have great popularity and sympathy of the audience due to the positive presentation of the characters, despite the fact that the reality of the Colombian society was shaken by violence and numerous murders. Such content would not have such a level of appeal in American or our society due to important differences in social reality (Ivanović, 2013, p. 151). By taking into account the level of liking of new TV series about drug crime, as well as the registered increase in the number of crimes among minors related to the abuse of narcotic drugs, we can conclude that our society represents an environment in which drug crime tends to grow, and that certain media content can affirmatively contribute to the acceptance of the drug milieu as everyday occurrences.

Finally, we will look at the total percentage of students involved in drug abuse in research that conducted Ivana Radovanović and compare it to the data collected by our research. Her research resulted in data on the representation of 20.5% of respondents (Radovanović, 2016, p. 412), while our research reached 13% of the total sample. In our research, the gender structure of respondents who used drugs is such that boys predominate with 61.5%, while girls make 38.5%. An interesting piece of information is that all respondents who confirmed their experience with narcotic drugs stated that they did not have such an experience only once.

Conclusion

The juveniles' perception about crime related to narcotic drugs is conditioned by socio-demographic factors, factors that come from the school environment and influences that come from marketed media content. Social conditions and family circumstances of minors, such as place of residence, economic status, housing conditions, parental divorce and parents' education, have lower impact on minors' perception of drug crime.

According to the results of recent research, it can be pointed out that minors who live in urban areas, and whose parents have at least secondary education and good or excellent economic conditions are more likely to use narcotic drugs than those who have more modest living conditions.

The school environment has a more significant influence on juveniles' perception about drug crime. There are numerous suitable places for buying or selling narcotic drugs within the school environment. In addition, it is noticeable that in the immediate vicinity of the schools you can see people who "deal" drugs. Members of peers group, who have already had experience with the use of narcotic drugs, can have a strong influence on minors to start abusing drugs themselves. A third of the respondents stated that their peers had experience with drug use, which raises the question of the influence they had on them when it comes to drug abuse. The positive research result is that there is no group pressure on minors, or there is a small amount of it, to use drugs, which leads us to the conclusion that drug use is a matter of minors' personal choice and the awareness they have formed about this phenomenon.

The increased influence of media content is also noticeable the sphere of minors and drug crime. The research results indicate that minors very much like content about drug crime, but that they have relatively low level of awareness of the impact that content has on them. In our region, there are many examples of how violent film content has had a negative impact on minors. In our paper we mentioned an event from 2005, when two minors, inspired by the movie "Rane", committed the crime of murder of a minor.

The conclusion that could be drawn based on all the presented data is that minors do not have a sufficiently developed perception of the seriousness of drug crime and the abuse of narcotic drugs. Their characteristics make them more susceptible to certain influences, so in relation to those risk factors, especially those coming from the school environment, it is necessary to implement certain prevention measures, or, when it comes to the role of media content, measures that should expand minors' awareness of negative impacts of drug crime.

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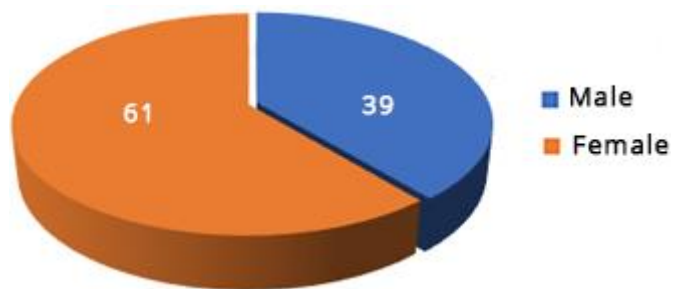
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Appendix

Figure 1

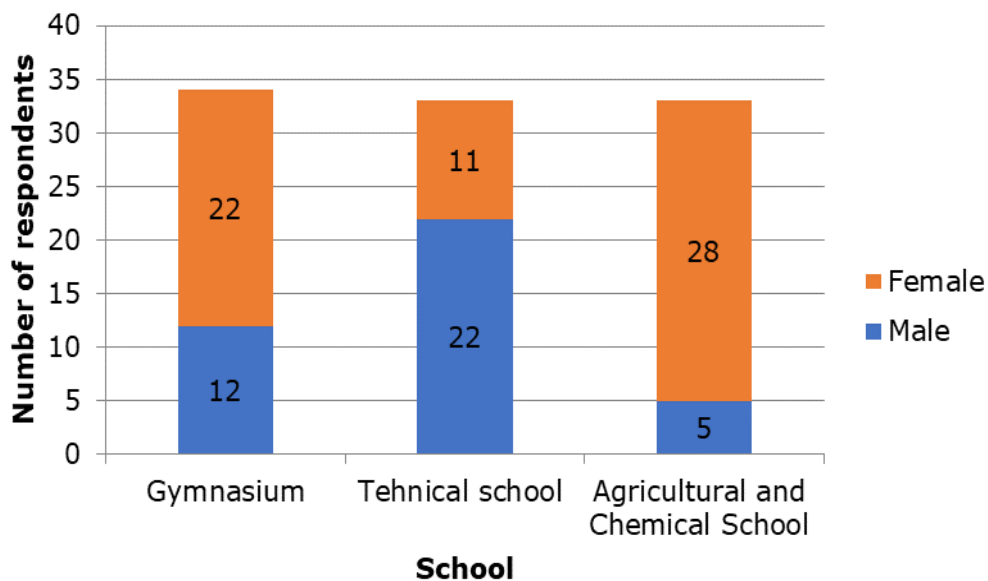
Gender structure of respondents



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 2

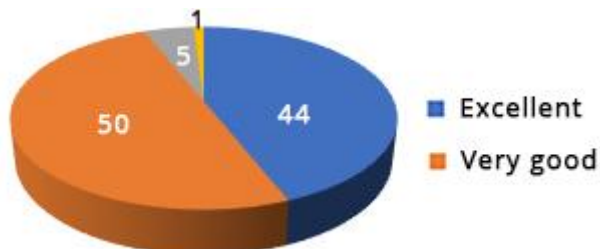
Gender structure of respondents by school



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 3

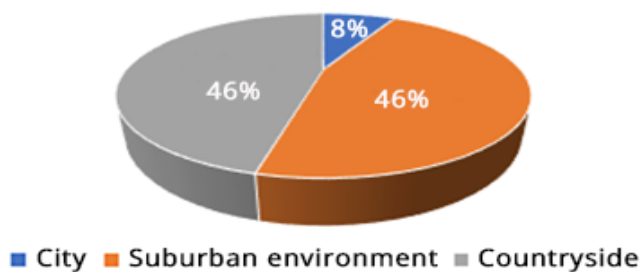
GPA of the respondents



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 4

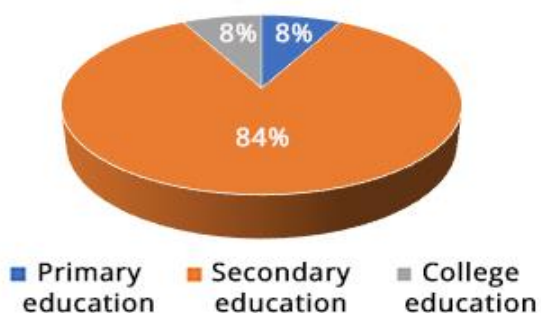
Place of residence of respondents who had experience with narcotic drugs



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 5

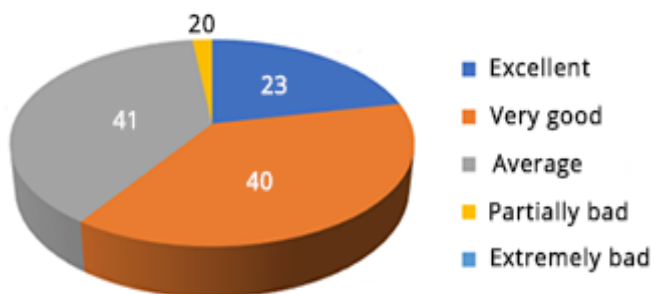
Education of parents of respondents who abused narcotic drugs



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 6

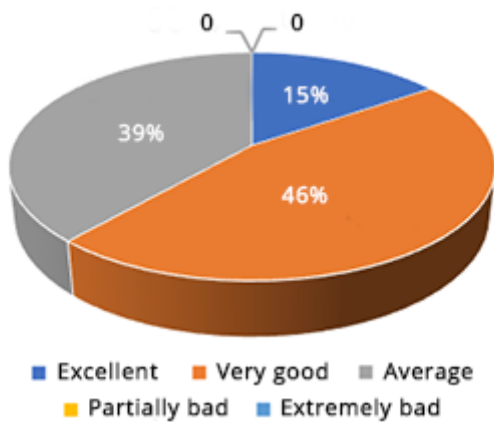
Economic situation of the respondents



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 7

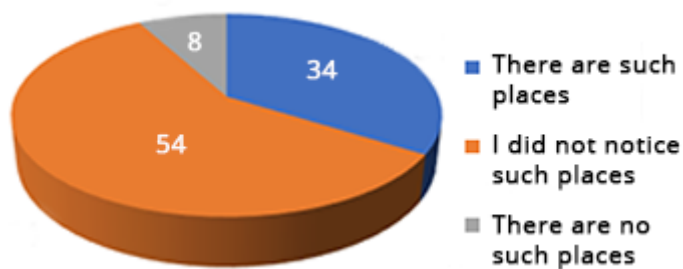
The economic situation of respondents who had experience with narcotic drugs



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 8

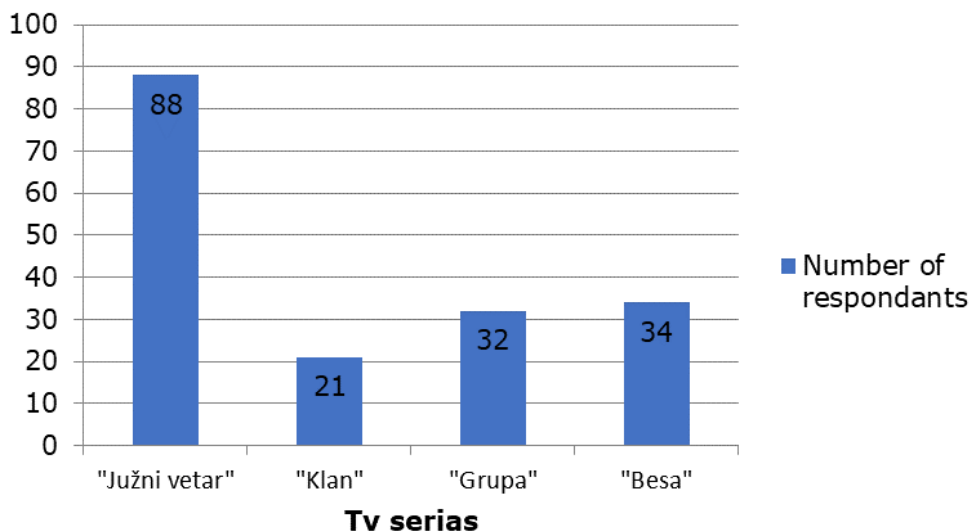
Respondents' attitudes about the existence of places suitable for buying/selling drugs near their schools



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 9

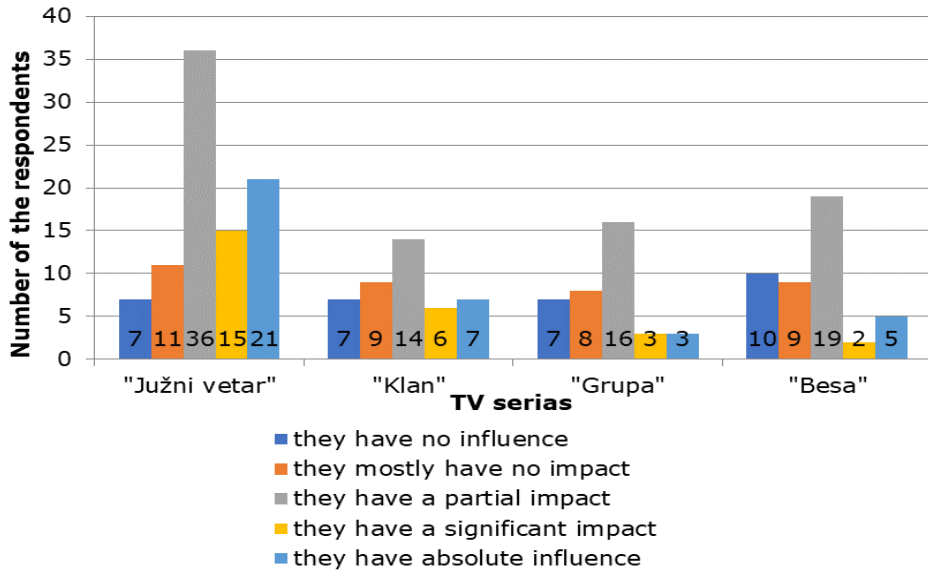
Number of respondents who watched TV series



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 10

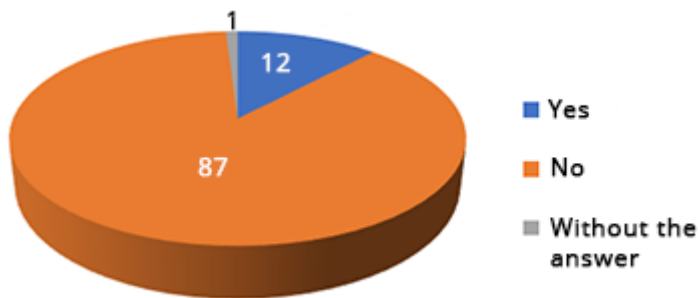
The influence of TV series on juveniles' perception about drug crime



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Figure 11

Respondents' experiences with narcotic drugs



Note. The result of the authors' research.

Percepcija maloletnika o narkokriminalu među mladima

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Sažetak

Savremeno društvo pogođeno je problemom narkomanije i narkokriminala na globalnom i nacionalnom nivou, a štetne posledice nastale zloupotrebom opojnih droga su izuzetno ozbiljne i široko rasprostranjene. Dodatnoj ozbiljnosti celokupnog stanja doprinosi i činjenica da se maloletnici češće nego ranije nalaze u ulozi učinilaca krivičnih dela povezanih sa opojnim drogama. Kako tendencija kretanja narkokriminala među mladima poslednjih nekoliko godina ukazuje na trend rasta ovog fenomena u našem društvu, fokus rada biće utvrđivanje značaja određenih faktora na percepciju mladih o narkokriminalu. Radi ostvarivanja ovog zadatka, sprovedi smo istraživanje među učenicima srednjih škola koje je za cilj imalo ispitivanje uticaja faktora porodične sredine, školskog okruženja i pojedinih medijskih sadržaja na njihovu percepciju o narkokriminalu. U istraživanju je učestvovalo 100 učenika. Rezultati istraživanja pokazuju da sociodemografske karakteristike mladih nemaju značajniji uticaj na njihovu predstavu o narkokriminalu. Školska sredina, pak, ostvaruje dominantniji uticaj, usled postojanja pogodnih mesta za kupovinu i prodaju droge neposrednoj blizini škola, ali i prisustva lica koja droge „diluju“. Pored toga, na maloletnike snažan uticaj ostvaruju i njihovi vršnjaci koji su ranije imali nekih iskustava sa zloupotrebom opojnih droga. Rezultati istraživanja ukazuju na visok nivo dopadanja medijskih sadržaja o narkokriminalu među mladima, ali i na nedovoljno razvijenu svest među njima o uticaju koji takvi sadržaji ostvaruju na njih.

Ključne reči: maloletnici, narkokriminal, porodična sredina, školsko okruženje, mediji

The Application of the "Leadership Grid" Model: Case Study of Human Resources Sector in the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Serbia

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Abstract

The effective leadership is very important for the public sector functioning. The effectiveness of the leadership process is influenced by many factors. One of them relates to the behaviour of leaders and managers. The leadership grid is a practical model for training managers, supervisors, and leaders. This model has a particular importance from the aspect of increasing productivity and commitment to the work of employees. To apply the model, it is necessary to identify the behavioural orientation of the leader or manager. Empirical research was conducted in July 2021, within the organizational units of the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Internal Affairs in the Republic of Serbia using an anonymous survey questionnaire on a sample of 50 respondents. Descriptive statistical indicators were applied in hypothesis testing. The research findings indicate that employees believe that direct managers are more focused on the implementation of tasks. Based on the "leadership grid" model, the leadership style – Compromise Management is represented. Furthermore, the results of this research can contribute to the development of professional capacities to make the processes more effective and improve the work of the public sector.

Keywords: leadership grid, manager's behavior, process effectiveness, human resources, ministry of internal affairs

The Application of the "Leadership Grid" Model: Case Study of Human Resources Sector in the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Serbia

In recent decades, leadership has become the subject of research not only in the private sector, but also in the public sector, as evidenced by the scientific literature (Fernandez et al., 2010; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Van der Voet, 2016; Murphy et al., 2017; Orazi et al., 2013; Tizard, 2012; Wright & Pandey, 2010; Drumaux & Joyce, 2018). The fact that a small number of researchers from the Republic of Serbia were engaged in the study of this topic was one of the reasons for designing the empirical research presented in the paper.

In theory and practice, management and leadership are often equated, even though they are not terms of the same meaning, but two separate concepts with specific activities and processes. Management is a broader term than leadership and consists of activities such as planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. Therefore, leadership is an integral part of the management process. Managing means making people productive, maintaining optimal working conditions, and using resources in the best possible way. Management refers to preventive action and problem-solving, but also to maintain the existing state. The holders of management functions are most often related to leaders and top management, but also to other management bodies such as company capital owners, shareholders, founders, the board of directors, the supervisory board, executives, and others, depending on the roles they have in the organization as well as the characteristics of the company. Leadership is unthinkable without a clear vision and an adequate strategy for the realization of defined goals. It implies activities aimed at ensuring a favourable working environment and nurturing positive interpersonal relations in the organization, initiating actions, and taking risks.

The essential difference between leaders and managers is in the exercise of influence, that is, in the type of power they have and use, as well as in the potential they possess. While the manager's power is based on a formally defined role in the hierarchical structure, the leader has the power to mobilize the attention of followers based on his ability, knowledge, and charisma, especially in crisis situations (Janovac & Virijević Jovanović, 2022,

p. 163). Leadership is a relationship of influence, while management is a relationship of authority (Janovac, 2020, p. 21). Managerial skills form a good foundation for successful leadership. In other words, you cannot become a good leader if you have not previously been a good manager. For this reason, management is the basic starting point for leadership.

Public sector reform is one of the priorities of the government in the Republic of Serbia, but also one of the conditions for accession to the European Union. The main goals of the reform are oriented towards better organization, strengthening the process of public policy management, as well as the development of a modern and professional official system through the digitalization process. In addition, the reform should make traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizations become oriented towards success and goal achievement (Lapuente & Van de Walle, 2020), which represents a challenge for organizations in the public sector (Mattei et al, 2021). The strategy of the reform envisages the improvement of human resources management system, which implies the development of professional capacities that indicates a good direction of the reform, since the success of the process itself depends on human resources. For public sector reform to achieve its contribution, it is necessary to develop effective leadership at all levels. Effective leadership is particularly important for public sector organisations that involve security management. In addition to the functioning of public sector, effective leadership is also significant for the quality of services that are delivered to citizens as well as for security. According to Matjie (2018), effectiveness and efficiency can only be achieved if managers apply the appropriate style, which can be realized with appropriate training. Effective leadership can contribute to greater work efficiency and service quality in the organization (Zhihong et al., 2013).

Authoritarian management has traditionally dominated the work of public organizations. This style is characterized by a strong emphasis on the task and job requirements, and a weaker emphasis on the role of people, except to the extent that people are a means of performing work. Communication with employees is not represented to a large extent, except to give instructions regarding tasks. This style is driven by results, and people are seen as a means to achieve them (Northouse, 2008, p. 50). Authoritarian management is also defined as "a style that combines authority and control" (Khuwaja et al., 2020). The management control system is used to improve

the organisation's performance (Felicio et al., 2021). Regarding that the public sector faces particular challenges when implementing reforms, behavioural styles based on control and hierarchy are not the best solution since they are difficult to adapt to changes (Martin et al., 2017).

As effective leadership depends on numerous factors, the goal of this paper is to analyse the orientation of the managers' behaviour, as well as to identify the dominant leadership style based on the "leadership grid" model. Empirical research was conducted in July 2021 within the organizational units of the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Internal Affairs in the Republic of Serbia using an anonymous survey questionnaire on a sample of 50 respondents. Data processing and hypothesis testing were performed using IBM SPSS version 23 Statistical Software.

The "Leadership Grid" Model

The studies dealing with the effects of leadership from the perspective of leader's behaviour were conducted at the universities of Ohio (Stogdill, 1974; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and Michigan (Likert & Bowers, 1969; Likert, 1979; Katz et al., 1950) in fifties and sixties during the last century. The results of these studies have indicated that leaders basically exhibit two types of behaviour: behaviour that is focused on performing tasks and realizing goals and behaviour that is focused on building good interpersonal relationships (Northouse, 2008, p. 48). Leaders who orient their behaviour towards the realization of tasks and goals are focused on structure and operational procedures, while leaders who are aimed at building relations with employees are focused on their development, meeting the needs of employees and good communication (Warrick, 1981; Janovac, 2020, p.87). Such leaders achieve results due to the creation of a good organizational climate based on mutual appreciation and respect. In terms of effectiveness, the best leaders are those who combine both types of behaviour.

Authors Robert Blake and Jane Mouton used the studies conducted at the universities of Ohio and Michigan in 1964 for constructing a "leadership grid" as a graphic representation of possible leadership styles shown through a matrix. In the foundation of leadership grid there are two basic leadership behaviours. They include focus on results or tasks, represented as concern for production on the x-axis, and concern for people, i.e. orientation towards

creating better interpersonal relationships, good working conditions, employee motivation, which is represented on the y-axis. Each axis consists of nine points, consequently, point 1 indicates low leader activity, while point 9 indicates high activity (Figure 1). Combining the results of each axis, five leadership styles can be identified (Blake & Mouton, 1979): Impoverished Management (1.1) – Represents a leader who does not consider either the realization of tasks or interpersonal relationships. It is a disinterested and uncommitted type of leader. In this case, the tasks are not performed according to the prescribed standards, and the team members are dissatisfied and unmotivated with this leadership style. Authority Compliance Management (9.1) – This style is characterized by a strong emphasis on the task, and a weaker orientation on employees. A leader is more focused on meeting goals, and less oriented on building the quality of interpersonal relationships, on employees and their needs. Middle of the Road Management or Compromise Management (5.5) – It is characteristic of leaders who are ready to compromise. A leader is moderately interested in both tasks and people. To achieve balance, the leader avoids conflict and promotes intermediate levels of goal orientation and building interpersonal relationships. At first glance, it may seem that this style is appropriate in most situations, however, due to the leader's compromising attitude, neither the results nor interpersonal relations will be at an enviable level. Country Club Management (1.9) - Characterized by insufficient concern for the fulfilment of tasks or goals but expressed concern for building good interpersonal relationships. The leader is more focused on employees and their satisfaction, on building good relationships, than showing orientation towards the realization of tasks. Team Management (9.9) – In team management, the focus of the leader on both tasks and interpersonal relationships is emphasized. A high level of participation and teamwork in the organization is promoted and the basic needs of employees are met. The best option is if leaders manage to achieve a high position in the leadership grid on both dimensions, since it means that they maintain a balance between high satisfaction of work needs and people's needs.

The leadership grid represents a practical model for the training of managers and leaders, and it has undergone several changes since the original design was made by mentioned authors (1964, 1978, 1985 and 1991).

Regardless of the changes, the leadership grid has been applied for nearly six decades for development programs in various fields. This model has a special importance from the aspect of increasing productivity and commitment to the work of employees. Based on several situations, a leader, manager, or executive can identify his style in a simple way. After identification, he can create a personal development plan to progress in leading his team and realizing goals. However, the disadvantage of this model is that there are many more aspects of leadership that are not included. The model is focused on leadership styles, but not on the level of motivation of employees and their development.

Research Methodology

The empirical research included a sample of 50 respondents of different gender, age, level of education and work experience. The survey was conducted in July 2021 with the aim of examining the attitudes of employees regarding the behaviour orientation of the immediate managers in organizational units within the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Interior in The Republic of Serbia and to identify the dominant leadership style based on the application of the "leadership grid" model. The human resources sector performs tasks that ensure the conditions for the smooth functioning of the organizational units of the Ministry of Internal Affairs in the country, to realize the expressed needs for employee competencies. The Department for Human Resources includes the Police Training Centre and eight departments. The Police Training Centre, after obtaining the consent of the Human Resources Sector, and at the request of the author of this paper, conducted a survey of employees through the e-classroom of the Ministry of Internal Affairs.

The research sample was determined by including employees from different organizational units of the Human Resources Sector. It was distributed in proportion to the number of employees in the organizational units of the Sector, of which 50 employees filled out the questionnaire. With population size of 150 employees, confidence level of 99% which gives a confidence coefficient of 0.99 and a margin error of 0.1, sample size was determined by Cochran's formula (Kotrlík & Higgins, 2001).

For the purposes of this research, an anonymous survey questionnaire was constructed. The first part of the questionnaire referred to respondents'

particulars. The second part of the survey included eighteen statements aimed at examining respondents' views on the behaviours of immediate managers. The design of the second part of the questionnaire was made according to selected items from the Leadership Style Questionnaire (Northouse, 2008, p.59). Using a Likert scale, respondents expressed their agreement with each statement that measured managers' behaviours by giving a rating on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 – completely disagree, 2 – partially disagree, 3 – neutral, 4 – partially agree, 5 – totally agree). The orientation of leadership behaviour was determined on the basis of two subscales: focus on the realization of tasks and focus on building interpersonal relationships. The task-oriented subscale was obtained as the sum of the results of seven individual statements (gives clear instructions to employees regarding the implementation of tasks and defining roles; requires employees to respect standards, procedures, rules; in most cases, makes decisions independently; makes it clear to employees what rewards are received for the achieved result; keeps records of all employee mistakes; controls employee behaviour through punishments and rewards; is oriented towards the realization of tasks and goals), and the total result is divided by the number of claims. The subscale of focus on building interpersonal relationships was obtained as the sum of the results of eleven individual statements (consults with employees about solving problems and in relation to other issues; delegates authority to employees and records the results achieved; the manager provides support to employees to overcome the problem and solve the task; allows employees freedom in the implementation of tasks; provides employees with feedback on achieved results; is oriented towards building good interpersonal relationships; motivates employees in the realization of goals; accepts responsibility for poor results; shows expertise in crisis situations; encourages employees to develop and progress; the manager often introduces changes for the purpose of process efficiency), and the total result is divided by the number of claims.

Based on the theoretical background and the research goal, the following hypothesis was defined

H0: Managers are more oriented towards the realization of tasks than towards employees.

H1: Based on the leadership grid model, it is assumed that Authoritarian Management is dominant for managers.

Hypothesis testing was based on descriptive statistical indicators, by applying software IBM SPSS.

Research Results and Discussion

The presentation of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents is given in Table 1. Regarding the structure of the sample, it can be noted that female respondents predominate (68%). A significant share of respondents included in the sample is between 35 and 44 years old (44%), while the least number of those who belong to the age group over 55 years old (4%). Most respondents have higher education (70%). In the organizational units in the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the most employees have up to 5 years of service (50%), while the least number of employees have over 20 years of service (14%).

Descriptive statistical indicators, normality test and reliability check of leadership behaviour orientation are shown in Table 2. The range of obtained results is from 1 to 5, while the range of average values of the used subscales ranges from 3.46 to 3.55. The examination of normality based on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests indicates that the assumption of normality of subscale distribution is not confirmed, i.e. that, in analysing the hypothesis related to individual subscales, non-parametric statistical techniques will be used. Reliability testing based on Cronbach's Alpha coefficient indicates that all subscales have very good reliability and internal consistency.

By observing the orientation of the leadership behaviour for the immediate managers of the operational management level, it can be seen that the managers are slightly more focused on the implementation of the task (Mean=3.55) in relation to building interpersonal relationships (Mean=3.46). Considering the small difference in average values, according to the "leadership grid" model, it can be concluded that the dominant leadership style is "Middle of the Road Management" or Compromise Management. Compromise management is characterized by leaders, managers and executives who are willing to compromise and who find a

balance by caring about people but still taking into account the demands of the job. With a compromise style, managers provide an incentive for production, and at the same time pay attention to employees. This style gives priority to "middle solutions", alleviates disagreements with employees, all in the interest of "progress" (Northouse, 2008, p. 51).

The advantage of this research is that the analysis of the results has identified the manager's behavioural orientation and indicated the style that can give a better result, which is extremely important for the effectiveness of leadership in the process of implementing reforms. In addition, the leadership grid model can be easily applied in ongoing leadership situations at all levels. By assessing their own style, managers can determine how they treat others and how they can change their behaviour to be more effective.

Conclusion

The findings indicate that employees in the organizational units of the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Interior of Serbia believe that the immediate managers are slightly more focused on the realization of tasks and goals, oriented toward the structure and operational procedures due to the nature of the work and activities of the Sector. Based on the research results, and according to the leadership grid model, it can be concluded that the dominant leadership style is "Middle of the Road Management" or Compromise Management.

However, bearing in mind numerous projects that are based on teamwork and involve a great number of employees and managers of the Human Resources Sector of the Ministry of Interior, it is necessary to develop „Team Management“. Team Management is characterized by the leader's emphasis on both tasks and interpersonal relationships. This style promotes a high level of employee participation, which is extremely important for increasing the level of employee motivation.

The limiting factor of this research is that, due to the anonymous nature of the survey, it was not determined in which positions the respondents were assigned. Further research will be directed at measuring the effectiveness of leadership style between female and male leaders.

To implement public sector reforms and achieve the effectiveness of processes, it is necessary to develop leadership through the continuous implementation of training for managers at all levels. In this regard, the "leadership grid" model can be used for practical training of managers. This type of training is important for managers in terms of behavioral change and leadership effectiveness.

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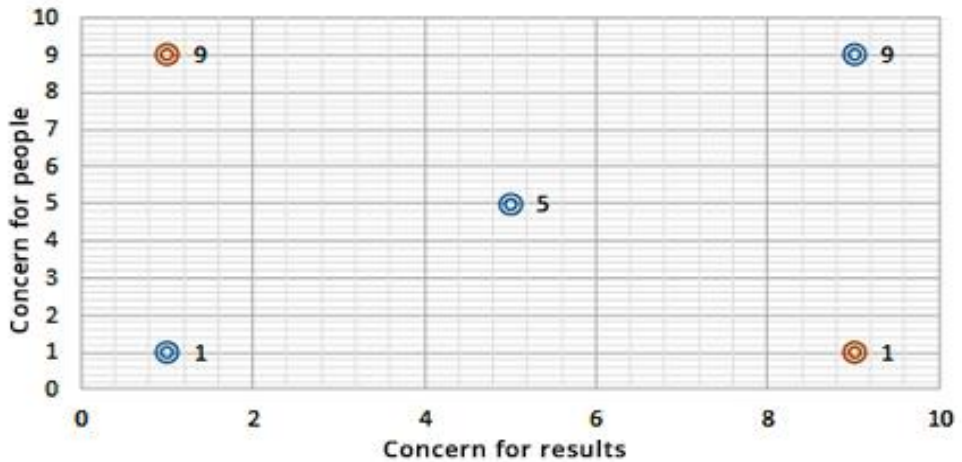
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Appendix

Figure 1

Leadership grid



Impoverished Management (1.1)

Authority Management (9.1)

Middle of the Road Management (5.5)

Country Club Management (1.9)

Team Management (9.9)

Note. Adapted by Blake & Mouton, 1979, p. 44.

Table 1.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (N=50)

Socio-demographic characteristics	Number of respondents (n)		Structure (%)
Gender	Female	34	68.0
	Male	16	32.0
Age	25-34	15	30.0
	35-44	22	44.0
	45-55	11	22.0
	Over 55	2	4.0
Education	High education	35	70.0
	Master studies	15	30.0
Work experience	Up to 5 years	25	50.0
	5-10 years	8	16.0
	10-20 years	10	20.0
	Over 20 years	7	14.0

Note. Author's calculations

Table 2.

Descriptive statistics, normality and reliability of subscales

		N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	Shapiro-Wilk	Cronbach's Alpha
The orientation of leaders' behaviours	Tasks	50	2.00	5.00	3.55	.822	.677	.000	.001	.783
	Interpersonal relations	50	1.18	5.00	3.46	1.056	1.116	.031	.029	.950

Note. Author's calculations

Table 3.

The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Sex	1. Female 2. Male
Age	1. Up to 25 2. 25-34 3. 35-44 4. 45-55 5. Over 55
Education	1. Secondary school 2. High education 3. Master studies 4. Phd
Work experience	1. Up to 5 years 2. 5-10 years 3. 10-20 years 4. Over 20 years

Note. Survey questions about behaviour of managers.

Table 4.

Examining attitudes about the managerial behaviour

Attitudes regarding managerial behaviour	Level of agreement				
He/she provides support to employees to overcome the problem and solve the task	1	2	3	4	5
He/she encourages employees to develop and progress	1	2	3	4	5
He/she accepts responsibility for bad results	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is oriented to build good interpersonal relationships	1	2	3	4	5

He/she consults with employees on problem solving and other issues	1	2	3	4	5
He/she gives clear instructions to employees on task performance and defining roles	1	2	3	4	5
He/she requires employees to follow standards, procedures, rules	1	2	3	4	5
In most cases, he /she makes decisions independently	1	2	3	4	5
He/she makes it clear to employees which rewards they get for the achieved result	1	2	3	4	5
He/she motivates employees to achieve goals	1	2	3	4	5
He/she often introduces changes in order to process efficiency	1	2	3	4	5
He/she allows employees freedom in tasks	1	2	3	4	5
He/she keeps records of all mistakes of employees	1	2	3	4	5
He/she delegates authority to employees and records the achieved results	1	2	3	4	5
He/she controls the behaviour of employees through penalties and rewards	1	2	3	4	5
He/she shows expertise in crisis situations	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is oriented towards the realization of tasks and goals	1	2	3	4	5
He/she provides feedback to employees on results	1	2	3	4	5

Note. Survey questions about behaviour of managers. For each statement, indicate the degree of agreement, by choosing only one answer:

1. „strongly disagree“
2. „partially disagree“
3. „neutral“
4. „partially agree“
5. „completely agree“

Primena modela „liderska mreža“: Studija slučaja Sektor za ljudske resurse MUP-a Srbije

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Sažetak

Efektivno liderstvo je veoma važno za rad javnog sektora. Na efektivnost procesa liderstva utiču mnogobrojni faktori. Jedan od tih faktora odnosi se na ponašanje lidera i rukovodioca. Liderska mreža predstavlja praktičan model za obuku menadžera, rukovodioca i lidera. Ovaj model ima poseban značaj sa aspekta povećanja produktivnosti i posvećenosti poslu zaposlenih. Da bi se primenio model, potrebno je identifikovati orijentaciju ponašanja lidera, rukovodioca ili menadžera. Empirijsko istraživanje sprovedeno je u organizacionim jedinicama Sektora za ljudske resurse MUP-a Republike Srbije primenom anonimnog anketnog upitnika u julu 2021. god. na uzorku od 50 ispitanika. Testiranje hipoteze omogućeno je primenom opisnih statističkih pokazatelja. Rezultati istraživanja ukazuju da zaposleni smatraju da su neposredni rukovodioci više usmereni na realizaciju zadataka. Na osnovu modela "liderska mreža" zastupljen je liderski stil-Kompromisni menadžment. Rezultati ovog istraživanja mogu doprineti razvoju profesionalnih kapaciteta u cilju efektivnosti procesa i unapređenja rada javnog sektora.

Ključne reči: liderska mreža, ponašanje rukovodioca, efektivnost procesa, ljudski resursi, MUP

Gender Diversity in Corporate Governance in Serbia: Legal Issues and Potential Remedies

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Abstract

The status of gender diversity in corporate governance (i.e., women's right to be part of corporate bodies) is a very important issue worldwide, including in Serbia. The paper examines women's rights from a historical perspective to address the problem of their social under-representation, especially when it comes to their social role outside the family. Additionally, we investigate the EU and Serbian legal framework for encouraging women's participation on corporate boards, including their status in the Serbian banking and insurance industry. Retrospection, compilation, deduction and induction methods were used in the paper. An in-depth analysis shows that women constitute at least one-third of the membership (at least in one executive board), in the majority of Serbian banks and insurance companies. We notice that the Serbian Gender Equality Act does not encourage greater women's participation in corporate boards. Thus, there is a need for immediate legal action to mandate women's representation on corporate boards, and to require additional explanation if this legal provision is violated. The traditional understanding of the position of women in society has remained unchanged, but it is noticeable that the accessibility of corporate management to women is improving, although perhaps not enough and equally in all countries and industries.

Keywords: equality, discrimination, women's rights, corporate governance

Gender Diversity in Corporate Governance in Serbia: Legal Issues and Potential Remedies

Throughout history, women's rights have evolved from the complete negation of their existence, through the restriction to exclusively "female rights", derived from the "natural division" of work in the original community based on the biological nature of women as a partner who was responsible for the enlargement of the genus and tribe, and later, the family in society, until today when women are, formally and legally, equal in rights with the other sex. In some ancient societies, this reflected on a woman's legal position so that her husband could expel her if she did not give birth to his children, with the obligation to return her dowry (Code of Hammurabi, Art. 138). However, chronologically speaking, historical epochs in the development of human society do not reflect the consistent movement of the legal position of women in human society with the simplified conclusion "the-older-the-epoch, the-worse-the-women's-legal-position". For example, women in the Mesopotamian states of Sumer and Babylon enjoyed several legally guaranteed rights such as property ownership, inheritance, and participation in business activities (Kramer, 1963, p. 78; Code of Hammurabi, Art. 39). Consistent with the above, even in ancient Rome, women were born as free citizens (*cives*), but they did not have the right to vote or to discharge political functions. Such a situation has existed since the time of early Rome, which was a military democracy of the clan system, in which the most important decisions were made exclusively by adult men at the Curiate Assembly (*comitia curiata*) (Maškin, 1987, p. 79; Stojčević, 1985, p. 19).

In the multi-millennia duration of ancient Egypt, the existence of traditional and social obstacles for women to perform ruling duties would be an unrealistic and idealistic explanation of the relations in the ruling dynasties of that time. In reality, women came to the throne and privileges through the struggle for power with a good knowledge of religious rules, marital relations and inheritance. Of those about which there are written traces, the first was Sobekneferu from the 12th dynasty (1806-1802 BC), and later Hatshepsut from the 18th dynasty (1479–1458 BC) who ruled equally with Thutmose III, who at the time of his official coming to power was about two years old, and Cleopatra of the Ptolemaic dynasty (51-30 BC) (Wilkinson,

2010). In order to understand the circumstances under which Hatshepsut ruled Egypt, it should not be overlooked that Thutmose III was the only son that Thutmose II had with Isis, one of his wives (or concubines), in addition to Hatshepsut who was his stepmother and the main wife of Thutmose II.

Since their inception, different religions, as a rule, have been based on the gender division of roles and meanings of the two sexes in social relations and hierarchy, and in Christianity, this is more visible in the Catholic and Orthodox Christian traditions than in Protestantism (Beattie, 2005). On the other hand, the emergence of capitalism brought new economic relations in society, but not a change in the subordinate position of women. The general sociocultural setting of the patriarchal-oriented society also contributed to that. While pre-capitalist subordination of women is associated with socially insurmountable natural roles, these constraints were articulated with the advent of capitalism through socially prescribed roles (Davis, 2000, p. 157). In that sense, it is worth mentioning one of the first works of feminist literature published in 1792 in England as a result of the enterprising and analytical skill of Mary Wollstonecraft, who was a translator and writer. In her work "A Vindication of the Rights of Woman", she pointed out that the education system of her time deliberately educated women to be reckless and incompetent, and that improving women's status could be achieved through political change such as radical reform of national education systems (Britannica, 2022).

The theoretical basis for women's rights was established through the institute of human rights, which crystallized during the period of the Enlightenment philosophy of Montesquieu and Rousseau. Women's rights inevitably developed through declarations that had a revolutionary character in relation to the social relations that existed before their adoption. Although the term human rights first mention was in the Bill of Rights 1689 in Great Britain, in The Virginia Declaration of Rights 1779, and then in the French Revolutionary Declaration of Rights of a man and citizen (*Déclaration des droits de l'homme et du citoyen*) 1789, none of these documents regulates the (basic) legal position of women. The attempt of the Frenchwoman Olympe de Gouges to influence the direction of the French Revolution with her Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Citizen (*Déclaration des droits de la femme et de la citoyenne*) in 1791, that they should have the

same civil rights ended with her arrest and execution, albeit not only because of the above but also because of her overall political commitment (Beauchamps, 2016, p. 944; Cokely, 2018).

Modern theory points out that the traditional division of labour by gender has remained unchanged and that this has led to distorted emancipation as its essential opposite (Uhde, 2016, p. 401). The extent to which the traditional understanding of the position and role of women in the way certain business organizations have been represented in their centuries-long duration is also shown by the fact that the Lloyd's of London Corporation accepted women as underwriters only 1970, and in 1973 allowed them to work in the underwriting room (Flower, Wynn Jones, 1987, p. 186). This may be a consequence of the fact that maritime trade and maritime insurance have been businesses for centuries, exclusively or customarily, by men. Progress in achieving gender equality in Lloyd's corporate structure is evident today, but while women hold important positions in Lloyd's management and other organizational units, serving as CEO and chief underwriter at Lloyd's Europe, no woman has served as President of the Lloyd's of London. On the other hand, conservative political populism can also lead to stagnation or decline in the achieved standards of gender equality and non-discrimination and violation of women's rights, which has been stated in various international documents (In-Depth Analysis PE 603.489, 2020).

Research on the Features for Which Women Should Be Included in Corporate Governance

In addition to the traditional understanding of the role of women, their position in society may further deteriorate during major social and economic changes. Then women may be disproportionately more affected than men by the negative consequences of structural adjustment of the economy and the operation of market laws: loss of jobs, acquired rights and benefits from the previous period, increased living costs, unemployment, and poverty, reduced salary and difficult access to health services, social protection, education and resources (Dokmanović, 2006). The explanation of why the globalization of developed capitalism is the cause of the distortion of women's emancipation was given by Ms. Uhde, a member of the Czech

Academy of Sciences (Uhde, 2016), while one of the specific reasons for women's inequality, some authors see in the economy based on general mobility of the labour force as a contradiction with the geographical connection of women with the care of children and family (Dokmanović, 2006).

Women perform a variety of jobs, but for them, according to the International Labor Organization, there are still obstacles to advancement in the workplace, and especially towards higher levels of management (Berry & Franks, 2010, pp. 2–3; ILO, 2019, p. 30).). In addition, there are still problems of unequal treatment regarding the volume of expected work of women for advancement in relation to men and the difference in remuneration between the two sexes in the same positions (Garača & Vukosav, 2020, p. 533). Despite the proclaimed equality of remuneration of men and women for the same job in these international agreements, in modern companies, the differences are retained (Lloyd, 2010, p. 6).

Although studies on gender differences provide different explanations for their greater or lesser ethics, they all agree that women are far more moral than men and can reduce corporate risks of corruption, fraud and other types of scandals (Krambia-Kapardis, 2016, pp. 83; Abouzaid, 2017; Lloyd, 2010, pp. 158–159). Yet, as Warren Buffett, a major U.S. investor and owner of influential companies, explained, most CEOs are men and women who would each like to be guardians of their children or neighbours, but at one point, they went astray for their lucrative reasons, and this is not because of inadequate laws, but because of the (authoritarian) atmosphere in the boards due to which someone would not be a member of the board if he did not always vote “for” CEO's decision (Buffett, 2013, p. 55; Jovanović, 2013, p. 172; Krambia-Kapardis, 2016, pp. 83–84).

Several related studies on the impact of women in management positions in EU banks have confirmed that business risks have been reduced and that growth-oriented measures have been taken by banks (Díaz et al., 2018, p. 191). According to the experience of a UK state banker, enterprising women, due to their intuitiveness, better assess the person's character and are less burdened by their own status than men eager to advance (Lloyd, 2010, p. 153). However, in situations where social relations are such that men are expected to react or make a decision, women will certainly accept a

masculine attitude or approach to solving a problem and vice versa (Lloyd, 2010, p. 160).

Business ethics as an essential issue in corporate business is often associated with the ability to implement cultural change, with the English literature citing the representation of women on boards of directors as the best example (Wearing, 2005, p. 20). Although Ms Tyson, dean of the London Business School, stated in her 2003 Report that the full diversity of non-executive directors on company boards could lead to weaker cohesion and less trust, she also stressed that a fundamental business justification for both sexes on the board should be to be a desire to find and hire the best talent (Tyson, 2003, p. 7), with which some other authors also agree (Jourová, 2016, p. 1; Berry & Franks, 2010, p. 7). In the same vein, several other studies confirmed that companies with high participation of women in top management positions achieved better organizational and financial indicators (Jourová, 2016, p. 1). The International Labor Organization suggests that firms need to identify the reasons affecting the retention rate of female staff, create an inclusive business culture that encourages women to stay in the firm, and design incentives to attract new female talents. This is because their number is constantly increasing, while their skills and knowledge are comparable to men's managerial qualities (ILO, 2019, p. 25).

Legal Framework for the Possibility of Women's Membership in Corporate Boards in Europe and Serbia

The European Union (hereinafter: the EU) in its Single European Act [SEA] of 1987 prescribed the obligation of Member States to continue to apply the principle that men and women *should* receive the same pay for the same work during the first period of the transitional period of building a common market (Art. 119). It was a provision that is in principle clear, but with a relatively non-binding disposition – an order that derives from the use of the word “should”, which left the possibility to deviate from the stated principle. Its effect is, in the stated manner, mitigated in relation to the binding manner of the provision of Art. 2 of the International Labor Organization Convention on Equal Remuneration of 1951. The very notion of “equal remuneration” should not be limited to pay for work in a particular

job, but also to rewards, bonuses, severance pay, and other benefits based on employment. The mentioned EU regulation did not prescribe elsewhere equality of men and women in relation to opportunities in the labour market and treatment in the workplace. This came about by concluding the Treaty on European Union in Maastricht in 1992, which also provided for an incentive provision empowering Member States to enact (or maintain existing) regulations guaranteeing certain benefits to women so that they could more easily pursue their professions. The mentioned Treaty also aimed at the prevention of negative outcomes, making it difficult or impossible for women to advance in business careers and introducing an obligation to provide certain compensation in the event of negative outcome consequences.

Together with the principle of equality between men and women, the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union 2012 has provided for the obligation of the EU to consider the goals related to encouraging high employment rates, guarantees of adequate social protection, and combating social exclusion and a high level of education, training and protection of human health. In addition, it is the obligation of the EU, the Member States and its institutions and bodies to combat discrimination based on sex, racial or ethnic origin, belief, age or sexual orientation (TEU, 2012, Art. 10).

As one of the means of the fight for gender equality and against discrimination on any grounds, starting from Art. 21 and 23 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU and its other documents, the European Institute for Gender Equality was established in early 2007 with the aim of contributing to and strengthening gender equality, combating discrimination based on sex and to provide technical assistance to the EU institutions and Member States in this regard (Regulation /EC/ No 1922/2006).

To encourage and further improve gender equality in the Member States, the EU has been adopting four-year Action Plans on Gender Equality since 2010, and the last one for the period from 2020 to 2025. Nevertheless, despite some progress, the under-representation of women in decision-making positions in European companies and industries persists. The statistics of this Institute show that men made up over 70% of the persons in the positions of president, board members and employee representatives in the largest joint stock companies in seventeen EU Member States

(European Institute for Gender Equality [EIGE], 2022). This is in line with the previously established 23.3% of women in leading positions in the EU's largest joint stock companies (Jourová, 2016, p. 6).

In the EU Gender Equality Strategy, which was adopted before the last Action Plan, and in order to increase women's participation in the work of boards of joint stock companies, the European Commission committed to insisting on adopting a proposal for a Directive on improving gender balance in corporate boards (*Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on improving the gender balance among non-executive directors of companies listed on stock exchanges and related measures*) with the aim that a minimum of 40% of non-executive members of the underrepresented sex be appointed to the boards of joint stock companies (Communication COM/2020/152, p. 13). It should be borne in mind here that the proposal of the said directive contains a solution that positively discriminates the gender that is in the minority in a corporate board, and not exclusively women. This also follows from the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights (Art. 23, para. 2), according to which the principle of gender equality is applied in such a way that it must not prevent the maintenance in force or the adoption of new rules regulating certain advantages in favour of the underrepresented sex. In addition, the European Commission also called on the European Parliament and the Council to adopt regulations to promote gender representation at all levels of their management and leadership positions. It also called on Member States to implement the Directive, once adopted, and to establish and implement strategies to increase the number of women in decision-making positions in politics and in policymaking (Communication COM/2020/152, p. 16).

In the Republic of Serbia, gender equality was proclaimed by a provision of the 2006 Constitution, according to which the state guarantees equality between women and men and develops a policy of equal opportunities (Narodna skupština Republike Srbije [Narodna skupština], 2006, Art. 25), in all areas of public and private life (Radovanović, 2020, p. 96). Act on Gender Equality regulates in detail the guarantees of equal treatment and protection of the sexes in the exercise of rights and obligations and protection in cases of discrimination. When it comes to gender representation in management and supervisory boards, this law

obliges a balanced representation of the sexes in public authorities (2021, Art. 26). We believe that this provision should not be limited only to management bodies in public services, but that it should also be applied to joint stock companies. The law limited the obligation of private employers to take into account gender balance only if it has more than 50 employees and work engagement persons, in which case it is obliged to adopt a plan of measures to eliminate or mitigate gender inequality. On the other hand, the Code of Business Ethics of the Serbian Chamber of Commerce 2006 does not mention or regulate the equal representation of women in the management bodies of joint stock companies.

In comparative law, different solutions have been applied in terms of the percentage of representation and the minimum number of employees in a joint stock company as a limit above which there are obligations related to gender equality and sanctions for non-compliance. In Belgium and Italy at least 33% must be appointed, and the under-represented sex of the total number of board members of the firm. In France, at least 40%, and in Germany, 20% of all board members of the company must be female. Unlike these countries, the Netherlands applies cumulatively established conditions: all joint stock companies with over 250 employees must have at least 30% women on the company's boards. When it comes to sanctions, in Italy and Norway there are fines for violating legal obligations, while the Netherlands, Romania, Great Britain, and Switzerland provide for only the obligation to explain the reasons for non-implementation of the law, while Norway prescribed consequences such as refusal to register a company or compulsory liquidation based on a court decision (ILO, 2019, p. 127). There are also EU Member States (Austria, Finland, Luxembourg) that have left the representation of women on company boards to corporate self-regulation in the form of recommendations in business codes (Jourová, 2016, p. 7).

Representation of Women in the Corporate Governance of Banks and Insurance Companies in the Republic of Serbia

Using data from the National Bank of Serbia website, the authors conducted an analysis of the representation of women in corporate bodies of banks and insurance companies in Serbia. Another purpose of the analysis was to look at the geographical distribution of their headquarters

to determine the chances of highly educated and specialized female staff to become a member of a management body in banking and insurance (List of the banks, 2022). The authors drew the following conclusions based on the data on the mentioned facts.

At the beginning of 2021, twenty-six banks operated in the banking sector of Serbia, of which six in 2019, originating from Italy, Hungary, and Austria, with a share of more than half in the total balance sheet, had a dominant share on the banking services market (NBS, 2019, p. 4). This is certainly a consequence of the privatization of almost all domestic banks with foreign capital in the previous period, which is a kind of example of the globalization of the Serbian banking sector. To better understand the issue of women's representation in bank management bodies, it is necessary to keep in mind that the Law on Banks stipulates that bank management bodies are the bank's board of directors and executive board. The bank's board of directors consists of at least five members, including the president, whereas the bank's executive board consist of at least two members, including a president who also represents the bank (Narodna skupština, 2005, Art. 70, 71, and 75). Of all banks, only one bank has no women as a part of any board; in half of them, women are members of only one board, while slightly less than half of the banks have appointed women on both boards that make up corporate governance entities. At the time of conducting this analysis, no bank in Serbia had a woman president of the board, while in eight banks women held the position of president of the bank's executive board. In one bank with a two-member executive board, both members are women, while in three banks women made up two-thirds of the executive board members, with a woman as president. This thing can be analysed based on some geographic criteria. Namely, three-quarters (precisely, twenty banks or 76.9%) of bank headquarters are located in the capital, while slightly less than one-quarter of bank head offices are located in the three largest cities of the Republic of Serbia.

There were sixteen insurance companies and four reinsurance companies operating in the Republic of Serbia at the end of the third quarter of 2020 (NBS, n.d.). The insurance companies are also mostly privatized with foreign capital, which is why, according to the ownership structure, out of a total of twenty companies, fifteen of them are majority foreign-owned with

a predominant share in the insurance market both in terms of total premium and by a number of employees (NBS, 2020, 4). The Insurance Law prescribes the organization of the corporate administration of insurance and reinsurance companies, so each company is obliged to appoint a supervisory board and an executive board as management bodies. The supervisory board must have a minimum of three members together with its president, whereas the executive board, whose president represents the company, must have at least two members (Narodna skupština, 2014, Art. 50, 54, and 57). For the purposes of this paper, both types of companies (insurance and reinsurance) are treated as insurance companies. Based on available data, one-third of insurance companies do not have women as members of any corporate board. Of the insurance companies in which women participate in the work of corporate bodies, slightly less than half (nine) have women on one board, while women are represented on both corporate boards in only a quarter (five) of insurance companies. In eight insurance companies, women were members of the supervisory board, and in three they also served as presidents (two insurance companies and one reinsurance company). Women were members of the executive board of eleven insurance companies, two of which also served as chairmen. They were the most represented in one insurance company and one reinsurance company, making more than half of the members in the supervisory and executive boards, with a woman as the chairman of those boards. In terms of territorial accessibility in relation to the possible residence of women, the largest number of insurance companies, seventeen of them, have their head office in the capital, while only two insurance companies and one reinsurance company are located in the second largest city in Serbia.

Conclusion

The traditional understanding of the position of women in society has remained unchanged, but it is noticeable that the accessibility of corporate governance to women has been improving, although not sufficiently and evenly across all countries and activities. Women's rights to membership in corporate boards are regulated by numerous international documents. The rights of women to be part of corporate governance established by national laws are in some cases protected by severe

sanctions, while in others they are most often declaratory, in the form of recommendations that do not guarantee their realizations. The Serbian legal system do not make women to be appointed in the governing bodies of joint stock companies as a mandatory provision. In our opinion, this should be corrected by mandating responsible bodies (and their members) to offer reasonable explanations for non-compliance to get more insight into the problem of underrepresented groups in this branch of corporate law in Serbia. Sometimes, it is simply not possible to find a suitable person that meets certain professional standards. As a forward-looking guideline, we think that the rule of one-third of women in public service management bodies would be a good solution for joint stock companies (including banks and insurance companies). Based on this proposal, more than half of all banks and insurance companies would meet the standard since women are currently represented in this proportion.

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Rodna raznolikost u korporativnom upravljanju u Srbiji: pravni problemi i potencijalna rešenja

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Sažetak

Rodna ravnopravnost u korporativnom upravljanju je veoma važno pitanje u svetu i u Srbiji. U radu se istražuju prava žena kroz istoriju i glavni razlozi za neprihvatanje njihove veće društvene uloge van porodice. Takođe, rad istražuje pravni okvir EU i Srbije koji podstiče veće učešće žena u korporativnim odborima, naročito zastupljenost žena u korporativnim odborima u sektoru bankarstva i osiguranja u Srbiji. Analiza je pokazala da žene čine najmanje jednu trećinu od ukupnog broja članova (najmanje u jednom odboru), u više od polovine srpskih banaka i društava za osiguranje. Takođe je utvrđeno da srpski Zakon o rodnoj ravnopravnosti nije podsticajan za veće učešće žena u odborima. Dakle, potrebna je promptna pravna akcija kojom bi se učešće žena u korporativnim odborima uspostavilo kao pravna obaveza, kao i neophodnost za dodatno pojašnjenje ukoliko nije ispunjen ovaj pravni zahtev.

Ključne reči: ravnopravnost, diskriminacija, prava žena, korporativna uprava

Profiling Human Traffickers

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Abstract

Human trafficking is not a sporadic phenomenon that has consequences for a limited number of people, but a phenomenon with deep social and economic implications, bearing in mind the tendency to benefit from globalization and the use of new technologies. It is spread on every continent and every region of the world with the intention of permanent growth. Although it affects all ages and both sexes, it is dominant about women and girls as victims of human trafficking for sexual exploitation. The forms of exploitation are diverse and all involve the violent exploitation and abuse of human beings and their rights. The causes of this phenomenon are numerous and complex because our everyday life is full of numerous contradictions, conditioned by our existence in a specific global crisis of morality. One of the side effects of this crisis is the ubiquitous alienation of man from man. Therefore, this paper focuses on the importance of profiling human traffickers, their characteristics and modus operandi in the process of recruitment, and the mechanisms they use to control victims. It is one of the ways of reacting to make human trafficking more visible, as part of preventive programs before the belated manifestation. Methods were applied: quantitative and qualitative content analysis, comparative analysis (reaction to human trafficking), and descriptive and analytical statistics. The creative goal is to recognize human trafficking as a crime against humanity that requires an effective response from society.

Keywords: human trafficking, human traffickers, profiling, sexual exploitation

Profiling Human Traffickers

Generally speaking, globalization is a term used to describe changes in societies, the world economy, and culture. However, globalization encompasses much broader aspects of society. It refers to the expansion of global connections and includes many complex processes. In addition to the obvious improvement for humanity, some of the side effects of this social cycle generate a global crisis of morality, the alienation of man from man, and above all the globalization of transnational organized crime (see Marković & Spaić, 2021), which includes, among other things, modern slavery/human trafficking. This crime against humanity contributes to instability, creates and strengthens vicious circles of crime, undermines civilizational values, and represents a threat to modern society.

Usually, the first association with the term "slavery" is related to the arrival of African slaves in America, their keeping in inhumane conditions, working on plantations, exploitation and torture, and then the abolition of slavery. Modern slavery is defined as the possession or control of an adult or a child by denying their freedom and their exploitation for profit, which includes sexual exploitation, followed by violence, coercion, or fraud, but also everything else that resembles a slave relationship. Modern slavery, characterized by a wide range of exploitative forms characteristic of the times we live in, is in many ways more inhumane, more brutal, and more perfidious than conventional (Bjelajac, 2014, p. 427).

The causes of human trafficking should be sought in poverty, unemployment, migration factors, level of human development, management and rule of law, gender inequality, discrimination in the labour market, the militarization of the region, increase and diversity of organized crime, family violence, lack of education and information, family milieu and endogenous factors, etc. At the same time, the global crisis of morality has become the cause of mutual misunderstanding among people, coldness, darkening, and hardening of the heart, and indifference towards others due to a lack of empathy. Brutal and incomprehensible crimes are indicators of alienation in modern society, in which growing immorality and moral insensitivity towards others are developing. One such dreadful crime is a crime of human trafficking. The general situation in society, along with other socioeconomic

factors, greatly contributes to the susceptibility, or vulnerability, of victims of human trafficking.

However, the phenomenon of human trafficking is much broader and more complex. The history of that violent crime is harsh and difficult. Everyday life is painful and tragic for the victims and their families, and devastating for the community:

Compared to classical slavery and the dominance of two types of exploitation, labour, and sexual exploitation, modern slavery today has many forms, which have one consistent aspect, which is the abuse of the victims' inherent vulnerability. Human trafficking occurs in various contexts encompassing all forms of work or services and is considered one of the fastest-growing criminal industries in the world. In addition to sexual exploitation or sex trafficking, as the dominant form of human trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation, which takes place in various places (sex industry, brothels, streets, massage parlours, etc.), labour exploitation is also present, starting from the smaller scope for work in the household, family slavery, all the way to the larger scale work on farms, in factories, etc. It can even be said that certain intermediaries who supply labour to certain multinational corporations can be identified as new types of human traffickers for labour exploitation. And other forms of exploitation of victims, such as: forced arranged marriages of minors, forced begging, child pornography and prostitution, and trafficking in human organs also continue to grow permanently. (Bjelajac, 2014, p. 62).

For most people, the phenomenon of human trafficking is isolated and unfathomable, even though between two and four million human beings are trafficked globally, bringing profits to international organized crime syndicates of between seven and eight billion US dollars. The above estimates of the United Nations Center for the Prevention of International Crime refer to the annual global traffic generated from this form of crime. At the same time, it is difficult to know the true extent of this phenomenon, due to its mobility, inventiveness, and intensive movement across international borders, both of people and goods. This makes it difficult for crime-fighting policymakers to craft a coherent strategy, weigh the evidence,

and make a reasonable assessment of the nature and extent of the problem. First of all, difficulties arise from the very nature of this phenomenon, from its mobility and invisibility (Bjelajac, 2008, p. 5). Invisibility, because many forms of human trafficking and sexual exploitation are carried out in the context of apparently legal behaviour (travel agencies, advertising agencies, employment agencies, brothels for the provision of sexual services). At the same time, in most cases, the authorities treat the victims more like lawbreakers, due to their lack of residence permits, work permits, and their participation in prostitution. Because of this, victims lose trust in the authorities and refuse to cooperate during investigations.

Human trafficking is a crime that grossly violates human rights: the right to life, equality, dignity, and security, the right to health, work, and education, the right to freedom of movement, freedom from violence and abuse, the right to recognition of personality before the law... In this regard, profiling human traffickers can reduce the chance of someone becoming a victim of sexual exploitation or some other type of exploitation in a wide variety of exploitative forms of human trafficking crimes. Analysis of the psychological and behavioural characteristics of human traffickers helps to assess or predict their tendencies and intentions in this criminal sphere, which is of crucial importance for the "self-defence" of potential victims. At the same time, it can be the basis for educating young people, especially vulnerable and exposed groups, as a kind of basis for proactive and preventative action.

Therefore, this paper focuses on the importance of profiling human traffickers, their characteristics and modus operandi in the process of recruitment, and the mechanisms they use to control victims. It is one of the ways of reacting to make human trafficking more visible, as part of preventive programs before the belated manifestation. Methods were applied: quantitative and qualitative content analysis, comparative analysis (reaction to human trafficking), and descriptive and analytical statistics. The creative goal is to recognize human trafficking as a crime against humanity that requires an effective response from society.

Characteristics of Human Traffickers

To fully understand the phenomenological features of the crime of human trafficking, it is necessary to answer the question, who are human traffickers? However, it is quite difficult to find an adequate answer to such a seemingly simple question. Namely, there is no universally accepted explanation, what is the profile of persons who can participate in such a terrible crime of exploitation of human beings. Data and information about what determines individuals to engage in this type of crime, what their roles are in networks of human traffickers, what their relationship is with other criminals and with victims, etc., are relatively scarce. (Bjelajac, 2014, p. 204). Therefore, concretizing the answers to these questions, while looking at the modus operandi, could contribute to the establishment of more effective methods, proactive, preventive and repressive action to identify and process human traffickers.

Criminals have different psychological characteristics and are either extremely calm or aggressive and temperamental. Some are extremely intelligent, although most are of average or below-average intelligence. Criminal behaviour is not caused by aggressiveness because many other factors influence criminal behaviour (Roy, 2008). Relevant research indicates that there is an interaction between personality structure and eventual criminal behaviour. At the same time, the structure of the personality is formed in combination with biological, psychological, and social factors.

The main cause of criminal behaviour lies in the family environment, school, and social groups, in the very personality and moral development. Aggressive and criminal behaviour is mainly shaped by society and social groups by friends, family, and other people. Children who are encouraged to behave aggressively toward other people and towards their families may later develop forms of criminal behaviour. The social environment in which a child grows up is responsible for the development of criminal behaviour, as well as the child growing up in the company of someone with criminal behaviour or an aggressive and violent environment. Sometimes children learn to use drugs and carry weapons from the society they want to identify with, and this is a strong foundation for later criminal behaviour. Criminal behaviour is also influenced by broken and disorganized families, war zones,

and conflict areas. Friends and society influence by introducing children to good things such as culture, art, and knowledge or by giving negative influence through drugs, crime, and alcohol. In the end, the person decides in which direction he will develop, which depends individually from person to person (Roy, 2008), about their character traits, abilities, and motives.

One of the common questions about the profiling of human traffickers is whether they are persons who have a criminal history, that is, a criminal record opened before engaging in this criminal activity. In this regard, several conducted studies (Levenkron, 2007, pp. 40–41) have shown that some human traffickers are registered on various grounds and have a criminal record, while others were not recorded as being involved in crime and have no criminal record. Most of them had a strong connection with the "sex industry" and then became involved and became suppliers of human traffickers. After all, as in any criminal activity, individuals must start from some point. In this context, as indicated by many cases, many human traffickers started as "amateurs", who located and recruited victims, and then progressed in the business and moved to a higher level of the human trafficking hierarchy.

Human traffickers for sexual exploitation exist at several different levels, from spontaneous unorganized contacts at a low level to very complex, sophisticated, internationally organized networks at a high level. The modus operandi of human traffickers, from low-level informal contacts (consisting of individuals connected through family networks and ethnic communities), all the way to highly organized transnational criminal networks (with established hierarchical structures), in principle includes three categories:

- Informal networks, which usually exist in the form of smaller groups within a limited family network and ethnic communities, which extend across borders;
- Large organized crime networks, which control almost all aspects of human trafficking, from recruitment and transportation to the control and management of local brothels and street prostitution;
- Criminal distribution networks, which recruit and transport girls from one country and sell them to local brothels and prostitution chains in another country, primarily for sexual exploitation.

For traffickers, women who are recruited and procured for sexual exploitation are the raw material to be traded. The victims have no human value but are treated as ordinary goods, often to a much greater extent than was the case in the traditional slave trade. Therefore, to understand human traffickers, it is necessary to carry out more long-term and extensive research, which should take into account not only their criminal profiling but also the perceptions of victims and the findings and opinions of experts from various professions.

The Importance of Profiling Human Traffickers

There is an established view that human trafficking is always or often a violent crime involving kidnapping or other forms of physical coercion. In reality, most traffickers use psychological means such as deception, fraud, manipulation, or threats to victims to place them in a position of exposure to commercial sex or other forms of exploitation. That is why it is important to master certain psychological methods, thanks to which the behaviour of human traffickers can be predicted in the related stages of human trafficking, which are related to recruitment, migration, and exploitation.

Since there is no universal profile of human traffickers, they can be:

- Men and women, of any nationality and age;
- Older than their recruiting victims, attributed to the increased ease of manipulating an older person towards a younger one has;
- Family people (have a spouse and children), or persons who have not formed a marriage union;
- People who are psychopaths or antisocial personalities with mental instability, irritability, and aggressiveness;
- Psychopaths who are charming and gentle in communication, but capable of the most serious criminal acts;
- Impulsive people who have a problem with controlling their anger;
- Prone to frustration and nervousness;
- People who have experienced a lack of parental tenderness and involvement;
- People who grew up in dysfunctional families;

- People who had chaotic and conflicting situations in their family milieu;
- People with a history of abuse;
- Persons who resort to physical aggression;
- People who are prone to use alcohol and substances;
- Persons who carry and/or use weapons;
- People who showed cruelty towards animals in childhood;
- Persons from the same and similar milieu as the victims, with the same socioeconomic, educational, and other predispositions;
- Persons who, in principle, have a higher level of education than their victims;
- Persons for whom human trafficking can be a primary or secondary occupation;
- In rare cases, also persons who themselves were victims of human trafficking;
- People with a strong lack of empathy (absence of sympathy for the needs or wishes of others);
- People with manipulation skills who use emotional manipulation (many traffickers are superficially charming, trying to show enough understanding of human emotions to get close to potential victims).

Criminal profiling of human traffickers requires a complex multidisciplinary approach, which implies special analytical knowledge with the involvement of experts of various educational profiles. Different psychological and social backgrounds are evident, where a common/stimulating factor prevails, namely the motivation to acquire money/profit with a relatively low degree of risk. Analyzing all these factors, we note that absolute standards cannot be set, which would provide us with reliable data on the specifics of the profile of human traffickers. However, one of the key common profile features of human traffickers is related to the lack of ability to feel, understand and reason about other people's feelings, which is classified as an empathy deficit disorder (EDD).

Empathy is primarily a personal relationship towards people and situations in which human emotions are expressed but deeply conditioned

by social circumstances, the context in which the situation occurs. In the not-so-distant past, the most vulnerable social groups, such as children, were (mis)used and exploited most brutally without any empathy or concern for their suffering, which is unthinkable today (although it is unfortunately hidden even today). Out of the public eye and beyond the reach of legal sanctions, there is brutal exploitation of people for economic, sexual, and other purposes (Filipović, et al., 2022, p. 198). Empathy represents compassion, that is, reasoning and feeling that is based on the perception and understanding of other people's interests, along with the ability to recognize other people's feelings and respect other people's opinions, but it also includes a response, i.e. a person's reaction and behaviour to a given state of others. Therefore, the ability of "empathy" implies identification and understanding of another person's position ("to stand in someone's shoes"). "Emotional intelligence" is a broader concept that includes perception, expression and control of one's own emotions, self-control, includes conscientiousness, empathy, and assertive communication with peaceful conflict resolution. The lack or disappearance of empathy can be the result of more permanent psychological characteristics, especially when it comes to the so-called "personality disorders". The essential mechanism is reducing people to objects and devaluing them, ignoring their feelings, their thinking and them as subjects, with a specific goal aimed exclusively at achieving their interests (Mirjanić, 2017).

Daniel Goleman identified five essential components of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995):

Self-awareness – is an essential component of emotional intelligence and refers to the recognition of one's feelings at the moment they are expressed, as well as the willingness to realistically assess one's abilities.

Self-control – Self-control is based on self-awareness and is the ability to master and manage emotions.

Self-motivation – channelling emotional excitement into action energy directed towards desired goals, taking responsibility and willingness to persevere in what we have set as a goal.

Empathy – recognizing emotions in other people. Empathetic people are sensitive to almost invisible social signals that indicate what

others want, feel or need. Namely, empathy represents the willingness and ability to feel what other people feel, as well as the ability to mentally put ourselves in our place within our frame of reference.

Social skills – relationship management, i.e. interpersonal skills.

The fact that these criminals, psychopaths and emotional manipulators are characterized by a lack of empathy and emotional intelligence, which is why they are capable of all kinds of cruelty, is best seen through the analysis of the most common mechanisms for controlling victims that are applied during the exploitative phase: obligation due to indebtedness; insulation; use of violence and intimidation; use and threat of violence against the victim's family; psychological entrapment and torture. In these stages, traffickers destroy the victims' mental and physical structure.

Victims are often beaten, raped, restricted in their movement, denied food and/or water, tortured and/or drugged, to ensure their absolute obedience (Banović & Bjelajac, 2012). The severity of psychophysical consequences and traumas are expressed to such an extent that it is impossible to bring such persons to the level of health they had before they became victims of this crime (Bjelajac et al., 2013). Because of all the above, many myths and misconceptions in identifying the key indicators of human trafficking should be debunked. Profiling human traffickers and demystifying their modus operandi is perhaps the first step, not only in preventing the recruitment of victims but also in saving their lives.

Discussion

Human trafficking is very often conditioned by socioeconomic problems, conflicts, or natural disasters, which force and channel people to search for work, away from home or to migrate (Sigmon, 2008). This phenomenon reflects the darker sides of globalization, as many people are now looking for work outside their own countries, making themselves exposed, vulnerable and susceptible to fraud (Jones et al. 2007). Individuals and entire groups of people from poorer countries are particularly at risk of human trafficking, and the growing number of poor and vulnerable people allows perpetrators to easily identify and target their victims (Davis, 2007). So, two important factors that contribute to the expansion of human

trafficking are the existence of unscrupulous human traffickers and the availability of desperate people from poorer countries (see Marković, 2022, pp. 181–188). Together, these factors create the perfect environment for forced labour and sexual exploitation.

If it is unquestionable that human trafficking is a blatant crime against humanity, in which people are treated as commodities in various forms of exploitation, which include the malignant removal and sale of human organs (Bjelajac & Jovanović, 2014), then it is also unconditional that there should be an adequate and effective response from the community. Proactive and preventative action to prevent human trafficking before it happens is of crucial importance for the policy of combating this criminal activity.

Through the analysis of the specialized courses on the topic of "Human trafficking" that I have held for students for almost a decade, I have concluded that for more than 80% of students this phenomenon is completely unknown. For others, it is a phenomenon that is similar and/or equated to prostitution and people smuggling. The dark side of this crime is not sufficiently seen by young people to develop defence mechanisms in the context of the security culture. It turns out that the education of young people in this context is lagging, and that it does not go parallel to social trends, which is its basic meaning.

Criminal profiling of human traffickers is important for educating, especially, young girls and women and controlling their vulnerability and gullibility. They should recognize that the first act refers to recruitment, and when completed it usually leads to the further deepening of crimes, such as enslavement, sexual violence and psychophysical violence, among other forms of torture applied to the victims.

Conclusion

Human trafficking is a crime that involves the use of force, fraud or coercion to achieve sexual, labour or other exploitation. The types of exploitation from which large profits are accumulated differ from each other, but they all involve the violent exploitation and abuse of human beings and their rights. Globally, millions of men, women, and children

have trafficked annually. It can happen in any community and region of the world, and victims can be of any age, race, gender or nationality. The methods of recruitment of women and girls by traffickers are varied and mostly depend on their mode of operation as well as the level of organization. They are based on manipulation, violence, false promises of well-paid jobs, and fake romantic relationships... Easy targets for human traffickers are people who, for various reasons, show emotional vulnerability in addition to evident economic difficulties. The most common way of controlling victims is violence, threats, psychological entrapment, and torture.

The causes of human trafficking are complex and numerous. Generally speaking, human traffickers target people who are marginalized or in difficult circumstances. On the one hand, systemic poverty and socioeconomic inequality (victims' position), and on the other hand, the possibility of obtaining large profits (a chance for human traffickers) are probably the main causes of human trafficking. At the same time, commercialized sex is a profitable market that allows human traffickers to have significant financial benefits from their victims, as this criminal activity has become the most lucrative criminal business after drug trafficking. In the end, it is impossible to heal the psychophysical trauma of the victims caused by human traffickers and bring the persons/victims to the level of their previous mental and physical health condition. Therefore, this crime should be recognized as a crime against humanity.

What defines human security as the need to protect the vital core of all human lives, in ways that improve human freedom and human achievement in general, actually represents the essence of earthly life and existence in very complex civilizational conditions. (Bjelajac, 2017). In this direction, recognizing the key indicators of human trafficking is a step forward for a more humane, fairer, more beautiful, and harmonious society.

Therefore, this paper emphasizes the criminal profiling of human traffickers, as an essential segment of the fight against modern slavery. A careful study of the characteristics of traffickers determines the creation

of a criminal profile by identifying patterns of behaviour. Therefore, profilers can formulate theories, motives, and modus operandi of these criminals and predict their behaviour, to arrest the perpetrators behind these serious crimes and at the same time warn potential victims not to fall into their traps. Certainly, all this plays an important role in informing, educating and moral development of the younger generations.

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Profilisanje trgovaca ljudima

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Sažetak

Trgovina ljudima nije sporadični fenomen koji ima konsekvence na limitiran broj ljudi, već fenomen sa dubokim društvenim i ekonomskim implikacijama, imajući u vidu tendenciju da mu pogoduju globalizacija i upotreba novih tehnologija. Rasprostranjen je na svakom kontinentu, svakom regionu sveta sa intencijom permanentnog rasta. Tako pogađa sve uzraste i oba pola, dominantan je u odnosu na žene i devojčice kao žrtve trgovine ljudima u svrhu seksualne eksploatacije. Oblici eksploatacije su raznoliki i svi podrazumevaju nasilnu eksploataciju i zloupotrebu ljudskih bića i njihovih prava. Uzroci ovog fenomena su brojni i kompleksni, jer naša svakidašnjica obiluje brojnim kontradiktornostima, uslovljena egzistiranjem u specifičnoj globalnoj krizi morala. Jedna od *nus* pojava ove krize je sveprisutno otuđenje čoveka od čoveka. Stoga, ovaj rad u fokus stavlja važnost profilisanja trgovaca ljudima, njihove karakteristike i modus operandi u procesu regrutovanja/vrbovanja, te mehanizama koje primenjuju za kontrolisanje žrtava. To je zapravo jedan od načina reakcije da se trgovina ljudima učini vidljivijom, kao deo preventivnih programa pre zakasnele manifestacije. Primenjene su metode: kvantitativne i kvalitativne analize sadržaja, komparativne analize (reakcija na trgovinu ljudima) i deskriptivne i analitičke statistike. Kreativni cilj je da se trgovina ljudima prepozna kao zločin protiv čovečnosti koji zahteva delotvoran odgovor društvene zajednice.

Ključne reči: trgovina ljudima, trgovci ljudima, profilisanje, seksualna eksploatacija

Cybercrime in the Republic of Serbia: Prevalence, Situation and Perspectives

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Abstract

The year 2022 was marked by anonymous reports of bombings in schools and other important institutions across Serbia, spread via computers. These events have triggered a public debate on whether the authorities responsible for combating cybercrime can adequately respond to such attacks. As the number of internet users increases, so does the number of potential victims of cybercrime and the obligation of states to protect citizens. Recent events have shown the vulnerability of society to high-tech crime and the risks it poses. The paper analyses the normative and institutional framework for combating cybercrime and data from the Ministry of Internal Affairs on cybercrime. The paper aims to suggest possible changes, based on the analysis of existing cybercrime legislation and the analysis of the institutional framework here and in some European countries, to ensure more effective protection against cybercrime. The paper uses both a normative and a comparative method to present the measures taken in other countries. Descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data collected. The conclusion is that despite a good normative framework, the fight against cybercrime is not adequate, mainly because of the far too small number of staff in special departments and sections of the prosecutor's office and the police compared to the number of crimes, which is increasing year by year. The danger is also that many people are not educated about the dangers of using the internet. Therefore, more attention should be paid shortly to educating citizens of all ages about the dangers and the types of cybercrime.

Keywords: cybercrime, criminal acts, institutions, normative regulation, information technologies

Cybercrime in the Republic of Serbia: Prevalence, Situation and Perspectives

Along with the development of technology, one of the characteristics of modern society is the occurrence of criminal acts precisely through the use of the same technology to commit criminal acts. "The attribute most often attributed to modern society is digital, which is a consequence of the high degree of role and importance of digital technology in daily life... there are no activities of social actors that do not rely more or less on different types of digital technology and modalities of its use" (Stošić Dabetić, 2021, p. 162). The question is how many users are aware of the dangers of using the internet and the possibility of becoming a victim of a cybercrime. The existence of a culture of security today represents the basic principle of human security, along with the rule of law (Bjelajac, 2021). Cybercrime is the commission of crimes in which the computer is the means or object of the criminal act and in which all potential victims are independent of age, gender and place of residence. The terms: computer crime, electronic crime, e-crime, high-tech crime, cybercrime are also in common use (Sabillon, 2016, p. 166). In the Republic of Serbia, the term high-tech crime is used.

The aim of the work is to propose possible changes, based on the analysis of existing cybercrime legislation and the analysis of the institutional framework, in order to ensure more effective protection against cybercrime. The work uses a normative method to analyse the legal regulations, a comparative method to show the measures taken by countries to protect against cybercrime, and a descriptive analysis to evaluate the data collected.

The most common types of cybercrime are online fraud, cyberbullying, cyber deviance, cyber paedophilia, cyber pornography, the crypto market, etc. (Abu & Israt, 2020, p. 95). The scale of cybercrime is also evident from the data on the involvement of this type of crime relative to other types of crime. For example, we have information that at the global level, cybercrime accounted for 59.5% of the total number of crimes in 2015, and in 2016 this percentage was 82.7%. The data on the targets of the attacks show that the most frequent targets are legal entities at 23%, then state institutions at 21%, individuals at 12% and the rest are various organisations, educational institutions, and the financial sector (Stamenković

et. al., 2017, p. 10). According to the Strategy for Combating High-Tech Crime for the Period 2019–2023. (Government, 2018), the Special Department for High-Tech Crime received 2,371 criminal complaints in 2017, which is an increase of more than 15 times compared to ten years earlier when 154 criminal complaints were received in 2007. The largest increase was recorded in 2014 (+68%) and 2015 (+69%). Among other things, the strategy contains data on the structures of criminal offences in the period from 2013 to 2017. Based on this data, the highest percentage of criminal charges, 64%, related to the criminal offence of tax evasion, followed by the criminal offence of harming creditors (22%), criminal offences against intellectual property (9%), criminal offences of display, acquisition and possession of pornographic material and exploitation of a minor for pornography (3%), and criminal offences against the security of computer data (2%) (Government, 2018).

The anonymity that cybercrime affords to perpetrators makes it even more difficult to identify the perpetrator. In some situations, an additional problem in identifying the computer used is identifying the person who used the computer to commit the crime (Sallavaci, 2022, p. 17). Some real-world crimes take place in the virtual world, so predators are increasingly hiding behind computers and anonymity rather than lurking in predator playgrounds. (Bjelajac & Filipović, 2020, str. 260; Stojšić Dabetić, 2021, pp. 164–165). The difficulty in establishing the identity of the perpetrator is one of the reasons for a large number of cybercrimes, precisely because modern technology allows for a high level of anonymity (Me & Pesticcio, 2022). A quick identification process is extremely important in cybercrime files and can be a major problem due to modern technology that complicates the identification process. The identification process means finding and exploring traces that cyber attackers left unintentionally, such as B. the IP address of the origin of the attack. Government agencies need to be careful as attackers often leave false fingerprints to mislead government agencies. In addition, one of the ways of detection is to analyse similar cyberattacks to establish a correlation between them (Pournouri et al., 2022).

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Based on the analysis of data from international institutions dealing with cybersecurity and the ranking of countries in the field of cybersecurity (International Telecommunication Union, European Union Agency for Cybersecurity), we found that international institutions do not use the same criteria for measuring the cyber security index in certain countries, which is why the data on the ranking of countries differ. According to research by the International Telecommunication Union (2020), the Global Cybersecurity Index shows countries' commitment to cybersecurity with the aim of helping them identify gaps. One of the studies determined the cybersecurity index of individual countries based on an analysis of five areas: legal measures, technical measures, organisational measures, capacity development measures, and cooperation measures (ITU, 2021, p. vi). Based on the analysis of these five areas, Serbia ranks 33rd out of a total of 182 at the global level, while in Europe it is ranked 25th out of a total of 46 places. The ten best-ranked countries in terms of commitment to cyber security in Europe in 2020 are Great Britain, Estonia, Spain, Lithuania, France, Turkey, Luxembourg, Germany, Portugal, Latvia, and Netherlands (2021, p. 25–27). What these countries have in common and which ranks them in the top ten is the undertaking of measures in the field of education, i.e. the inclusion of materials on cyber security in educational programs in primary, and

secondary schools and colleges, training on the subject of cybercrime, a large number of training/campaigns which raise public awareness of the risks of cybercrime, as well as professional training for institutions involved in the prevention, detection and sanctioning of cybercrime, the existence of programs for the certification and accreditation of cyber security professionals (2021). "Building human and institutional capacities is essential to raise awareness, and knowledge in all sectors, for systematic and appropriate solutions, and to promote the development of qualified experts" (2021, p. 133). Another survey published by Enjoy Safer Technology (ESET, 2021) contains data on which cyber countries are the safest. In this research, the ranking criteria used data for the last three years: detected malicious software devices, number of hacked social networks or e-mail accounts, victims of bank card or internet banking fraud, victims of identity theft, and number of cyber security laws. According to this research, the top ten safest cyber countries are Portugal, Lithuania, Slovakia, Greece, Spain, Estonia, Latvia, Finland, Denmark and Slovenia (TBTECH, 2021; ESET, 2021). What these countries have in common is the great importance given to the training of employees in institutions responsible for dealing with cybercrime cases (police, prosecutor's office, judiciary) and the promotion of cybercrime prevention mechanisms. In these countries, "efforts are being made to provide legal actors with more engineering courses and engineers with more legal knowledge" (Ferrara et. al, 2022, p. 64). Another common characteristic of the safest cyber states is the commitment to inform and raise awareness of the public and business sectors, as well as civil society about the dangers of cybercrime (2022). Cyber security in these countries is also due to the number of people working in specialized units, which is in line with the number "considered necessary depending on the scope of the relevant cases" (2022, p. 749).

Criminal Acts of Cybercrime

Criminal acts against the freedoms and rights of people and citizens, which are carried out with the aid of computers, fall under the jurisdiction of state special agencies for combating high-tech crime. These offences include hating speech online based on race, religion, political party, age, disability, sexual orientation, support for a sports club, and other forms of

hate that affect social rights, freedom of expression, and liberties (Sabillon et al., 2016, p. 172). The cybercrime of identity theft is the theft of someone's identity, the attacker pretends to be someone else in order to gain financial gain (p. 173). Cybercrime Against Sexual Freedom (Viewing, Receiving and Possessing Pornographic Material and Exploiting a Minor for Pornography) (Narodna skupština, 2019). These offences include child pornography, i.e. online pornography involving children (Sabillon et al, 2016, p. 172). Children start using the internet earlier and earlier, so today it is the pre-school age of 4 to 6 years according to some research (Bjelajac & Filipović, 2020). A study (Tomczyk et al., 2022) showed that three-quarters of people (adolescents) use social networks most often just before going to bed and just before waking up. A new generation of children is ready to work with these new technologies, which play an important role in children's learning and acquisition of various cognitive skills (Stošić, 2015), but the question is how informed the children about the potential threats lurking around them. Aside from age, which makes children easy prey, the unlimited amount of time children spend online makes it even easier for criminals to commit crimes against children (Stojšić Dabetić, 2020, p. 164). Disturbed relationships in the family, whether in the form of disagreements between the parents themselves or a bad relationship between the child and the parents, as well as a lack of parental supervision over the child or excessive strictness, are phenomena that lead children to take more time in the family Internet, and that there are greater chances of exposure to cyber pornography and cyber violence (Choi, et al., 2022). Anonymity, i.e., child imitation and naivety, makes it easier for predators to mislead and abuse children (Bjelajac & Filipović, 2020; compare 2021). That virtual world in which young people increasingly find themselves is becoming a place where various security risks hide. The replacement of the real world by a virtual one naturally also brought with it the transfer of certain security risks from one sphere to another (Ilić & Banović, 2021, p. 150). One of the cyber crimes against sexual freedom is revenge pornography, which is committed by disseminating sexual material without consent, and usually, the perpetrator is an ex-partner for revenge or hackers who blackmail victims to gain illegal financial benefits. The consequences of these crimes are extremely difficult for the victims and their lives (Sabillon et al., 2016, p. 174). Last year one such case was a group called "EX-YU Balkan Room" with 36,000 users that posted and shared pictures and videos of

naked girls and their phone numbers and addresses. It is a cybercrime, better known as revenge pornography as the images and videos are mostly posted by ex-partners. That only the administrator of the group was arrested while the other 36,000 participants were not even heard is disappointing (Petrović, 2021, p. 4).

Criminal acts against intellectual property do not fall under the exclusive jurisdiction of state agencies responsible for combating high-tech crime, but the act depends on whether a computer or computer system was used as a means or object in the execution, including acts of violation of the moral rights, unauthorised use of the author's work or related rights items, unauthorised removal or alteration of electronic copyright and related rights information, unauthorised use of someone else's design, etc.

Crimes against computer data security include unauthorised access to the computers, the network and data processing. This group of cybercrimes includes cyberespionage (cyber espionage), where the action is the unauthorised recording of others and their conversations and data. "The attackers require the victim to pay a certain amount of money to avoid the damage they threaten to do by stealing or deleting data, deploying ransomware and asking the victim for bitcoin payment" (Sabillon, 2016, p. 173). Ransomware is a type of software used by cyber criminals to lock data and demand a ransom for it. In 50% of cases, in addition to the usual threat of data deletion, it also includes a threat of publication of the data (National Crime Agency, 2021, p. 46).

Cyber-laundering is a term used to denote acts where money obtained through criminal activity is funnelled into legal streams to lose its origin (Sabillon, 2016, p. 173). A large number of cyber crimes consists of cyber fraud (online fraud), i.e., fraud using computer technology such as Internet auctions, credit card fraud, telemarketing fraud, deceptive advertising schemes, "Nigerian" fraud, SMS fraud, manufacturing and introduction of computer viruses, hacking, manufacturing, obtaining and providing funds to others to commit criminal acts against the security of computer data, etc. Computer data corruption (cybervandalism) is the erasure of data and damage to software. Computer sabotage (cyberwarfare) is "attacks in cyberspace coordinated with military operations, which are mostly carried out by the governments of conflict states" (2016, p. 173).

Normative Regulation

In 2005, the Law on the Organisation and Competence of State Bodies in Combating High-Tech Crime was adopted in the Republic of Serbia (Narodna skupština, 2009). According to this Law on Procedures in Crimes Where Computers and Computer Systems Are the Object or Means of Execution, the Prosecutor General's Office in Belgrade is responsible for the procedure, i.e., the Special Department for Combating High-Tech Crime (2009, Articles 3 and 4). For tasks related to police competence related to high-tech crime, a special service has been established within the Internal Affairs Body to deal exclusively with high-tech crime within the Service for Combating Organised Crime (Art. 9). The department becomes active in the preliminary proceedings at the request of the specialist agency for combating high-tech crime. The main problem with this service is the lack of human resources (Bjeloš et. al., 2021, p. 97). The trial in these cases is within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in Belgrade, where a special department to combat high-tech crime should be established and where priority should be given to judges with special knowledge of information technology (Narodna skupština, 2009, Art. 11). In accordance with international instruments and the obligation of the Republic of Serbia to achieve international cooperation and data exchange in the field of high-tech crime, the bodies responsible for international cooperation and establishing contacts have been designated, namely the Special Prosecutor for High-Tech Crimes. Tech Crime and the Department for Suppression of High-Tech Crime (Government, 2018). In the text of the strategy to fight high-tech crime for the period 2019-2023. It is noted that taking into account the increase in these crimes along with technological development, it is necessary to improve the normative and institutional framework for combating high-tech crime, increasing the number of technological devices and establishing more effective cooperation at becomes national and international levels (2018). Among other things, the strategy states that preventive measures must be taken to raise citizens' awareness of the dangers of certain types of cybercrime. The same document notes that the Special Prosecutor's Office for Hi-Tech Crimes is a department working within the Prosecutor General's Office in Belgrade (Government, 2018). An

integral part of the strategy to combat high-tech crime for the period 2019–2023. is also the action plan for the period 2019–2020. for the implementation of the strategy of aligning legislation with the legislation of the European Union in order to fight cybercrime more effectively, as well as increasing staff, staffing and creating new departments within the department (2018). In accordance with the obligation of the Republic of Serbia within the framework of the accession negotiations to the European Union – Chapter 24 (Justice, Freedom, Security) – the Republic of Serbia adopted the Convention on High-Tech Crime (Convention on Cybercrime from 2001) in 2009. The basic principle on which the Convention is based is the implementation of a common policy through the harmonisation of legislation and international cooperation (Narodna skupština, 2009). One of the examples of successful cooperation between Interpol, Europol, the FBI and our authorities is the " Armageddon" operation, launched with the aim of detecting and preventing child pornography on the Internet. The action was launched more than 10 years ago and by 2018 163 people were arrested (Interview: Branko Stamenković, Special Prosecutor for High-Tech Crimes, 2021). In order to improve international cooperation in the fight against cybercrime, the European Parliament adopted Directive 2013/40/EU (European Parliament, 2013), which lays down the rules defining cybercrime and the type and level of sanctions for these crimes. The Directive 2011/93/EU of the European Parliament on combating the sexual abuse and sexual exploitation of children and child pornography is also relevant in the field of combating cybercrime.

The Institutional Framework for Combating Cybercrime

In addition to normative regulation and its implementation, institutions are required to put the regulations into practice. In order to take measures to prevent and detect cybercrime, it is necessary to involve experts with specific knowledge in the field of cybercrime in the police and prosecutor's investigations as well as in the court proceedings (Mali et al., 2018). The chief public prosecutor's office in Belgrade is responsible for cybercrime, i.e., the special department for combating high-tech crime. For tasks falling within the jurisdiction of the police and related to high-tech crime offences, a special service dealing exclusively with high-tech crime

offences has been established within the Internal Affairs Body (Narodna skupština, 2009, Art 9). Trials in these cases fall under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in Belgrade and in appeal proceedings under the jurisdiction of the Court of Appeal in Belgrade. Some civil society organisations, in their assessments of the Republic of Serbia's progress in Chapters 23 and 24, note that despite a good normative framework in the fight against cybercrime, results are not achieved due to insufficient human resources and their use primarily to detect criminal activities jeopardising the safety of politicians by sending threats to politicians over the Internet. The fact that the action plan for the period 2019-2020 has been adopted is cited as a disadvantage. expired without a new one being brought. Another shortcoming affecting the acting institutions is the fact that the special department for high-tech crimes at the Supreme Court in Belgrade was abolished in 2009 and since then cybercrime has been heard by judges of the Supreme and Appellate Courts in Belgrade to judge criminal cases. According to the Special Prosecutor for High-Tech Crime Branko Stamenković in an interview, the number of prosecutors, deputies and assistants in the Special Prosecutor's Office is not proportional to the number of cases processed in 2018. in 2019 there were 3,022, in 2019 3,808, in 2020 4,769 cases, and that in 2021 so far 5,135 cases have been formed" (Interview, 2021). It is a question of the special knowledge in the field of cybercrime of sitting judges. The such organisation in the courts implies that the training of judges must be from the whole criminal law and not specialised in cybercrime (Bjeloš et. al., 2021, p. 98).

Conclusion

With regard to the fight against cybercrime, normative regulations have been adopted in the Republic of Serbia, which satisfactorily regulate this area and are harmonised with the international instruments of the European Union, the number of employees in special departments and services dealing with the prevention and detection of cybercrime, and the number of offences, which is no doubt increasing every year, and we can say with certainty that such a trend will continue in the following period along with the advance of technology. The use of digital technology for the enforcement of sentences also requires the constant training of employees

because the constant advances in technology also go hand in hand with the use of the same in the area of enforcement of sentences. Employees in specialised institutions fighting cybercrime must have knowledge of information technologies in order to be able to adequately respond to cybercrime, which are extremely complex crimes where it is difficult to establish the identity of the perpetrator.

In order to combat cybercrime more effectively, more attention must be paid to educating the public about the dangers of cybercrime in the near future. Education should include people of all ages and professions, from the youngest to the elderly, from businesspeople to ordinary workers, because everyone is a potential victim of cybercrime. Cybercrime is a term that encompasses a wide range of criminal activities of which all citizens are potential victims. Therefore, there is a need to start education at the earliest age and continue it into later stages of life, balancing education with greater exposure to a specific type of cybercrime at a specific age or in specific sectors.

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Sajber kriminal u Republici Srbiji: prevalenca, stanje i perspektive

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Sažetak

Slučajevi anonimnih dojava putem računara o postavljenim bombama u školama i drugim važnim ustanovama širom Srbije obeležili su 2022. godinu. Ovi događaji pokrenuli su debatu u javnosti da li organi zaduženi za borbu protiv sajber kriminala mogu adekvatno da odgovore na takve napade. Sve je veći broj korisnika interneta, a samim tim i potencijalnih žrtava sajber kriminala, kao i obaveze država da zaštite građane. Poslednji događaji pokazali su stepen ranjivosti i rizike po društvo koje donosi visokotehnološki kriminalitet. U radu se analizira normativni i institucionalni okvir borbe protiv sajber kriminala, i podaci Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova o sajber kriminalu. Cilj rada je da se na osnovu analize postojeće zakonske regulative sajber kriminala i analize institucionalnog okvira kod nas i u pojedinim zemljama Evrope daju predlozi za eventualne izmene, a kako bi se obezbedila efikasnija zaštita od sajber kriminala. U radu je primenjen normativni metod kao i komparativni metod za prikaz mera koje se preduzimaju u drugim zemljama. Za analizu prikupljenih podataka korišćena je deskriptivna analiza. Zaključak je da i pored dobrog normativnog okvira borba protiv sajber kriminala nije adekvatna pre svega zbog broja ljudi koji rade u specijalnim odeljenjima i odsecima u tužilaštvu i policiji, a koji je daleko manji u odnosu na broj dela koji se dešava, a koji iz godine u godinu raste. Opasnost

predstavlja i nedostatak svesti kod većeg broja ljudi o opasnostima korišćenja interneta, zbog čega bi u narednom periodu više pažnje trebalo posvetiti edukaciji građana. svih uzrasta o opasnostima i vrstama sajber krivičnih dela.

Ključne reči: sajber kriminal, krivična dela, institucije, normativna regulativa, informacione tehnologije

Critical Review of Decision on Detention and Rights of the Detained Person

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Abstract

By detention, in the pre-investigation procedure, one person is deprived of his liberty, which results in limited freedom of movement of that person, with the simultaneous establishment of other restrictions on the detained person. An arrested person, as well as a suspect, can be detained. These persons are detained on the basis of a decision on detention, which is announced, made and served by the public prosecutor, or upon his approval by the police. According to this decision, the detention of a person can last for a maximum of 48 hours. Bearing in mind that this formal act restricts the detained person's proclaimed right to freedom for the purpose of unhindered conduct of criminal proceedings, while freedom of movement is one of the basic human rights in a democratic society, this clearly shows the importance of the legal treatment of the authorities in the pre-investigation procedure towards the detained person, as and the legality of the detention decision itself. In order for the detention of a person to be justified, it must be legal in both material and procedural terms. Otherwise, there would be a legal basis for the detained person to claim damages, due to the arbitrary detention made against him by the authorities. This article points out the formal-legal determinations of the decision on detention, and the rights of adult persons who have been detained for a hearing, with the aim of pointing out some perceived shortcomings after conducting research and analyzing data from the decision on detention and proposing some legal improvements.

Keywords: detention, police, public prosecutor, arrested person, suspect

Critical Review of Decision on Detention and Rights of the Detained Person

A minor cannot be detained in accordance with Article 61 of the Law on Juvenile Offenders and Criminal Protection of Juveniles (Narodna skupština Republike Srbije [Narodna skupština], 2005). However, a minor can be detained in accordance with the Law on Police (Narodna skupština, 2016). Adults can be detained like minors, in accordance with the Law on Police, but also in accordance with the Law on Road Traffic Safety (Narodna skupština, 2009), the Law on Misdemeanors (Narodna skupština, 2013) and the Criminal Procedure Code (hereinafter text: CPC) (Narodna skupština, 2011).

Pursuant to the CPC, persons found at the scene of a criminal offence may be detained if those persons could provide information important for the proceedings and if it is likely that their interrogation will not be possible later or would be affected with considerable delay or other difficulties (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 290). This detention can last up to 6 hours. As Bejatović (2016, p. 387) points out, "here we are dealing with the questioning of presumptive witnesses". No formal act is not necessary for this retention. Detention of an arrested person or a suspect is possible in the pre-investigation procedure that precedes the regular criminal procedure. Detention of these persons is also possible in the summary criminal procedure prescribed for criminal offences for which the main penalty is a fine or imprisonment of up to 8 years if there is a certain degree of suspicion that these persons have committed a criminal offence. On the basis of the above stated, it follows that "a person can be deprived of his liberty, and he has not yet been placed into custody" (Dimitrijević, 1972, p. 233).

The public prosecutor's decision to detain an arrested or suspected person is a restriction of the right to freedom of movement. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, "everyone has the right to freely move and live in the Republic of Serbia, to leave it and to return to it" (Narodna skupština, 2006, art. 39 para. 1). Freedom of movement can be limited by law if it is necessary for the conduct of criminal proceedings, but the public prosecutor is obliged, from the time of informing the person that detention is being applied, to take into account the essence of the right that is being restricted, the importance of the purpose of the restriction, the

nature and scope of the restriction, the relationship of the restriction with the purpose of the restriction and whether there is a way to achieve the purpose of the restriction with a narrower restriction of the right (2006, art. 20 para. 3).

In order to look at the rights of a detained person, we must first take into account who is the arrested person and who is a suspect from the perspective of the law. Thus, according to the CPC, the arrested person - a person who was deprived of his liberty by the police and taken to the public prosecutor, "because there is a reason for ordering custody prescribed in art. 211 of the CPC". A person who was deprived of his freedom by any citizen was also arrested (so-called citizen's arrest), because he was "caught while committing a criminal offence for which he is prosecuted *ex officio*" and handed over to the public prosecutor or the police (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 291 para. 1 and art. 292). However, a suspect is a person against whom, due to the existence of reasonable basis to believe that he has committed a criminal offence, the competent state authority in the pre-investigation procedure took action prescribed by the CPC and a person against whom an investigation is being conducted (art. 2, paragraph 1 item 1). Therefore, with the detained persons there are different degrees of suspicion that they are the perpetrators of the criminal offence for which the prosecution is undertaken *ex officio*. In the case of the arrested person, there are reasonable grounds to believe that he is the perpetrator of a criminal act, while in the case of a suspect, there is only a reasonable basis to believe that he is the perpetrator of a criminal act. Stamenković (2021, p. 326) indicates that "the difference between reasonable basis to believe and reasonable grounds to believe was established even before the adoption of the CPC, but only in theory and practice."

In order for the detention decision to be legal, proper and justified, and thus to ensure that the rights and freedoms of the detained person guaranteed by the Constitution are not violated, it must meet the prescribed requirements, both formally and materially. The formal conditions for issuance of the decision on detention imply that decision contains all the mandatory formal elements prescribed by the CPC, while the material-legal conditions of the decision on detention imply that a required degree of suspicion that a detainee is the perpetrator of the criminal offence he's

charged is clearly stated and substantiated. Every unnecessary detention of any person that is not, from the point of the scope and purpose of the free movement restriction, constitutes a violation of the detained person's right to freedom. Krapac (2020, p. 373) points out that illegal behaviour of competent authorities in relation to the criminal offence of the arrested person can only represent a mistake in treatment that needs to be corrected, but which cannot prevent the initiation of criminal proceedings against a person. An illegal arrest can also be an independent basis for claiming damages.

The subject of the research is the analysis of the mandatory elements of the decision on detention, according to the positive legal definition, as well as the analysis of the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, with an emphasis on some different rights of the arrested and suspected person. The aim of this article is to point out some perceived shortcomings after conducting research and analyzing data regarding retention decisions and propose some legal improvements. The methods used in this research are the normative method, which was used for the analysis of legal regulations related to this area, and the content analysis method, which was used for the analysis of the basic concepts related to the subject of the research. Also, the method of document content analysis was used to process the data from the retention decision.

Positive Legal Provisions of the Law on the Retention Decision

The public prosecutor can detain: 1) a person who was arrested by the police, 2) a person who was arrested at the scene of the commission of a crime, 3) a suspect who responded to the police's summons in order to collect information, 4) a suspect against whom the police took action in the pre-investigation procedure provided for by the CPC or 5) a suspect who was summoned by the police in the capacity of a citizen to collect information, and during the execution of this action the police assess that this person can be considered a suspect. These persons "can be exceptionally detained by the public prosecutor for questioning for a maximum of 48 hours, counting from the time of arrest or responding to the summons", according to the CPC (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 294 paragraph 1). The public prosecutor was given the authority to detain a person deprived of liberty "so that he would not be required to act within unrealistic deadlines" (Majić, 2016, p.

37). Especially in a situation where the public prosecutor in the same case needs to hear several persons deprived of liberty on the record, as a general action of collecting the evidence. Detention of an arrested person or a suspect is not allowed for any other reason.

Therefore, the detention of an arrested or suspected person by the decision of the public prosecutor is possible only "exceptionally" and is possible only "for interrogation". Detention of a person deprived of liberty cannot be carried out only for the reason of detaining that person for up to 48 hours. Detention of a person deprived of liberty "is not a substitute for police custody, which was prescribed in art. 196 of the Criminal Procedure Act (1976), which was declared unconstitutional by the decision of the Federal Constitutional Court dated December 7, 2000" (Grubač, 2009, p. 361).

The possibility of detention, the duration of detention, the reason for detention, the content of the decision on detention, the persons who can make a decision on detention, the deadline for issuing and delivery of the decision on detention, the legal remedy against the decision on detention, the jurisdiction for decision-making and the time for making a decision on the declared legal remedy, and the rights of detained persons are positively-legally determined in art. 294 of the CPC. This "legal determination is important for the reason that the detention of a person deprived of liberty would not turn into covert police custody" (Brkić, 2010, p. 42).

Bearing in mind that the public prosecutor can detain an arrested person for questioning for a maximum of 48 hours from the date of arrest and that the arrested person has the right to be brought before the competent pre-trial judge within 48 hours, it follows that there is a discrepancy in the CPC's norms because the public prosecutor must interrogate the arrested person on the record within 48 hours of the arrest, and the arrested person must also be handed over to the competent pre-trial judge within 48 hours. If this was not to happen, the arrested person would have to be released. We refer to the above because it must be borne in mind that the questioning of detained persons on the record before the public prosecutor, in some complex criminal cases, lasted for 4 hours, not counting the time required for reading the criminal charge, and not counting the time required to conduct a confidential conversation between the detained person and the defence counsel.

The decision on retention is made in the form of a decision. According to the CPC, the detention decision is made and served by the public prosecutor or upon his approval by the police, immediately or within 2 hours from when the suspect was informed that he was detained (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 294, para. 2). This further means that a person can be detained on the basis of an oral announcement by the public prosecutor or, upon his approval, by the police, and that a written decision be made and delivered to the detained person in the next 2 hours, counting from the time of the announcement. The police do not have the original authority to independently decide to detain a person deprived of their liberty. However, the police have the authority to make and deliver a decision on detention, but only after the public prosecutor decides to allow that. It means that the police conditionally issue and deliver a decision on detention to a person deprived of liberty. Škulić (2017, p. 250) indicates that this is not an adequate legal solution, because there is no logic that one body makes a decision and that another body practically only "draws up" a decision that formally manifests such a decision.

In the decision on detention in accordance with the CPC, the following must be stated: 1) the criminal offence for which the suspect is charged, 2) reasonable grounds for suspicion, 3) day and time of deprivation of liberty or response to the summons and 4) time of detention (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 294 para. 2). Therefore, the legislator has expressly prescribed the content of the detention decision, and it must contain all four mandatory elements. The decision on detention must also contain the reason for the detention, that is, that the detention is carried out "for the purpose of questioning". The detention decision "must have reasoned grounds for detention, because the police arrest from art. 291 para.1 of the CPC is possible only if there are reasons for ordering custody from art. 211 of the Civil Code" (Ilić, et al., 2018, p. 769).

Rights of the Detained Person

First, the arrested person "has rights from art. 69 para. 1 of the CPC and they must be read to the arrested person" by the police, already during the arrest (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 291 para. 2). Also, the public prosecutor has the obligation to "advise the arrested about the rights from

art. 69 para. 1 of the CPC, to enable him to inform the defence counsel directly or through family members or a third party whose identity must be revealed to the public prosecutor in his presence, with the use of a telephone or other electronic message transmitter, and if necessary, help him find a defence attorney. (2011, art. 293 para. 1). The public prosecutor can *ex officio* order a medical examination of the arrested person. A medical examination can also be requested by "the arrested person, his defence counsel, a member of the arrested person's family or a person with whom the arrested person lives in a cohabitation or a permanent union of life", according to the CPC (2011, art. 293 para. 5).

If the arrested person does not provide a defence attorney within 24 hours or declares that he does not want to hire a defence attorney, counting from the moment when he was given the opportunity to do so, the public prosecutor is obliged to question him without delay (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 293 para. 2). It follows from the above that the public prosecutor has the obligation to interrogate the arrested person after 24 hours from the moment of the arrest if he has not hired a lawyer or declares that he does not want to hire a lawyer. This legal provision is not logical for a number of reasons, namely: 1) first, when issuing a decision on detention, the arrested person must have a lawyer, because he cannot be detained without a decision on detention, which further means that waiting for the 24-hour period to pass in order for the arrested person to declare his position about the defence counsel, he actually has a defence counsel *ex officio* (provided by the state); 2) secondly, since the defence attorney was provided by the state no later than after the lapse of 4 hours counting from the adoption of the decision on the detention of the arrested person, the question arises as to what is the role of the defence attorney in this part of the procedure; 3) thirdly, it is not logical for the public prosecutor to interrogate the arrested person without the presence of a state-provided defence attorney, bearing in mind that only a person can be arrested for whom there are grounds for ordering detained custody, which specifically means that there is a reasonable grounds to believe that the arrested person is the perpetrator of a crime for which prosecution is undertaken *ex officio*; 4) fourth, it is not logical for the public prosecutor to interrogate the arrested person without the presence of a state-provided defence attorney, because the arrestee can

be charged with a criminal offence for which a prison sentence of up to 8 years is prescribed, which certainly does not represent a minor criminal offence.

When it is a matter of mandatory defence, and the arrested person according to the CPC does not provide a defence attorney within 24 hours or declares that he does not want to hire a defence attorney, the public prosecutor will appoint him an *ex officio* defence attorney (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 293 para. 3). And this legal provision is in dispute because the question arises: what about the already appointed *ex officio* defence attorney who was engaged to the arrested person when the detention decision was made!? That there is already an engaged state-provided defence attorney, is indirectly concluded from the legal definition in art. 294 para. 5 of the CPC, because the arrested person already had to be appointed an *ex officio* defence attorney, as he did not provide one himself within 4 hours of the issuance of the detention decision.

Immediately after the hearing, the public prosecutor will decide whether to release the arrested person or to propose to the pre-trial judge that he be detained into custody, according to the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 293 paragraph 4). However, as a result of the above, we wonder when the public prosecutor will hear the arrested person because, after the 24-hour period, the arrestee was provided with a state-provided defence attorney. Furthermore, we ask ourselves what about the defence counsel of the arrested person who must be present at the time of the adoption of the detention decision?

Both suspects and arrested persons must be advised about the rights of art. 69 para. 1 of the CPC, namely:

- 1) the right not to declare anything, to withhold an answer to a particular question, freely present one's defence, admit or not admit guilt,
- 2) the right to defend oneself or with the professional assistance of a defence attorney in accordance with the CPC,
- 3) the right to have a defence attorney present at his interrogation,
- 4) the right to read the criminal complaint, the report of the investigation and the findings and opinion of the expert immediately before the first questioning,
- 5) the right to be instructed by the procedural body before the first questioning about the aforementioned rights,
- 6) the

right to be immediately informed in a language he understands about the reason for the arrest, 7) the right to have a confidential conversation with the defence counsel before being questioned, which is monitored only by looking and not listening, 8) the right to demand that one of his family members or another person close to him, without delay, is notified about the arrest, as well as the diplomatic and consular representative of the country of which he is a citizen, i.e. a representative of an authorized international organization of public law character, if it is a refugee or stateless person and 9) the right to demand that he be examined without delay by a doctor he freely chooses, and if he is not available, by a doctor designated by the public prosecutor or the court (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 293, para. 1 and art. 294 para. 4).

A detained suspect must also have a lawyer as soon as the procedural authority issues a decision on detention. Thus, according to the CPC, if the suspect does not provide a chosen defence attorney within 4 hours of the issuance of the detention decision, "the public prosecutor will provide him with an ex officio defence attorney" (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 294, para. 5). Jovančević (2015, p. 190) believes that "this decision is not in accordance with the adversarial concept that one party appoints a lawyer for the other, but that decision should have been left, by law, to the pre-trial judge."

"The suspect and his lawyer have the right to appeal against the detention decision, within 6 hours from the delivery of the decision." Therefore, the deadline for filing an appeal cannot begin to run until the detention decision is served. "The appeal does not delay the execution of the decision". The appeal is decided by the pre-trial judge within 4 hours of receiving the appeal, (Narodna skupština, 2011, art. 294, para. 3), which initiates the proceedings before the court for the control of the contested detention decision in accordance with the CPC. A restrictive interpretation of this legal provision leads to the conclusion that only the suspect has the right to appeal to the pre-trial judge against the decision on detention, while the arrested person does not have that right, so this legal provision is imprecise. The appeal filed against the detention decision can be dismissed, rejected or accepted (allowed) by the pre-trial judge. The restriction of the detainee's freedom, which, according to this decision, can last no longer than

48 hours, certainly "represents a restriction of freedom sufficient in time to merit control of the validity of such a restriction" (Todorović, 2021, p. 89). Is an appeal against a detention decision an effective legal remedy, after conducting scientific research, Todorović (2018, p. 239) concludes that "in the Republic of Serbia, there is an obvious practice that the courts routinely reject appeals against a detention decision, making the appeal to the detention decision *de facto* ineffective legal remedy."

The text of the CPC does not contain a provision on how to revoke the decision on detention if the suspect and the defence attorney do not file an appeal against the detention decision, and the public prosecutor in the meantime questions the detainee on the record and decides not to submit to the pre-trial judge a proposal to order the suspect into custody or some of the measures to ensure the presence of the accused and the smooth conduct of the criminal proceedings prescribed by the CPC. In this situation, the public prosecutor releases the detained person with a verbal announcement, which is debatable because of the equal treatment of public prosecutors towards all persons detained for questioning.

Discussion

The research we conducted on the basis of a formed sample of 20 randomly selected decisions on detention (Table 1) that were issued in the period from 2016–2022, we examined the conformity of the legal determination of the mandatory elements of the detention decision and the actual elements of this decision in practice.

From the formed sample, it is indisputably established that all twenty persons were detained by the police. This further means that the police only formally drew up the acts (decisions) on detention, while the decision on detention was made by the public prosecutor. For the three persons detained by the police, there was no public prosecutor's approval for detention. This type of detention is not allowed by the CPC, and it clearly follows that these persons have an independent basis for compensation, because their right to freedom was violated. Deprivation of a person's liberty by the state authorities, which is carried out by in a form of detention, is allowed, but it must be carried out in a procedure prescribed by the law.

All twenty persons were detained for up to 48 hours without stating the reason for the detention, that the detention was carried out “for interrogation”. Therefore, it can be concluded that in this particular case it was about police custody applied to the detained persons.

Out of a total of twenty persons detained, thirteen of them were detained as suspects from art. 289 para.1 and 2 of the CPC, whether it is a suspect who responded to a summons from the police in order to collect information, a person against whom the police took action in the pre-investigation procedure provided for by the CPC, or a person who was summoned by the police in their capacity as a citizen collection of information, during which acquired the status of a suspect. The police arrested five persons who were then detained pursuant to Art. 291 paragraph 1 of the CPC.

However, the status of the two detained persons from the detention decision that we have analyzed is interesting. In one detention decision, it is stated that an authorized person of the police on the basis of the CPC makes a decision on detention against a person who was arrested by the police, but at the same time, it is also a suspect from art. 289 para. 1 and 2 of the CPC. The second decision on detention is even more interesting because it states that a person is arrested by the police, but also a person arrested by a citizen from art. 292 para. 1 of the CPC, but also a person who is suspect of art. 289 paras. 1 and 2 of the CPC. Therefore, this person has all the statuses of a detained person, which is recognized by the CPC. However, when it is taken into account that in respect to the arrested person who is detained there is a reasonable ground to believe that he is the perpetrator of a criminal offence, while in respect of the suspect who is detained exists only reasonable basis to believe that he is the perpetrator of a criminal offence and that in no decision on the detention was stated nor justified required degree of doubt, this further means that all decisions on detention were legally deficient because they did not contain a legal condition for detention. Therefore, the right to a reasoned court decision, as an element of the right to a fair trial, was violated for all detained persons.

All nineteen decisions on detention contain the day and time of the beginning of detention, while one decision on detention contains only the

day of detention, while the time of detention is not known. The time of the suspect's or arrestee's detention is an important element of the decision on detention from the aspect of the detained person's right to be heard before the public prosecutor in a certain period of time, and in that part this one decision which doesn't contain the time of detention is incorrect.

All decisions on detention contain a criminal offence for which the detained person is being charged. In this part, all detention decisions were proper and legal. This further means that for these detained persons the right to defence, which also includes a right to a defence attorney, as an element of the right to a fair trial, was violated.

From the two decisions, it is established that the two detained persons did not have a defence attorney at the time of the decision on detention, nor were they provided with a defence attorney by the state after the 4-hour deadline. Upon inspection of a specific case, we determined that these persons were appointed *ex officio* defence counsel, but only after two days since the beginning of their detention. For the two detained persons, it is not possible to determine the time of delivery of the detention decision. From the analyzed sample, it is determined that the two detention decisions do not contain instruction on the legal remedy in terms of determining to which court an appeal against the detention decision can be submitted. Persons who have been detained according to these decisions are denied the right to use an effective legal remedy.

Decisions on retention KU 668/16-1 and KU 668/16-2 do not contain the time when the detained person was informed that the measure of detention was applied to him. All detention decisions contain a legal reason from Art. 211 of the CPC, although all the persons who are detained according to these decisions are not arrested persons at the same time. In the case of the three persons who were detained, the degree of suspicion that they are the perpetrators of the criminal offence for which they are charged has not been determined at all. For ten detained persons, the decision on detention states that there are reasonable grounds to believe that they are the perpetrators of a criminal act, although in the introductory part of the decision it is clearly indicated that it is a suspect from Art. 289 paras. 1 and 2 of the CPC. There is also an opposite case. Thus, in the case of the two persons who were arrested, the detention decision states that

there is only a reasonable basis to believe that they are the perpetrators of a crime. All decisions on detention that are the subject of this analysis, in the part of determining the time of the beginning of detention contain the words "that is". Thus, it is not clear whether detention is to be counted against an arrested person or a suspect, but rather, ambiguity about the choice is left between the two possibilities.

Accordingly, we believe that the decision to detain a person must contain all elements prescribed by the law so the constitutionally guaranteed rights of the detained person would not be violated. The decision on detention must not leave the possibility of choosing the status of the detained person, because the CPC clearly defines which person is considered arrested and which suspect in the pre-investigation procedure. Of particular concern is the fact that not a single decision on detention contains a reason for detaining a person for a maximum of 48 hours, even though this is an express requirement made by the legislator. Therefore, it can be indirectly concluded that it was still a case of police detention of a person for a duration of 48 hours, according to the analyzed decisions on detention, because none of the decisions stated that the person is being detained "for questioning", let alone that the person is being detained "exceptionally".

Conclusion

It follows from the positive-legal provisions of the CPC that the decision on detention is a formal act that temporarily restricts the freedom of movement of a person when the conditions prescribed by law have been met, issued by the public prosecutor or with his approval by the police, and by which the arrestee or suspect, exceptionally, are detained for questioning before the public prosecutor for a maximum of 48 hours. The detention decision must contain mandatory elements prescribed by the CPC so it would be legally proper, and the detention of the suspect or arrested person would be legal and justified. By the detention decision can, exceptionally, be detained, for questioning, the following: 1) a person arrested by the police, 2) a person who was arrested at the scene of the commission of a crime, 3) a suspect who responded to a summons from the police to collect information, 4) a suspect against whom the police took actions in the pre-investigation procedure provided for by the CPC or 5) a suspect who was

summoned by the police in the capacity of a citizen to collect information, and during the execution of this action, the police assess that person can be considered a suspect.

The detained person must have a defence attorney as soon as the competent state authority issues a decision on detention. Professional defence of a detained person by an attorney, starting from the moment when the decision on detention was made by the public prosecutor, or, upon his approval, by the police, is important for the reason that the detained person is generally a legally ignorant party who does not have knowledge about his rights during detention. The presence of a defence attorney at this stage of the criminal proceedings is especially necessary for the reason of preparing the defence of the detained person because the detention of the person is carried out for the reason of his questions on the record before the public prosecutor because there is a certain degree of suspicion that he is the perpetrator of the criminal act.

From the formed sample that we analyzed, we determined that not a single decision contained all the mandatory elements, nor it contained reasons in respect of the existence of a necessary degree of suspicion, which means that not a single decision on detention was legal from the aspect of formal-legal and material-legal conditions that it must contain. The detention of a person suspected of being a perpetrator of a criminal offence, or of a person for whom there is a reasonable basis to believe of being a perpetrator of a criminal offence, is permitted, but the detention of that person must be carried out in a procedure prescribed by the law. Otherwise, the detained person's right to freedom will be violated. Through the conducted analysis, we determined that the detained persons, whose detention decisions we analyzed, had their right to freedom violated. In some detention decisions, we found that there is a violation of the detained person's right to defence, the right to an effective legal remedy, as well as a violation of the right to a fair trial. However, the actions of the authorities of the pre-investigation procedure towards the detained person contrary to the provisions of the CPC, as well as the announcement, issuance and delivery of decisions on detention that are not legal, constitute a violation of the rights and freedoms of the detained person guaranteed by the Constitution and create a special basis for claiming compensation for damages.

We particularly point out the proposal of the Ombudsman that "in Art. 294 para. 2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure (2011) it is necessary to prescribe that in the decision on the detention of an arrested person, as well as a suspect, the public prosecutor can exceptionally detain for questioning for a maximum of 48 hours from the time of arrest, i.e. responding to a summons, must be specified, except for the what the suspects are charged with, the basis of suspicion, the day and time of deprivation of liberty or responding to the summons and the time of detention, and the reasons for the exceptional postponement of the questioning for up to 48 hours" (Ombudsman of the Republic of Serbia, 15-32-12/2017). We point to this proposal for the reason that it was drafted and submitted to the Government of the Republic of Serbia and the National Assembly of the Republic of Serbia back in 2017, the adoption of which would achieve better protection of citizens' rights.

While writing this paper, we determined that the Code of Criminal Procedure (2011) expressly prescribes in art. 69 para. 2 the right of the arrested person that he must be handed over to the competent pre-trial judge without delay, and no later than within 48 hours, or if this does not happen, released, that art. 29 para. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia (2006) guaranteed the right of a person deprived of liberty without a court decision to be handed over to the competent court within "48 hours" at the latest because otherwise he is released, and that art. 294 para. 2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure (2011) stipulates the public prosecutor's ability to detain an arrested person for questioning "for a maximum of 48 hours".

A suspect who is detained for questioning by the decision of the public prosecutor does not have this right prescribed by the current CPC. Therefore, we believe that it is necessary to amend the Code of Criminal Procedure (2011) so that the public prosecutor will be obliged to undertake the basic evidentiary action of questioning the detained person within a maximum of 48 hours, counting from the time of arrest, i.e. responding to the summons, and that in that time during the period, make: 1) a proposal for the determination of a measure prohibiting approaching, meeting or communicating with a certain person and visiting certain places, or 2) a proposal for determining a measure prohibiting leaving one's place of residence, or 3) a proposal for determining bail, or 4) a proposal for determining a measure prohibiting leaving the apartment, or 5) submit a motion for custody, and submit the case files to the

pre-trial judge, if the public prosecutor considers it necessary to take action against the detained person.

We propose the above for reasons of respect for the constitutionally guaranteed rights of a person deprived of his liberty so that he could be handed over to the competent court within "48 hours" for a hearing on the reasons for ordering detention or so that the person deprived of his liberty would know what other measure should be applied to him for securing his presence and for the smooth conduct of criminal proceedings. As stated above, we propose to make a positive legal determination, both for the arrested person and for the suspected person who, according to the decision of the public prosecutor, is exceptionally detained for questioning, because the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia (2006) guarantees this right to all persons deprived of their liberty.

As art. 293 para. 2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure (2011) stipulates that if the arrested person does not ensure the presence of a defence counsel within 24 hours from when he was given the opportunity to do so or declares that he does not want to hire a defence lawyer, the public prosecutor is obliged to question him without delay, while such a right the detained suspect was not given. Thus, the suspect does not have the right to be questioned on the record by the public prosecutor after 24 hours from the moment of detention, if the expert defence is not mandatory, as such obligation of the public prosecutor exists if it is an arrested person. This possibility must be positively legally allowed for the detained suspect, for the sake of the equality of all detained persons.

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Appendix

Table 1

An overview of the formal designations of decisions on retention with formal elements that are the subject of analysis in this paper

Number of detention decisions	Approval of the public prosecutor	Grounds for detention	Degree of doubt	Defence counsel	Instruction on legal remedy
KU 668/16 - 1	Yes	art. 289 paras. 1 and 2 of the CPC	Does not have	No	Yes
KU 668/16 - 2	Yes	art. 289 paras. 1 and 2 of the CPC	Does not have	No	Yes
KU 15/17	No	art. 289 parad.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 1487/17	Yes	art. 289 parad.1 and 2 of the CPC	Does not have	Yes	Yes
KU 3269/18	Yes	art. 291 para. 1 CPC; Art. 292 para. 1 CPC; Art. 289 paras. 1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable basis to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 1094/18	Yes	art . 289 para.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 230-112/19	Yes	art . 291 para.1 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 230-360/19; 230-359/19	Yes	art . 291 para.1 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 1382/19	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes

KU 120/19	No	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	No
KU 230-1082/20	Yes	art. 291 para.1 CPC; Art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 319/20	No	Art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 230-62/21	Yes	art. 291 para.1 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 122/21	Yes	art. 291 para.1 of the CPC	Grounds for suspicion	Yes	Yes
KU 230-756/21	Yes	art. 291 para.1 of the CPC	Reasonable basis to believe	Yes	No
KU 287/22	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 290/22	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 289/22	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 372/22	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes
KU 378/22	Yes	art. 289 paras.1 and 2 of the CPC	Reasonable ground to believe	Yes	Yes

Note. The subject of the research are decisions on detention made by the police, which list the criminal offences for which the detained persons are charged, the time of delivery of the decision and the start of detention, that is, the day and time of deprivation of liberty or responding to a summons.

Rešenje o zadržavanju i prava zadržanog lica

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Sažetak

Zadržavanjem, u predistražnom postupku jedno lice se lišava slobode što za posledicu ima ograničenu slobodu kretanja tog lica, sa istovremenim uspostavljanjem i drugih ograničenja prema zadržanom licu. Zadržati se može uhapšeno, ali i osumnjičeno lice. Ova lica se zadržavaju na osnovu rešenja o zadržavanju, koje saopštava, donosi i uručuje javni tužilac, ili po njegovom odobrenju policija. Po ovom rešenju zadržavanje nekog lica može trajati najduže 48 časova. Imajući u vidu da se ovim formalnim aktom zadržanom licu ograničava proklamovano pravo na slobodu u cilju nesmetanog vođenja krivičnog postupka, pri čemu je sloboda kretanja jedno od osnovnih ljudskih prava u demokratskom društvu, to jasno proizilazi značaj legalnog postupanja organa predistražnog postupka prema zadržanom licu, kao i zakonitost samog rešenja o zadržavanju. Da bi zadržavanje nekog lica bilo opravdano, ono mora biti zakonito i u materijalnom i u procesnom smislu. U suprotnom, postojao bi pravni osnov zadržanog lica za naknadu štete, zbog proizvoljnog zadržavanja učinjenog prema njemu od organa postupka. Ovim radom želimo da ukažemo na formalno-pravna određenja rešenja o zadržavanju, i prava punoletnih lica koja su zadržana radi saslušanja sa ciljem da se nakon sprovedenog istraživanja i analiziranih podataka iz rešenja o zadržavanju ukaže na neke uočene nedostatke, te predlože neka zakonska poboljšanja.

Ključne reči: zadržavanje, policija, javni tužilac, uhapšeni, osumnjičeni

Networking of Social Sciences Knowledge in the Function of Solving Practical Problems and Development of Society

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Abstract

The development of modern societies is based on the latest concepts of the knowledge economy and knowledge society, which implies sectoral and disciplinary connection and integration of all available knowledge of a society and putting it into the function of achieving social goals (development). The purpose of this paper is to look at the scope of this concept in the world and make a comparison with the degree of knowledge application and integration of science in Serbia, with a focus on social sciences. Accordingly, an overview of general global trends and challenges in the field of social sciences, education, and the application of knowledge is given first. After that, examples of good practice and one case study (Social Science Research Park in Great Britain) are presented. Then the state of social sciences (and their practical application) in the Republic of Serbia was analysed. It was observed that there is a solid institutional framework for the development and networking of knowledge, but also that there are open questions and problems that need to be worked on in the future. In the final part of the work, potential solutions were offered for the identified challenges that could contribute to mitigating the observed problems and more effectively achieving the set goals.

Keywords: education, networking, scientific integration, social sciences, Triple Helix

Networking of Social Sciences Knowledge in the Function of Solving Practical Problems and Development of Society

The purpose of this paper is to show the mechanisms of application of social science knowledge in solving practical social problems and achieving development goals, with a focus on possible improvements, when it comes to this topic, in the Republic of Serbia.

Newer development concepts such as the knowledge economy or the knowledge society highlight the importance of the connection and integration of various scientific disciplines as well as the academic community with other sectors in society (government, profit sector, civil society). One of the manifestations of this approach is the modern science and technology parks, within which very diverse actors cooperate to create innovative solutions for increasingly numerous social needs. Such parks also exist in our area, but it is also evident that scientists and researchers from the natural and technical sciences are active in them (information technologies are particularly prominent). At first glance, it seems as if social sciences and their knowledge (since they are not directly profitable) are in the background compared to natural and technical sciences.

However, in the most developed societies, the importance and potential of social sciences for the overall development of society is well recognized, which is manifested in numerous innovative approaches, including the appearance of the first Social Science Research Park in the United Kingdom.

That being said, this article has several goals.

The first is to see the importance of social sciences on a global scale. This was done based on the documents content analysis (reports) for this topic of relevant world organizations (under the auspices of the UN) and a literature review. Based on this, two conflicting statements can be distinguished. One talks about the great importance of social sciences and the "golden age" that awaits it, and the other about the poor status and lack of recognition of its importance in many countries of the world.

The second goal is the presentation of good practice in connecting, integrating, and applying social science knowledge, which was realized through a case study (the presentation of the world's first Social Science Research Park).

The third goal is the analysis of the state and status of social sciences in Serbia, which was realized based on the analysis of official documents (laws and strategies), data and the implementation of scientific research projects.

Finally, in the final part of the paper, general conclusions are given about the state of social science in Serbia and the possibilities of its further networking and application of knowledge with a set of recommendations that would eventually help to overcome the perceived challenges.

Global Situation and Trends in the Field of Social Sciences

In recent decades, the scientific and technological revolution has influenced the complexity of the social structure and the emergence of new challenges, the face of which requires the engagement of the entire society and the total knowledge at its disposal. This implies the integration of knowledge from different disciplines, that is, the integration of natural and social sciences, but also their connection with other sectors of society (government, economy, civil society). Exactly, this *integration with the natural sciences and connection with the government sector, the economy, and citizens*, to solve practical societal problems, is a global trend or tendency in the understanding of social sciences.

The ever-increasing contribution (as well as the demands) that social sciences can make in *solving practical social problems* also influence the increase in their importance. This objective importance should not be confused with the public policy of a specific state towards social sciences and the status it has in it.

Arguments for the presented theses can be supported based on several sources.

Firstly, according to many academic sources (Foster et al., 2017), the social sciences are expecting intensive development and a "golden age" because the capacities of computers accompanied by the concept of Big Data give them new powerful tools that allow them to very (and so far, unprecedented) complex approaches in observing social phenomena. In addition, the inclusion of insights and knowledge from other sciences and disciplines (e.g., neuroscience, evolutionary biology, etc.) gives them far

greater predictive power. Modern researchers of social phenomena now have new tools and opportunities such as experimentation in virtual laboratories or randomized control trials (Hariton & Locascio, 2018).

Secondly, in addition to increasing opportunities for researchers of social phenomena to create new knowledge, the demand for it also increases. According to some reports, public policymakers are increasingly realizing the importance of social sciences due to the need for constant innovation and improvement in public services, as well as data that is the basis for creating public policies (evidence-based policy) (Puttick, 2011). Besides this, the private (or profit) sector is increasingly interested in understanding interpersonal relationships, and therefore the importance of social sciences, which is quite expected in today's world of social networks and media (Price & Delbridge, 2015, p. 21).

Furthermore, when it comes to the need to apply the knowledge of social sciences (and science in general) and its integration with other sectors in society, theories or models bearing the names: The Third Mission of the University, the Triple Helix, and the Quadruple Helix testify. The third mission of universities emphasizes that, in addition to their two basic missions (teaching and research), universities should also have a third one, which is a contribution to society (Compagnucci & Spigarelli, 2020). The Triple Helix model represents a further development of this concept in the sense that this contribution to society should be realized through the intensive cooperation of three sectors (hence the name of this model): academic, economic, and government sectors (Etzkowitz, 2008). Today, there is an international movement that promotes this idea (<https://www.triplehelixassociation.org/>) as well as an international institute (<http://www.triplehelix.net>). The Quadruple helix mission model, and the term "multiple helices" is being mentioned more and more often, represents a further development of these ideas, and in addition to the mentioned three sectors, it also adds civil society as the fourth partner of cooperation, but also various other aspects: cultural, geographical, sustainability (Perris-Ortiz et al., 2016, p. 8).

The reports as well as the evolution of the International Social Science Council (ISSC) support the thesis about the objective importance of social sciences and the need for the integration of natural and social sciences. This Council was founded under the auspices of UNESCO in Paris

in 1952 to improve the social sciences at the world level, i.e., their quality, innovation, and applicability. In 2018, the International Social Science Council merged with the International Council for Science into a single organization, the International Science Council, because the necessity of a global voice of all sciences (natural and social) was realized, as well as their equal importance for the development of humanity (<https://www.worldsocialscience.org/>).

Although very important for the survival and further development of man and humanity, social sciences (or most of them) are not directly profitable like many technical sciences (egg software engineering, pharmacy, construction, etc.). Namely, the scientific results of social sciences are not concrete products that have a direct production-technological component in the development of humanity. However, they deal with the analysis of interpersonal relationships and human motivation, the decision-making process, etc. which represents the social basis of production and thus overall social development. As a consequence of the failure to recognize or insufficient understanding of this important fact, a kind of social science crisis is emerging, which is manifested by their insufficient funding.

This is precisely what is written in the ISSC report from 2010 on the state of social sciences in the world. It is stated that one of the key problems in most of the world is the lack of finance and that previous governments and universities were the main sources of funding, while at the time (2010) government subsidies for social sciences are the exception rather than the rule, especially in less developed parts of the world. (UNESCO & ISSC, 2010, p. 6). The same report also states that social scientists and their research have different statuses from country to country. While in some countries they have a recognized status and high reputation as columnists, advisors, directors of think-thanks organizations, etc., or they are simply marked as essential for the overall development of the country (such as in China or Brazil) in some other countries when it is said science refers primarily to natural sciences (e.g., in most Arab countries but also in other less developed countries). In many low-income countries, investing in social science education is considered a waste or a cost from which other (richer) countries benefit more (due to the so-called brain drain effect) (UNESCO & ISSC, 2010, p.8). An important part of this report is the elaboration of the relationship

between social sciences and political decision-makers with guidelines aimed at more intensive cooperation of people from these two fields, with a particular focus on evidence-based policymaking (2010, p. 19).

The report of this Council from 2013 entitled "Changing Global Environments" emphasizes, even more, the necessity of concerted activities to preserve the planet, social equality, human dignity, and well-being for all. To this end, "the social sciences provide indispensable knowledge of the causes and consequences of global environmental change, and more effective, equitable and durable solutions to today's sustainability challenges" (UNESCO & ISSC, 2013, p. 4).

Also, the title of the report from 2016 contains, in the opinion of experts at that time, the biggest global challenge, i.e., the problem is social inequalities. Similar to previous reports, guidelines are offered to mitigate the diagnosed problem while emphasizing the importance of the contribution of social sciences (UNESCO & ISSC 2016).

Based on the presented content, it can be concluded that social sciences are extremely important on a global level, and the necessity of including their knowledge in solving the biggest global challenges such as sustainability or inequality is highlighted. However, the situation is quite different when analysing specific countries. In many, there is a lack of funding and the perception of social sciences as "unprofitable investments". On the other side, judging by some parameters (number of journals, published works, research centres, the status of social scientists in society, cooperation of universities with other sectors, etc.), it can be said that social sciences are the most developed (or have the best status) in the Western world, i.e., in first place in the USA and the UK (see: Sinha, 2021, pp. 59–91; Keim, et al., 2014). This is also solid evidence that supports the thesis about the importance of social sciences for their, not only economic but overall social development.

Scientific Research Parks and Labs in the Field of Social Sciences – Creation and Application of Knowledge in the Achievement of Social Goals

As Western countries (Western Europe and the Commonwealth, with the USA and the UK standing out among them) are leaders in terms of the development of social sciences and their inclusion in the development issues of society, it is quite expected that their experiences will be reviewed for eventual application in other areas as well. These experiences and practices are quite varied and an effort to comprehensively present them in a work of this scope would not be feasible. Therefore, one specific example will be presented in more detail, which contains numerous innovative instruments and principles for connecting social sciences and other sectors of society, as well as mechanisms for applying social science knowledge in solving public problems.

Considering the topic of this paper, the first research park in the field of social sciences in the world, which was founded at Cardiff University (Wales, Great Britain), deserves the greatest attention. Its full name is Social Sciences Research Park (SPARK). The basic idea and purpose of this park are the same as when it comes to science and technology parks (in the field of natural and technical sciences), which have been known for decades, and that is to connect science and other sectors (primarily economy, government, and civil society), but its specificity lies in the fact that, for the first time in the world, it is about social sciences as a "tenant" of such a park.

SPARK is located in an area of 12 thousand square meters where experts and professionals from different professions and business positions meet, communicate and work together to solve the biggest challenges of society. Through multidisciplinary interaction and cooperation of different profiles of people, new insights and knowledge are created regarding the development of society. SPARK primarily deals with ongoing social changes, and challenges and responds to them, i.e., by offering optimal solutions. Its creators see the rationale for the existence of such a park in the collection, intersection, and promotion of various knowledge that is normally created within the individual (often unrelated) institutions. While higher education institutions (universities and faculties) create new knowledge that is often

general (sometimes not directly applicable at a given moment), SPARK is particularly interested in promoting that knowledge that can contribute to solving social problems (inequality in society, sustainability, population ageing, and many others). The basic formula of work is based on three elements: innovative thinking, joint work, and exchange of ideas.

The park began to emerge in 2011 through the establishment of several research centres that dealt with numerous issues such as the lack of drinking water, crime prevention, innovations in the field of energy use, the way of using Big Data... It was institutionally and infrastructurally completed in 2021 when a new futuristic building was made especially for its needs. The Park's equipment provides opportunities for designing, and prototyping decisions/actions and simulations, which test potential solutions for urgent societal problems.

Otherwise, the Park was built with funds from both the private and public sectors and can be treated as the result of a partnership between the public and private sectors (University Business, 2021).

The space and equipment are arranged in such a way that they are attractive and accessible to the widest audience and needs. In addition to offices, conference rooms, and spaces for lectures and research, SPARK is equipped with very innovative instruments and spaces. Within it, there are multidisciplinary behavioural research laboratories (*dedicated behavioural labs*) in which human behaviour is investigated in controlled conditions (usually in the fields of marketing, management, and experimental economics). They use state-of-the-art equipment such as *eye tracking technology*, which uses sensors to detect eye movements, i.e., what a person looks at a moment, and what he directs his attention to, but also enables human-computer interaction. There are also *data hubs*, it is systems that in their centre contain the connection of a large number of different IT systems, whether it is web applications, IoT (Internet of Things) devices, business platforms, etc. In addition to this, SPARK also has so-called *wet labs* as well as visualization laboratories. In addition to these laboratories, there are also numerous libraries as well as a TV studio equipped with a TED-style auditorium, for a wide range of events and presentations prepared for the general public. Also, the Park has a space open to the public where citizens can be informed and taught about the urgent needs of society and topics

such as the circular economy or even be trained, for example, on how to recycle and live by the principles of sustainability.

The basic principles and elements on which the first social science research park in the world was founded (which can be considered as a kind of conceptual guide for future similar parks) are given in the document *Social science parks society's – new super-labs* (Price & Delbridge, 2015).

Firstly, *physical space* dedicated to networking and innovation is important. Although today we live in the conditions of increasingly frequent work from home (online), without the classic going to work and direct contact with colleagues, this concept emphasizes the importance of traditional contacts and workspace. It is based on the assumption that the creation of new knowledge is essentially a social process (except for rare, gifted individuals who create new knowledge on their own). It takes place through the exchange of ideas and different points of view, for which spaces as "temples" of knowledge are important. In ancient times, these were libraries and academies, monasteries in the Middle Ages, and today they are universities and innovation laboratories (see Allen & Henn, 2007 on the importance of space for an organization that creates innovations).

A second important principle is *harmonization and cooperation*, i.e., *networking of different ideas and views on social problems*, for the joint creation of new knowledge. This is based on the already mentioned *Quadruple helix* model, according to which there are four main axes of cooperation: universities, government, economy, and citizens.

The third principle is *treating scientists from the field of social sciences as carriers of social innovations*. This implies conscious efforts and attempts to move them from the position of passive observation of society to more active participation in social changes. In this connection, the public value of social sciences and the concept of new public social sciences are discussed (Brewer, 2013, pp. 117–204). In reality, this is being achieved through the promotion of experimental methods and the cooperation of various stakeholders and researchers in concrete attempts to create meaningful and practical interventions in society within the so-called *living labs* (Bergvall-Kåreborn & Ståhlbröst, 2009). A living lab is essentially a research methodology for discovering, prototyping, evaluating, and fine-tuning complex solutions in a complex and ever-changing real-life context (<https://fissacproject.eu/en/living->

labs/). By the way, there are such laboratories all over the world and in Europe, and there is also a European network of living labs (<https://enoll.org/>). On the website of this network, dozens of live laboratories can be searched, classified by area and sector.

The next principle is the application of trial *test beds*. In principle, it is a platform for conducting precise, transparent, and repeatable tests to verify a scientific theory, tool, or new technology. The idea is to introduce strict mechanisms for testing various theories, knowledge, and proposed solutions in the social sciences as well (Manzi, 2012). And what is especially important and radically new in SPARK is that it can be a platform for the development of trial or bed-tests, that is, potential solutions that relate to society as a whole.

Finally, the last principle is the *inclusion of research* and findings *in practice*. "If all a social science park ends up being is a gleaming new workspace for academics, then it will have failed in its purpose" (Price & Delbridge, 2015, p. 17). Its primary function is to break down the barrier between different theories and research on the one hand and practice on the other. Namely, it has been noticed, even in Western countries where social sciences are significantly more developed compared to the rest of the world, that only a few professors who teach social sciences students engage in the practice (Shepherd, 2014, p. 23). More specifically, social science parks should be an environment for, one might say, a new profile of people who integrate academic and practical knowledge and skills and who prototype new ideas and proposed solutions (i.e., check their effectiveness in practice).

So, if one had to briefly say what SPARK is, then the possible answer would be that it is:

1. (physical) space, where people from the spheres of science, the government sector, and the economy work together to solve problems and ensure the practical needs of citizens (society);
2. through the integration of existing and creation of new knowledge (laboratory);
3. testing new and previous knowledge (that is, testing their functionality in practice) and
4. inclusion of results, i.e., application of knowledge in real life.

The State of Social Sciences in Serbia

When it comes to trends or tendencies in science in the Republic of Serbia, judging by official documents (regulations, strategies) and declared goals, it could be said that they follow the described tendencies on a global level (knowledge society, science in the function of solving social problems, connecting science with other sectors). Thus, in the Law on Science and Research, it is stated at the very beginning that science and research are of high importance for overall development and that, together with higher education, they are the driver of economic and overall social development (Narodna skupština Republike Srbije [Narodna skupština], 2019, Art. 2). This Law establishes the adoption of the Strategy for Scientific and Technological Development to achieve long-term goals. Also, Article 28 prescribes the association of institutes into the Union of Institutes of Serbia for mutual connection and scientific-research cooperation (which, by the way, was founded in its current form in 1990 - <http://zis.ac.rs/index.php/sr/>).

The Law on the Science Fund is also very important for this topic, in which the first article states that its goal is to create conditions for the development of scientific research and development activities necessary for the progress of a *knowledge-based society* (Narodna skupština, 2018, Art. 1). The commitment to the practical application of knowledge is also reflected in Article 18 of this Law, which stipulates that the goal of each program of the Fund is to respond to the social developmental challenges of the Republic of Serbia, but also the global challenges of the development of society. Also, a good indicator of determination to connect science with other sectors is the fact that the structure of the Fund's programs consists of innovations, that is, cooperation programs with the economy including the mandatory and immediate application of research results (2018, Art. 20, para. 7).

In addition to the legal basis, certain activities were also carried out to concretize the realization of the set goals in practice (adoption of strategic documents). In 2021, a new strategy for the development of education and upbringing in the Republic of Serbia until 2030 was adopted, in which the importance of strengthening ties between the education sector and other sectors (responsible for social policy and employment, economy, culture, finance, etc.) is emphasized, as well as a vision of the development a

knowledge-based society and economy (Vlada Republike Srbije [Vlada RS], 2021, p. 18).

However, the most important strategic documents for this area are the Strategy for Scientific and Technological Development entitled "Research for Innovation" which was valid for the period 2016–2020 (Vlada RS, 2016), and the current (2022) Strategy for Scientific and Technological Development for the period 2020–2025, which is called "The Power of Knowledge" (Vlada RS, 2021).

In the earlier "Research for Development" strategy, key problems were identified (insufficient funding from the state budget, almost non-existent participation of the private sector, and little impact on society) but also potentials such as the above-average contribution of Serbian scientists to world science (MPNT, 2016, p. 3). Among the six specific goals is the strengthening of the connection between science, economy, and society to achieve innovation.

In the new "Power of Knowledge" strategy, the (un)realized goals from the previous strategic period were reviewed and new goals and directions of action were set. One of the special goals is to focus research attention on social challenges and priorities, but also to establish a mechanism for the nomination of social challenges as scientific research topics and the formation of expertise for state administration.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that in Serbia there is an encouraging formal institutional framework, that is, a legal basis for projects and activities that contribute to the networking of various scientific disciplines, then science with other sectors and greater practical application of scientific knowledge. Nevertheless, the existence of such a framework is only the first step towards achieving more significant results in reality. Much of this depends on many other factors, such as financial resources, organizational culture, and the habits and agility of the organizations and individuals that perform scientific research.

The projects realized so far, as well as those planned in the future, testify to the achievement of strategic goals. For example, in 2015, the first science and technology park in Serbia was built in Belgrade, with significant financial support from the Government of Serbia. Apart from it, parks were also built in Čačak, Niš and Novi Sad in the following years. The

determination to invest in scientific infrastructure is evidenced by the Government's decision in 2018 to invest around 65 million euros in infrastructure projects in science and technology parks (RTS, 2018). In addition, the Campus Bio4 project (for the field of biotechnology) was announced in 2022, and investments of around 190 million euros are planned (RTS, 2022). Finally, it is planned to invest 140 million euros in new faculties by 2026, including those in the field of social sciences and humanities (N1, 2022).

When comparing science in Serbia with science in Europe (more precisely, the EU) and the world, it is evident that science in Serbia is weaker in many parameters compared to science in the EU, while compared to the whole world, it is better in many parameters. First of all, when it comes to investments in science and development, the average investment at the EU level, in the last ten years, amounted to about 2% of GDP, while in Serbia that percentage is below 1% (Vlada RS, 2021. p. 33). The number of researchers in relation to 1,000 inhabitants in the EU-28 is slightly higher than 4, while in Serbia that number is 2 (with a slight increase in this number both at the level of the EU and Serbia) (2021. p. 39).

However, what is most indicative of the topic of this work is the fact that the largest number of researchers in the EU work in the economy, followed by higher education, and the least in the state sector. In Serbia, the largest number of researchers work in the higher education sector (about five times more than the number of researchers in the economy), followed by the state sector and the economy (Vlada RS, 2021, p. 40). To increase the more intensive connection between the economy and science, new programs and projects are launched, such as the Science and Economy Cooperation Program within the Innovation Fund (Fond za inovacionu delatnost, 2022), the Business Acceleration Program (SAIGE project, more: Ministarstvo prosvete, 2022), or the Green Program of Cooperation between Science and Industry (within Science Fund).

Based on the measurement of the success of science (number of scientific papers and citations), it is evident that compared to the EU-28, Serbia is significantly weaker, but also significantly better compared to the world. It is also encouraging that in the observed parameters there is a slight but constant progress (in the period 2008-2019) (Vlada RS, 2021, p. 21).

When it comes specifically to the social sciences, based on the mentioned sources, it is difficult to single out immediate positions that would only apply to them, since most of the provisions and solutions refer to science in general. However, considering the number of institutes and higher education institutions in the social science and humanities field, as well as the recent years' regular financing of projects in these fields, it can be said that they are adequately treated by public policymakers.

Namely, within the Science Fund, there were and are numerous programs where projects from the social sciences and humanities can apply. Within the framework of the PROMIS program (The Program for Excellent Projects of Young Researchers), a total of 9 million euros was allocated for project financing. In addition to them, there are also programs IDEAS and PRISMA. Through the IDEAS program, 30 million euros have been recently allocated for the implementation of 39 projects, 24 of which are in the field of social sciences and humanities, while the new PRISMA program (2022) provides 25 million euros of support for project activities. The IDENTITIES program should be especially highlighted because it is intended to finance research exclusively in social and humanistic fields. In 2022, 2 million euros are planned for project financing.

Finally, if we were to look at the status of social sciences in Serbia and compare it with the status of social sciences in Europe and the world, based on the arguments presented, it could be concluded that it is "halfway" between Europe (more precisely, the EU) and the world.

Conclusion

In this paper, the global trends in science in general, and especially when it comes to social sciences, are pointed out. Challenges, as well as new opportunities facing social sciences in the future, are also presented.

Then, possible instruments and practical scopes are presented when it comes to networking knowledge of social sciences in the function of development (scientific research park in the field of social sciences, and numerous social laboratories and innovative approaches).

As for (social and humanistic) science in Serbia, it is shown that there is a solid institutional framework and treatment of science (numerous scientific research institutions and available funds). When it comes to

principles and aspirations, the official scientific and educational policy is based on concepts that are currently in the world (knowledge society and economy). Practical activities are also evident through which strategic goals tend to be achieved with the support of projects from the mentioned funds.

However, despite many activities being implemented, the results of which will be discussed in the future, it is noticeable that many goals have not yet been achieved and that there is a lot of room for improvement. For example, in Serbia, there is still a small number of researchers working in the economy (in contrast to the EU). When it comes to science and technology parks in Serbia, it is evident that they are mainly a base for technical sciences, while the construction of a social science and research park in the foreseeable future, like the one in Cardiff, does not seem like a realistic option for now. In addition, innovative approaches and instruments in the field of social sciences, such as living laboratories, digital twin cities, the use of simulations in public decision-making, etc., have not yet taken root in Serbia. However, there is some advance in this direction, primarily when it comes to databases (e.g., Open Data Portal and Data Center Serbia for Social Sciences). Also, an indicator of the existence of problems in the system of scientific and educational policy in the social sciences field is data and analyses that speak of a large number of unemployed graduates of social sciences and the frequent inapplicability of their knowledge (Cvetković, 2018, p. 202).

Based on the conclusions so far, and to further achieve the strategic goals discussed in this article, recommendations for future courses of action can be identified. They are based on the premise that a solid institutional framework and adequate public policy is a prerequisite for innovation and new approaches in scientific research work. However, the condition and the main driving force lie in the people and the so-called social capital, which implies the networked society as well as relations of respect and trust between people (Roggers, 2003).

Consequently, some of the possible courses of action can be identified to achieve more effective results in the area of networking and the application of social science knowledge.

One of the directions of action could be aimed at a greater turnover of researchers, i.e., their temporary departures to work in other

organizations (outside their homes). There are various foreign experiences in which all researchers are rotated/changed between institutions such as universities, scientific institutes, technology parks, and research laboratories. In addition, this dynamic also applies to the positions and specific tasks that researchers perform. Such solutions would imply a different approach to employment policy in scientific and research institutions and more flexible employment contracts.

Another course of action could be based on the determination to support more projects that have as their main goal networking and increasing the practical contribution of knowledge. For example, as many as 24 projects in the field of social sciences have been financially supported within the mentioned program IDEAS, but none of them deals mainly with this issue.

Since the main source of innovations, connections, and new approaches is in the person himself, as many people as possible must understand and accept the innovations. Therefore, an informative campaign on these topics is important, and within that, organizations, as well as researchers and university teachers, should be supported to be members and participate in international associations that promote these values (e.g., the Triple Helix movement).

At the very end, although not the least important, the question of financing science and research remains open. Although some progress has been made in this field, the fact that Serbia invests barely 1% of its GDP in science and development, which is significantly less than the EU average, remains a warning. If the nominal value of money is taken into account, without a serious reform and improvement of the financing system, science in Serbia will have a hard time coping with the competition of science and researchers from more developed countries in Europe and the world.

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Umrežavanje znanja društvenih nauka u funkciji rešavanja praktičnih problema i razvoja društva

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Sažetak

Razvoj savremenih društava zasnovan je na novijim konceptima ekonomije i društva znanja što podrazumeva sektorsko i disciplinarno povezivanje i integraciju svih raspoloživih znanja jednog društva i njegovo stavljanje u funkciju ostvarenja društvenih ciljeva (razvoja). Svrha ovog rada je da se sagledaju dometi ovog koncepta u svetu i napravi poređenje sa stepenom primene znanja i integrisanosti nauke u Srbiji, sa fokusom na društvene nauke. Shodno tome, najpre je dat pregled opštih globalnih trendova ali i izazova u oblasti društvenih nauka, obrazovanju i primeni znanja. Nakon toga predstavljeni su primeri dobre prakse i jedna studija slučaja (Društveni tehnološki park u Velikoj Britaniji). Potom je analizirano stanje društvenih nauka (i njihove praktične primene) u Republici Srbiji. Uočeno je da postoji solidan institucionalni okvir za razvoj i umrežavanje znanja ali i da postoje i otvorena pitanja i problemi na kojima treba raditi u budućnosti. U završnom delu rada su za identifikovane izazove ponuđena potencijalna rešenja koja bi mogla doprineti ublažavanju uočenih problema i efektivnijem ostvarivanju postavljenih ciljeva.

Ključne reči: obrazovanje, umrežavanje, naučna integracija, društvene nauke, Triple Helix

Digital Public Policy and E-Governance as Factors of the Enhanced Socio-Economic Cohesion in the European Union

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Abstract

In this paper, I examine how public policies in the domain of digital transformation and e-government contributed to socio-economic cohesion in the European Union (EU) and its member states, taking into account DESI measurement indicators and benchmarks of e-Government in that period. from 2016 to 2021. By using data analysis and document content analysis methods, we learn that the process of digitization of the EU single market and public services of the governments of the member states has affected the economic productivity and resilience of the economies of the member states, which reduces economic differences and promotes social development. The conclusion is drawn from this that digital public policies and e-government have deeply influenced the processes of economic sector integration and thus improved the state of socio-economic cohesion in the European Union and its member states.

Keywords: digitalization, public policy, e-governance, DESI index, European Commission

Digital Public Policy and E-Governance as Factors of the Enhanced Socio-Economic Cohesion in the European Union

There is substantial evidence that advancements in information and communications technologies (ICT), digitalization and automation have contributed substantially to productivity growth in the past decades (Graetz and Michaels, 2018). However, this productivity growth has primarily occurred in the United States. Digitalization has progressed more slowly in Europe, and productivity growth has been weaker. Not only do Member States within the European Union (EU) differ in the pace, but there are also substantial differences in the use of digital technologies and digital tools between different industries and even between firms within the same industry. However, this slow progress also suggests that increased digitalization in Europe can bring about major productivity gains in the future. By implementing reforms to increase the ability of firms and employees to adopt the new technologies, the EU could create more jobs and achieve increased productivity growth. An expert report to the European Parliament put forward that a well-functioning digital single market could increase economic gains in the EU by EUR 177 billion annually (Marcus et al., 2019).

This paper will examine how the digital public policy and e-governments of the EU's Member States have had an impact on the enhancement of the socio-economic cohesion within the European Union. The author will use the data analysis and document analysis methods by reducing a large amount of empirical material, selecting what is significantly indicative with regards to the research question, and categorizing the empirical material. Namely, these methods are used in order to provide the empirical basis for the paper's main argument.

According to the founder of the World Economic Forum, Klaus Schwab (2017), who introduced the concept of the fourth industrial revolution, this technological phase will result in a substantial increase in productivity. This is enabled by various improvements in efficiency related to how firms produce goods and services, lower transportation and communication costs, new logistics solutions and the emergence of new global value chains that will not only make firms more efficient in terms of

production but will also lead to lower trading costs. These technological advancements will, in turn, lead to increased global economic growth, higher prosperity and higher incomes in the countries that can make use of the new technologies. But technological developments also entail challenges for employees when the demands in the labour market change regarding skills and knowledge, possibly leading to social tension and increasing differences in income between winners and losers. Therefore, "digitalization has brought fears of changes in domestic politics, but also in international relations" (Djurković, 2022, p. 28).

Various digital strategies are being developed at both the national and EU level. In many cases, these strategies are comprehensive and aim to ensure that technological developments are inclusive and promote growth. In 2010, the EU launched the Europe 2020 strategy aimed at lifting Europe by adopting targets related to employment, research and innovation, climate change, energy, education and poverty reduction. An important element was the programme Digital Agenda for Europe with the overall aim of creating a European digital single market by 2020 (European Commission, 2010). This includes broadband expansion for EU citizens, a common telecommunications market and increased digital participation. To ensure a fair, open and secure digital environment, the digital single market strategy is based on three pillars: offering better access for consumers and firms to digital goods and services in the EU, creating the right conditions for digital networks and services to develop and maximizing firms' growth potential in the digital economy. As part of the Europe 2020 strategy, the European Commission also compiles annual statistics on the level of digitalization in the EU compared to the set objectives.

Closely linked to the objectives in the digital agenda manifested in the Europe 2020 strategy are changes in the EU industrial policy, which now also highlights digitalization and new technologies. The new common industrial policy emphasizes digitalization and innovation as key for the future competitiveness of the EU. Furthermore, this policy is based on the international discussion regarding the fourth industrial revolution (Schwab, 2017). The focus on big data, Internet of things, robotics, 3D technologies and artificial intelligence seeks to improve Europe's digital competitive position. By means of an up-to-date and modern common industrial policy,

the objective is to strengthen the competitiveness of the EU and to improve the digital skills of its firms and workers to increase growth and productivity. So far, several studies have pointed to a lack of digital knowledge among large segments of EU citizens. For instance, a report by the European Parliament shows that in 2015, more than 20 per cent of EU citizens completely lacked digital skills, measured as access to the Internet (Kiss, 2017). This study also points out that these skills were very unevenly distributed, with over 30 per cent lacking digital skills in several countries in South-Eastern Europe, while this group was very small in Northern Europe.

However, there is a consensus in the literature that globalization has significantly affected the conditions for national policy-making. On the one hand, globalization created a range of problems that exceed the scope of national sovereignty and can therefore no longer be sufficiently resolved by the unilateral action of national governments (Golić, 2015, p. 25). Examples include the regulation of electronic commerce and the protection of intellectual property rights over digital information (Škorić, 2020, p. 4). On the other hand, the emergence of globally integrated markets puts pressure on national governments to redesign national regulations to avoid excessive regulatory burdens being imposed on domestic industries (Knill & Lehmkuhl 2002a; 2002b). In view of this constellation, national governments consider cooperation in order to establish international regimes and international organizations that would allow them to maintain their capacity to address problems that extend beyond the parameters of national sovereignty.

Digital Public Policy and E-Governance as the Drivers of the Socio-Economic Cohesion

In literature, definition of cohesion is not a simple concept and can be interpreted in different ways. For some authors, it means the territorial and social relations stability; for others, the process of convergence between regions and social groups, moreover, some scientists even narrow the concept till employment opportunities and preferred living standards (Hulse & Stone, 2007). We could say that cohesion policy's aim can be to equilibrate regional and social disparities within the transparent redistribution of GDP, employment, etc. EU Member States are characterized by the large disparity in development level – the EU old members' and the EU new members' social

and economic development varies significantly. Moreover, EU countries show convergence and divergence processes of economic and social cohesion at the same time (Rakauskiene & Kozlovskij, 2014).

The European Commission in its reports on economic, social and territorial cohesion from 2017 and 2022 indicated that the digital transition represents a new driver of European Union's growth, but that without appropriate policy action new economic, social and territorial disparities may appear (European Commission, 2017, 2022b). Namely, it is clearly pointed out that the digital transition should be fair and just, managed in an inclusive manner and developed in partnerships with regional and local governments. Therefore, the digital technologies have the potential to boost more inclusive and sustainable growth by spurring innovation, generating efficiencies and improving services. One of the main goals of the European Commission is to enhance the digital transformation of businesses by encouraging the take-up of three digital technologies: cloud computing services; use of big data; and artificial intelligence (AI). Furthermore, these reports confirm that digitalization may further fuel the research and innovation divide, at least between Member States. Given the increasing importance of the use of digital technologies for enterprises to remain competitive, this is a cause for concern from a cohesion perspective. Since technology take-up is an important driver of economic convergence, less developed Member States risk falling further behind rather than catching up more developed Member States, if their businesses do not innovate by adopting digitalization. Also, moderately developed Member States may see their capacity to compete diminished if they fail to do likewise, so risking falling into, or remaining in, a development trap (European Commission, 2017, 2022b).

Thus, when European Commission President Ursula von der Leyen assumed office, enhancing digital capabilities across the European Union immediately emerged as a top priority. In her first State of the European Union speech, President of the European Commission announced Europe's Digital Decade (European Commission, 2019). This call represents the peak of a period defined by an increasing focus on digital matters, especially in relation to artificial intelligence (AI) and digital markets, increased investment, and a more robust application of competition rules to digital platforms. The blueprint of this Digital Decade is the European Digital

Strategy, released in February 2020, resting upon four pillars: (1) Technology that works for people; (2) A fair and competitive digital economy; (3) An open, democratic and sustainable digital society and (4) Europe as a global digital player. The Digital Decade will be shaped by the way these themes will be translated into concrete action, backed up by roughly 20% of the whole EU budget and a significant share of the Recovery Fund, which similarly counts on digitalization as the way to increase the capacities of the single market. Specifically, Von der Leyen called for Europe to achieve "technological sovereignty in some critical technology areas". Furthermore, COVID-19 pandemic further reinforced the significance of digital policymaking for both national governments and European institutions, as individuals found themselves working remotely on platforms with questionable security (Burwell & Propp, 2020, p. 2).

In March 2021, the EU adopted the 2030 Digital Compass, which set the EU's digital ambitions for 2030. The Compass established a monitoring system and outlined key milestones and the means for achieving these ambitions. According to the Digital Compass, Europe will be digitally sovereign in an interconnected world by building and deploying technological capabilities to empower people and businesses to seize the potential of the digital transformation and enable them to build a healthier and greener society. The European way to a digitalized economy and society is about solidarity, prosperity, and sustainability, and is anchored in the empowerment of its citizens and businesses. By adhering to these principles, the EU aims to ensure the security and resilience of its digital ecosystem and supply chains. The Compass seeks to track the EU's pace of digital transformation, gaps in its strategic digital capacities, and the implementation of European digital standards.

Overall, the EU assists its Member States in developing standards and establishing institutional mechanisms for the effective implementation of digital policies. The ethical and legal frameworks of the EU create guarantees that safeguard fundamental rights, such as the right to privacy, and prohibit the use of machines that can cause damages in various aspects. The EU's risk-based approach promotes the use of secure applications and the protection of basic rules. Also, the EU is actively proposing initiatives to enhance international digital cooperation with its partners.

DESI Index and E-Government Benchmark as Indicators of the Enhanced Socio-Economic Cohesion

As the policy outputs, outcomes and impacts are three categories used in public policy analysis, the discussion of the role of policy instruments dates back to the work of Dahl and Lindblom (1953), which recognized that the capacity of modern societies to solve problems crucially depends on the policy instruments chosen. Similarly, Lascoumes and Le Galès (2007) argue that policy instruments are not purely technical, but that they tend to produce original and sometimes unexpected effects. In this regard, they stress three main effects of instrument choice. First, the instrument chosen creates inertial effects, resulting in a resistance to outside pressures such as conflicts of interest between the actors involved in the policy-making process. Second, the instrument chosen produces a specific representation of the issue it is handling. Third, the instrument leads to a particular problematization of the issue.

Having this in mind, the indicators used by the European Commission to track how the EU and its Member States are developing digitally (the Digital Economy and Society Index, or DESI Index) through their digital policy domains show that all Member States have gradually improved their market capacities and outputs in terms of productivity (European Commission, 2022a). The majority of DESI indicators come from Eurostat, the statistical office of the European Union. The DESI indicators cover four main key areas – Human capital, Connectivity, Integration of digital technology and Digital public services. The Human capital dimension assesses both internet user skills of citizens and advanced skills of specialists. Under Connectivity, both fixed and mobile broadband are analyzed with indicators measuring the supply and the demand side as well as retail prices. Also, the Integration of digital technology dimension is made up of three sub-dimensions: digital intensity, take-up of selected technologies by enterprises and e-commerce. At the end, the Digital public services dimension describes the demand and supply of e-government as well as open data policies.

As previously mentioned, the Member States have been advancing in their digitalization efforts, but still struggle to close the gaps in digital

skills of citizens, the digital transformation of small and medium enterprises, and the roll-out of advanced 5G networks. However, major differences emerge between the Member States where the digital skills of their residents are concerned. In Estonia, the Netherlands and the Nordic countries, digital skills are among the best in the world. In Southern and Eastern Europe, by contrast, the situation is different. In Bulgaria, Portugal and Romania, more than 20 per cent of the workforce has no digital skills at all. These figures must be seen as alarmingly high, for participation in the labour markets of tomorrow will require a great deal in the way of digital skills.

As is shown in Table 1, the most significant progress in the period between 2016 and 2021 is recorded in Ireland and Denmark, followed by the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and Finland. These countries also perform well above the EU's DESI average, based on their scores in DESI 2021. Overall, Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the Netherlands have the most advanced digital economies in the EU, followed by Ireland, Malta and Estonia. However, Romania, Bulgaria and Greece have the lowest DESI scores. On the other hand, the digitalization and automation process has been quite extensive in some Northern European countries. Namely, Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden have the highest ratings. Given Sweden's prominent position in the field of ICT, it is interesting to note that this has also covaried with strong productivity growth in the Swedish economy up until the global financial crisis. This implies that the EU may indeed benefit from the lessons learned in terms of how Sweden has managed the increasing digitalization.

When we look at the main findings of DESI 2021 in Table 2, as part of the commitments put forward in the EU's 2030 Digital Compass, the digital skills target aims for at least 80% of EU citizens to have basic digital skills by 2030. We can state that the large part of the EU population lacks digital skills, but there are country-specific differences: the Netherlands and Finland are the frontrunners in this area, while Bulgaria and Romania are lagging behind. Moreover, a rate of 56% of the population having digital skills is only a slight increase (two percentage points) since 2015, representing a yearly growth rate of only 0.9%. This growth rate needs to increase threefold to reach the 2030 target of 80% (European Commission, 2021a).

The EU's 2030 Digital Compass also sets the target that gigabit networks should be available and deployed by the year 2030. According to the

data from 2020, only 59% of households can benefit from fixed very high capacity network (VHCN) connectivity with the potential of offering gigabit connectivity. Rural VHCN also improved – from 22% in 2019 to 28% in 2020 – but a large gap between rural and national figures remains. Malta, Luxembourg, Denmark and Spain are the European leaders on total VHCN coverage (all with more than 90% of homes covered). By contrast, in Greece, less than one in five households have access to VHCN (European Commission, 2021a).

The DESI 2021 demonstrates that, while businesses are becoming more and more digitalized, the use of advanced digital technologies remains low; for example, only one in four companies use AI or cloud computing and 14% use big data. In this area, Finland and Sweden lead on the use of cloud, Malta and the Netherlands on big data, and Czechia and Austria on AI. Also, the DESI monitors the online provision of public services by giving each Member State a score on whether or not it is possible to complete each step of key services completely online. Estonia, Denmark, Finland and Malta have the highest scores for digital public services in DESI, while Romania and Greece have the lowest.

When we refer to the e-government benchmark, which compares how governments of the Member States deliver digital public services based on specific indicators, there is an upward tendency in making sizeable investments of Member States to further digitalize their public administrations. These indicators are clustered within four main top-level benchmarks: 1. User Centricity – indicates the extent to which a service is provided online, its mobile friendliness, and usability in terms of available online support and feedback mechanisms. 2. Transparency – indicates the extent to which governments are transparent about the process of delivery; the responsibilities and performance of public organizations; the personal data processed in public services; 3. Cross-Border Mobility – indicates the extent to which users of public services from another European country can use the online services; 4. Key Enablers – indicates the extent to which technical and organizational pre-conditions for e-government service provision are in place, such as electronic identification and authentic sources (European Commission, 2021b).

As published in the European Commission's report titled eGovernment Benchmark 2021 – Entering a New Digital Government Era,

the maturity of e-government is determined by averaging the score of the four key dimensions - User Centricity, Transparency, Key Enablers and Cross-Border Services. As is shown in the report, Malta is Europe's top performer in e-government with a score of 96%, followed by Estonia at 92%. Following these countries is a cluster of ten other Member States that all score between 85% and 81%, including Denmark, Finland, Luxembourg, Austria, Iceland, Portugal, the Netherlands, Latvia, Norway and Lithuania (European Commission, 2021b).

However, the level of citizens' use of e-government services in the EU is influenced by the quality of the national offer of such services, the levels of citizens' trust in governments, the digital divide generated by populations' per capita income and citizens' level of education (Pérez-Morote et al., 2020). In 2020, 64% of Internet users interacted with public administration online, compared to 58% in 2015. The online availability of public services has grown steadily over the last decade and accelerated greatly as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, during which digital interaction became prevalent. Moreover, building trust in the online environment is key to economic and social development. Lack of trust, in particular because of a perceived lack of legal certainty, makes consumers, businesses and public authorities hesitate to carry out transactions electronically and to adopt new services. Therefore, the Regulation (EU) No. 910/2014 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 July 2014 on electronic identification and trust services for electronic transactions in the internal market and repealing Directive 1999/93/EC (eIDAS Regulation) has the primarily aim to enhance trust in electronic transactions in the internal market by providing a common foundation for secure electronic interaction between citizens, businesses and public authorities, thereby increasing the effectiveness of public and private online services, electronic business and electronic commerce in the Union. However, the eIDAS Regulation has only partially fulfilled the objectives set out in 2014. There remain significant shortcomings, stemming notably from the structure of the act, its limited implementation, and the changing technical environment, together with evolving user expectations.

Conclusion

At the regional level, the European Union has demonstrated a human-centered and risk-based approaches in the process of defining and implementing digital public policies, whilst giving impetus for the digitally driven transformation of the national public administration of its Member States. By encouraging the acquisition of digital skills by the general population and by enhancing the productivity of the single market by introducing the new digital technologies, the EU has stepped up the level of economic and social cohesion on the territory of its Member States. Also, by creating a strong legal basis for the protection of data and generating standards that safeguard the right to privacy, the EU created a sound regulatory environment for the process of the digital transformation of its single market and public services that it provides.

Since the increased process of digitalization can lead to higher prosperity in the EU by the means of better matches in the labour market, increased productivity in the labour force, but also as a result of higher labour force participation, this paper examined the very process of the digitalization and the increase of productivity which has been incentivized by the digital public policies and e-governance. The overall picture from our analysis is that the digitalization and automation of the economy have accelerated over the period between 2016 and 2021. However, this processual development takes place with the parallel existence of large differences between EU countries in terms of how far digitization has progressed. In general, Europe and individual European countries underutilize digital opportunities. Achieving the objective of a functioning internal digital market by 2020 seems far from realized, as only 15 per cent of European consumers buy goods online from another EU country. The digital economy, as measured as a share of the gross domestic product (GDP), accounts for 5 per cent in the EU, while the corresponding figure in the United States is 8 per cent.

The digitalization-driven structural transformation of the single market economy promoted by the supranational institution, such as the European Commission, and organized economic interests, such as private companies, made progress differently in the different EU countries and has

also differed in terms of efficiency. Empirically, efficient institutions, regulatory frameworks and well-functioning competition then appear to be key factors for achieving an efficient and inclusive digitalization-driven structural transformation.

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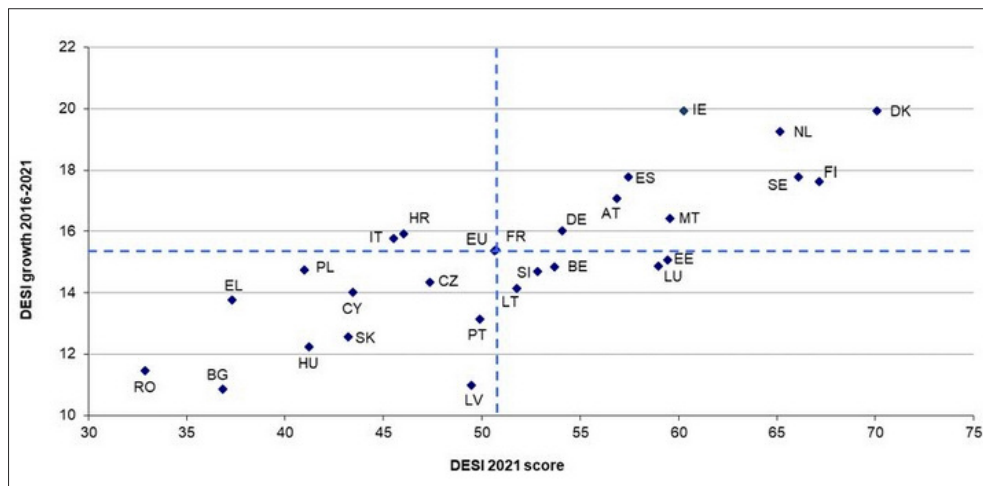
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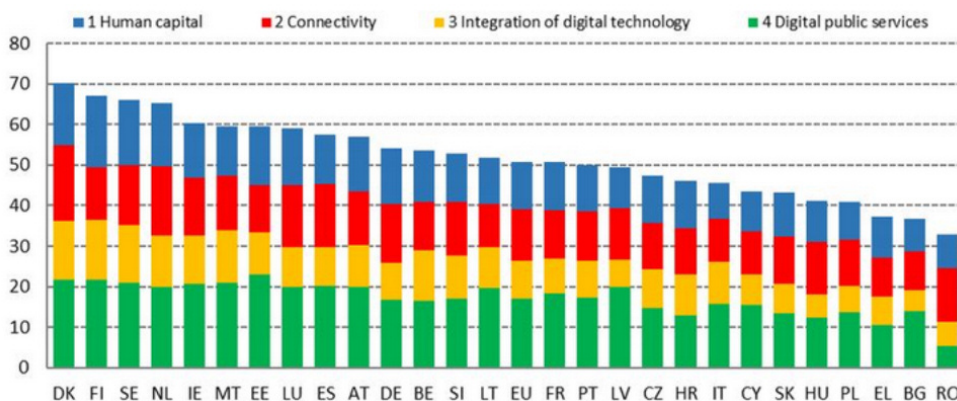
Appendix

Table 1.
Digital Economy and Society Index – Member States’ progress, 2016-2021



Note. Source: DESI 2021, European Commission.

Table 2.
Digital Economy and Society Index, 2021



Note. Source: DESI 2021, European Commission.

Javna politika u oblasti digitalizacije i e-uprava kao faktori poboljšane socio-ekonomske kohezije u Evropskoj uniji

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Sažetak

U radu ispitujem kako su javne politike u domenu digitalne transformacije i e-uprave doprinele socio-ekonomskoj koheziji u Evropskoj uniji (EU) i njenim državama članicama, uzimajući u obzir DESI indikatore merenja i merila e-Uprave u periodu od 2016. do 2021. godine. Korišćenjem metoda analize podataka i analize sadržaja dokumenata saznajemo da proces digitalizacije jedinstvenog tržišta EU i usluga javne uprave država članica utiču na ekonomsku produktivnost i otpornost privrednih kapaciteta država članica, čime se smanjuju ekonomske razlike i podstiče društveni razvoj. Zaključak je da su digitalne javne politike i e-uprava duboko uticale na procese integracije ekonomskog sektora i na taj način poboljšale stanje socio-ekonomske kohezije u Evropskoj uniji i njenim državama članicama.

Ključne reči: digitalizacija, javne politike, e-uprava, DESI indeks, Evropska komisija

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APA Style uses two types of capitalization for titles of works (such as paper titles) and headings within works: title case and sentence case.

In title case, major words are capitalized, and most minor words are lowercase. In sentence case, most major and minor words are lowercase (proper nouns are an exception in that they are always capitalized).

Major words: nouns, verbs (including linking verbs), adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, and all words of four letters or more are considered major words. Minor words: short (i.e., three letters or fewer) conjunctions, short prepositions, and all articles are considered minor words.

In title case, capitalize the following words in a title or heading:

- the first word of the title or heading, even if it is a minor word such as “The” or “A”
- the first word of a subtitle the first word after a colon, em dash, or end punctuation in a heading major words, including the second part of hyphenated major
- words (e.g., “Self-Report,” not “Self-report”) words of four letters or more (e.g., “With,” “Between,” “From”)

Lowercase only minor words that are three letters or fewer in a title or heading (except the first word in a title or subtitle or the first word after a colon, em dash, or end punctuation in a heading):

- short conjunctions (e.g., “and,” “as,” “but,” “for,” “if,” “nor,” “or,” “so,” “yet”)
- articles (“a,” “an,” “the”)
- short prepositions (e.g., “as,” “at,” “by,” “for,” “in,” “of,” “off,” “on,” “per,” “to,” “up,” “via”)

Use title case for the following:

- titles of articles, books, reports, and other works appearing in text

In the book *Train Your Mind for Peak Performance: A Science-Based Approach for Achieving Your Goals*

In the article “Turning Frowns (and Smiles) Upside Down: A Multilevel Examination of Surface Acting Positive and Negative Emotions on Well-Being”

- titles of tests or measures, including subscales

Beck Depression Inventory–II

- all headings within a work (Levels 1–5; these are also bold or bold italic)
- the title of your own paper and of named sections and subsections within it

the Results section

- titles of periodicals (these are also italicized)

Journal of Latinx Psychology

Chicago Tribune

- table titles (these are also italicized)
- figure titles (these are also italicized), axis labels, and legends

Abstract

An abstract is a short informative presentation of the content of an article that allows the reader to quickly and accurately assess its relevance. It is in the interest of journals and authors that abstracts contain terms that are often used to index and search articles. Elements of the abstract are the aim of the research, methods, results and a brief conclusion. The abstract may also contain other elements - national, regional, cultural context, the social background of research, national significance of the research, etc.

Keywords

Keywords are terms or phrases that thematically, theoretically, methodologically, disciplinary, subdisciplinary and in other relevant ways refer to the content of the article for indexing and searching. In principle, they should be assigned based on an international source (list, dictionary or thesaurus) that is most widely accepted either within the given scientific field

(e.g. in the field of medicine, Medical Subject Headings) or in science in general (e.g. Web of Science list of keywords). In identity sciences, keywords also reflect the need to preserve the cultural, scientific and technological heritage of the Republic of Serbia. Keywords are given immediately after the abstract and in the language of the abstract. For papers to be more searchable it is recommended that keywords not be the words used in the title, unless it is a word that does not have an adequate synonymous replacement and is very important for search.

Text of the paper

The text of the paper should be in Word document format, as follows:

- font: Verdana;
- page size: 6.69" x 9.45" (17 x 24 cm);
- margins: Top 0.98" (25 mm); Bottom 0,79" (20 mm); Left 0,79" (20 mm); 0,79" Right (20 mm);
- to write the text use font-style normal font (upright), unless otherwise stated;
- line spacing in the text: 1.15 pt;
- line spacing in footnotes: 1 pt;
- font size of the title: 12 pt bold;
- font-size of subtitles: 11 pt bold;
- font-size of body text: 10.5 pt;
- font-size of footnotes: 9.5 pt;
- font size for tables, graphs and figures: 10 pt;
- indentation of the first line of the paragraph: 0.5 (12.7 mm) (option: Paragraph /Special /First line);
- text alignment: Justify;
- text colour: Automatic;
- page numbering: no numbering;
- do not break words by entering hyphens in the next line (Paragraph /Line and Pages /don't hyphenate);
- save the paper in Word 97-2003 Document format (*.doc).

A scientific article can have a maximum of 30,000 characters with spaces, including the list of references, written and formatted according to the

general guidelines for word processing found at the end of this guide, in the section "Text formatting". On occasion, a monograph study may be larger, but not less than 40 pages per author. Book reviews can contain text of up to 1,500 words.

Thank-you note

The name and number of the project financed from the budget, i.e. the name of the program within which the article was written, as well as the name of the scientific research organization and the ministry that financed the project or program, are stated in a special note after the conclusion, before the list of references.

Previous versions of the paper

If the article was presented at a conference in the form of an oral statement in a previous version (under the same or similar title), that piece of information should be stated in a special note at the bottom of the first page of the article. A paper that has already been published in a journal or a collection of papers cannot be published in another journal under a similar title nor in an amended form, in terms of evaluating scientific research results.

Submitting papers

The journal is published three times a year. Deadlines for submitting papers are February 15th, May 15th and September 15th.

The authors are obliged to submit a signed and scanned author's statement when submitting their paper, stating that the paper (wholly or in part) has not been previously published, i.e. that it is not auto-plagiarism or plagiarism.

The statement form can be downloaded from the journal's website:

<https://kpolisa.com/Authorship-statement-the-Culture-of-Polis.pdf>

Submit papers by uploading them on the electronic platform of the journal – click on the Make a Submission button, on the right side of the cover page

of the journal, or find the same option in the drop-down menu (About us – Submissions).

Citation rules

The journal Kultura polisa uses the APA citation style, 7th edition, which includes citing bibliographic parentheses according to the author-date system in the text, as well as a list of references with bibliographic data after the text of the paper.

Direct quotations (verbatim – word for word) must be shown in quotation marks (note the quotation marks for the English language: ALT 147/ALT148). When quoting a text that is not in the original language of the work in which it is cited, no quotation marks are used, because there is no direct match of the words in the search engine, but the source of the citation must be indicated, as in all other cases. If a direct citation is longer than 40 words, no quotation marks are used – such a citation must be in a text block, which is indented by 0.5 inches, with the source cited before the block or at the end of the block, before the last punctuation mark. The spacing in the block is 1.5. Example:

self-regulating consensus rules governing the platform, and finally a personalized article selection mechanism for users – personalized journalism.

In the case when there were a small number of publishing houses on the journalistic market, they behaved monopolistically.

The press had authority over setting agendas, and readers had no choice but to receive the news that the press decided was important to them. At that time, the press called readers ‘the masses’ and treated them as one mass (Figure 1). A mass by definition is not able to choose the news according to personal wishes (Kim & Yongik, 2018).

When they took positions, it was very difficult for the competition to enter the market, so they...

The list of references (References) begins on a new page after the text of the Conclusion. Reference sources are arranged without numbering, in alphabetical order by the first letter of the last name of the first author for each source. In the settings under the "Paragraph" tab, set the hanging indent to the value 0.5", i.e. 12.7 mm, and this value is also the basic setting of Microsoft Word. Set the spacing for the list of references as follows: Before 0, After 8.

The image shows the "Paragraph" dialog box in Microsoft Word, with the "Indents and Spacing" tab selected. The "General" section shows "Alignment" set to "Left" and "Outline level" set to "Body Text". The "Indentation" section shows "Left" and "Right" indents set to "0 mm", and "Special" set to "Hanging" with a "By" value of "12.7 mm". The "Spacing" section shows "Before" spacing set to "0 pt" and "After" spacing set to "8 pt", with "Line spacing" set to "Multiple" and "At" set to "1.15". A preview window at the bottom shows a list of references with hanging indents. The "OK" button is highlighted with a red box.

Paragraph ? X

Indents and Spacing | Line and Page Breaks

General

Alignment: Left

Outline level: Body Text Collapsed by default

Indentation

Left: 0 mm Right: 0 mm Special: Hanging By: 12.7 mm

Mirror indents

Spacing

Before: 0 pt After: 8 pt Line spacing: Multiple At: 1.15

Don't add space between paragraphs of the same style

Preview

Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph
Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph Previous Paragraph
A Union of Equality: Gender Equality Strategy 2020-2025, Communication from the Commission to the
European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the
Committee of the Regions, COM(2020) 152 final, Brussels, 5.3.2020.
Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph
Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph Following Paragraph

Tab... Set As Default OK Cancel

Unlike the rules for writing titles and subtitles in the article itself, the titles of sources in the list of references are written according to the rules for Sentence case, i.e. by starting the sentence with a capital letter and all other words in the sentence with a lowercase letter, except in the case of proper names. This rule applies in the reference list regardless of how the title of the cited work is written in its original form. This rule does not apply to journal titles.

Examples:

Lee, B., Rumrill, P., & Tansey, T. N. (2022). Examining the role of resilience and hope in grit in multiple sclerosis. *Frontiers in Neurology*, 13, Article 875133. CC BY.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2022.875133>

Smith, H. (2019). Monetizing movement. In M. Graham, R. Kitchin, S. Mattern & J. Shaw (Eds.), *How to run a city like Amazon, and other fables* (pp. 570–605). Meatspace Press.

https://issuu.com/meatspacepress/docs/how_to_run_a_city_like_amazon_and_other_fables

If non-Latin alphabet material is cited in the English text, references should be transcribed into the Latin alphabet. In APA style, the list of references must be displayed in alphabetical order, which would not be possible if the references were in another alphabet. When citing sources written in another language, the title of the source (article/book/book chapter, etc.) in the list of references should be translated into English in square brackets immediately after the original title, without using italics in square brackets. The title of a journal or an edited book (collection), as well as the name of the publisher, must also be written in the Latin alphabet, but not translated. If there is an official English translation, it can be used, especially in cases where it provides a better understanding of the topic or publication.

Below are the rules and examples for inputting bibliographical data in the list of references and in the text. For each type of reference, the citation rule is given first, followed by an example of a citation in the list of references and bibliographic parenthesis.

Bibliographic parentheses are usually put at the end of the sentence, before the punctuation mark, and contain the author's surname, year of publication and the corresponding page number(s), according to the following example: (Bjelajac, 2017, pp. 15–17).

Monograph (Book)

Single author

Surname, initial (s) of the name(s) (if the author uses a middle name, first write the initial of the personal name, space, then the initial of the middle name). Year of publication in parentheses. *Title*. Publisher (without stating the seat of the publisher, unless the seat is an integral part of the name of the publisher, such as the University of Belgrade).

Bjelajac, Ž. (2017). *Bezbednosna kultura – umeće življenja* [Security culture – the art of living]. Univerzitet Privredna akademija u Novom Sadu: Pravni fakultet za privredu i pravosuđe u Novom Sadu.

(Bjelajac, 2017, p. 25)

Fukuyama, F. (1992). *The end of history and the last man*. Free Press.

(Fukuyama, 1992, p. 65)

Two authors

Author Surname, Initial(s)., & Author Surname, Initial(s). (Year). *Title*. Publisher.

Despotović, Lj., & Jevtović, Z. (2010). *Geopolitika i mediji* [Geopolitics and media]. Grafomarketing.

(Despotović & Jevtović, 2010, pp. 34–36)

Krastev, I., & Holmes, S. (2019). *The light that failed*. Allen Lane.

(Krastev & Holmes, 2019, pp. 23–24)

Three or more authors

Author Surname, Initial(s)., Author Surname, Initial(s)., & Author Surname, Initial(s). (Year). *Title*. Publisher.

Milislavljević, B., Varinac, S., Litričin, A., Jovanović, A., & Blagojević, B. (2017). *Komentar Zakona o javno-privatnom partnerstvu i koncesijama: prema stanju zakonodavstva od 7. januara 2017. godine* [Commentary on the Law on public-private partnerships and concessions: According to the state of legislation from January 7, 2017]. Službeni glasnik & Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu.

(Milislavljević et al., 2017, p. 37)

Editor / compiler / translator instead of author

If there is an editor instead of an author, insert the editor's name in the place of the author's, followed by (Ed.) or (Eds.) for more than one editor.

Kaltwasser, C. R., Taggart, P., Ochoa Espejo, P., & Ostigoy, P. (Eds.). (2017). *The Oxford handbook of populism*. Oxford University Press.

(Kaltwasser et al., 2017)

Same bibliographic parenthesis, multiple references

Different authors – References separated by semicolons.

(Stepić, 2015, p. 61; Knežević, 2014, p. 158)

Same author, different years – State the author's surname, and then the years of publication of different references in the order from earliest to most recent and separate them with a comma, i.e. a semicolon when stating the number of pages.

(Stepić 2012, 2015) or (Stepić 2012, p. 30; 2015, p. 69)

Different authors, same last name – Some authors have the same last name, if this happens the initials (s) of the author should be added in all citations, even if the year of publication is different.

(Subotić, D., 2010, p. 97), (Subotić, M., 2010, p. 302)

(Williams, A., 2009), (Williams, J., 2010)

Book / Proceedings – Chapter

Author of chapter Surname, Initial(s). (Year). Title of chapter. In Editor of book Initial(s). Editor of book Surname (Ed(s).), Title of book (Edition if not first., Page numbers). Publisher.

Stepić, M. (2015). Pozicija Srbije pred početak Velikog rata sa stanovništva Prvog i Drugog zakona geopolitike. In M. Stepić & Lj. P. Ristić (Eds.), *Srbija i geopolitičke prilike u Evropi 1914. godine* (pp. 55–78). Gradska biblioteka u Lajkovcu & Institut za političke studije u Beogradu.

(Stepić, 2015, p. 61)

Lošonc, A. (Ed.). (2019). Discursive dependence of politics with the confrontation between republicanism and neoliberalism. In D. M. Vukasović & P. Matić (Eds.), *Discourse and politics* (pp. 23–46). Institute for Political Studies in Belgrade.

(Lošonc, 2019, p. 31)

Journal Article

Regular Edition

Author of chapter Surname, Initial(s). (Year). *Title of journal/periodical*, Volume(Number), page range. DOI (if available)

Gaćinović, R. (2020). Sistem kao izraz uređenosti određene delatnosti u društvu [The system as an expression of the orderliness of certain activity in society]. *Kultura polisa*, 17(41), 247–258.

(Gaćinović, 2020, p. 253)

Bjelajac, Ž. Đ., Dašić, D., & Spasović, M. (2011). EU environmental policy and its criminal law framework. *Medjunarodni problemi*, 63(4), 567–582. <https://doi.org/10.2298/MEDJP1104567B>

(Bjelajac et al., 2011, p. 571)

Special Issue or Special Section in a Journal

Editor Surname, Initial(s)., Editor surname, Initial(s)., & Editor Surname, Initial(s). (Eds.). (Year). Title of the special issue [Special issue]. Journal title, volume(issue). DOI broj (if available)

Bjelajac, Ž. Đ., & Filipović, A. M. (Eds.). (2020). Pedofilija – Uzroci i posledice [Pedophilia – Causes and consequences] [Special Issue]. *Kultura polisa*, 17(1).

(Bjelajac & Filipović, 2020).

Campbell, K., Lustig, C., & Hasher, L. (Eds.). (2020). Aging and inhibition: The view ahead [Special issue]. *Psychology and Aging*, 35(5).

(Campbell et al., 2020)

If you are citing an article within a special section or issue (rather than the entire issue or section), use the format for a journal article. You do not need to include the title of the special section or issue.

Delibašić, V. (2020). Krivičnopravna zaštita dece od seksualnih zloupotreba [Criminal protection of children from sexual abuse]. *Kultura polisa*, 17(1), 53–67.

(Delibašić, 2020, p. 58)

Blog

Author Surname, Initial(s). (Date in full). Title of the blog post. *Name of the blog*. URL

Lee, C. (2010, November 18). How to cite something you found on a website in APA style. *APA Style Blog*.

<http://blog.apastyle.org/apastyle/2010/11/how-to-cite-something-you-found-on-a-website-in-apa-style.html>

(Lee, 2010)

The author of the blog may use a screen name, if this is the case then use the screen name in place of the author.

If the author is not indicated on the blog, the name of the blog is used, as well as when quoting a reference with a corporate author.

JCU Library News. (2019, May 28). Reading challenge reviews: Football heroes and tragics. *JCU Library News*.

<https://jculibrarynews.blogspot.com/2019/05/reading-challenge-reviews-football.html>

(JCU Library News, 2019)

Encyclopedias and dictionaries

Unknown Author

Surname, Initial(s). (Ed(s).). (Year of Publication). *Title of encyclopedia / dictionary*. Volume (if there is more than one). Publisher Name. URL (if available)

Manning, M. J., & Wyatt, C. R. (Eds.). (2011). *Encyclopedia of media and propaganda in wartime America*. ABC-CLIO.

(Maning & Wyatt, 2011)

Title of entry. (Year of Publication). In Editor's initial(s). Last Name. (Ed(s).). *Name of encyclopedia or dictionary* (edition if given and not the first edition). Publisher Name. URL

Nirvana. (2001). In S. Sadie (Ed.). *The new Grove dictionary of music and musicians* (2nd ed., Vol. 17). Macmillan Publishers.

(Sadie, 2001)

Known Author(s)

Author's Last name, First Initial. Second Initial if Given. (Year of Publication). Title of entry. In Editor's First Initial. Second Initial if given. Last Name (Ed.), *Name of encyclopedia or dictionary* (edition if given and is not first edition., p. or pp. page number or numbers). Publisher name. DOI or URL if given

Bowman, S., & Johnson, S. (2007). Age stratification and the elderly. In K. Christensen & D. Levinson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of community: From the village to the virtual world*. SAGE Publications.

<https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412952583.n7> (Original work published 2003)
(Bowman & Johnson, 2003/2007)

Corporate of Group Author

Name of Institution or Group. (Year of Publication, or n.d. if unknown). *Name of encyclopedia or dictionary* (edition if given and is not the first edition) prvo). Publisher Name. DOI of URL if available.

Oxford University Press. (n.d.). Zombie. In *Oxford English dictionary*. Oxford University Press. Retrieved January 4, 2020, from

<https://oed.com/view/Entry/232982>

(Oxford University Press, n.d.)

Doctoral Dissertation

Surname, Initial(s). (Year of Publication). *Title of dissertation: subtitle*. [Description, Name of University: Faculty (if necessary)]. Name of archive or website. URL

Filipović, A. (2016). *Paradigma kulturološkog pozicioniranja video igre* [The paradigm of cultural positioning of video games]. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Univerzitet umetnosti: Fakultet dramskih umetnosti].

(Filipović 2019, 145–147)

Axford J.C. (2007). *What constitutes success in Pacific Island community conserved areas?* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Queensland]. UQ eSpace. <http://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:158747>

(Axford, 2007)

Newspaper or Magazine Article

Known Author(s)

Author Surname, Initial(s). (Full date of publication). Title of Article. *Title of newspaper or magazine*, page numbers. (for printed edition). URL (for online edition)

Avakumović, M. (2019, December 8). Platni razredi – 2021. godine [Salary classes – 2021]. *Politika*.

<https://www.politika.rs/sr/clanak/443548/Ekonomija/Platni-razredi-2021-godine>

(Avakumović, 2019)

Unknown Author(s)

Title of article: subtitle, if it is given. (Full date). *Title of newspaper or magazine*, page numbers (for printed edition). URL (for online edition)

Get on board for train safety. (2012, June 17). *Toronto Star*, A14.

In text – (“one two or three words from the title”, year, page numbers)

(“Get on board”, 2012, p. A14)

Corporate as Author

Name of Institution [acronym, if necessary]. (Year of Publication). *Title* (edition, if it is not the first). Name of Publisher (not if the same organization is the author and the publisher).

Ministarstvo za evropske integracije Republike Srbije [Ministry of European Integration of the Republic of Serbia [MEI]]. (2018). *Vodič za korišćenje EU fondova u Srbiji; IPA II (2014–2020. god)* [Guide to the use of EU funds in Serbia; IPA II (2014–2020)].

First citing

(Ministarstvo za evropske integracije Republike Srbije [MEI], 2018)

Next citings

(MEI, 2018)

National Fire Protection Association. (2009). *Fundamentals of fire fighting skills* (2nd ed.). Jones and Bartlett.

First citing

(National Fire Protection Association [NFPA], 2009)

Next citings

(NFPA, 2009)

Pravni akti

Ustav i zakoni, odluke državnih organa i institucija

Author [Abbreviated form as needed]. (Year of adoption). *Name of the act*. (Name of the official gazette and number with numbers of amendments). Publisher (if the author and the publisher are the same, then this is omitted). URL

Narodna skupština Republike Srbije [Narodna skupština]. (2006). *Ustav Republike Srbije* [Constitution of the Republic of Serbia]. (Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije, br. 98/06).

https://www.srbija.gov.rs/view_file.php?file_id=2391 &cache = sr

First citing

(Narodna skupština Republike Srbije, 2006, Art. 33)

Next citings

(Narodna skupština, 2006, Art. 25)

Narodna skupština Republike Srbije. (2019). *Zakon o osnovama sistema obrazovanja i vaspitanja* [Law on the Fundamentals of the Education System].

(Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije, br. 88/2017, 27/2018 – dr. zakon, 10/2019 i 27/2018 – dr. zakon). Paragraf.

https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/zakon_o_osnovama_sistema_obrazovanja_i_vaspitanja.html

(Narodna skupština republike Srbije, 2019, Art. 17, para. 4)

(Narodna skupština, 2019, Art. 23)

National Institute of Mental Health. (1990). *Clinical training in serious mental illness* (DHHS Publication No. ADM 90–1679). US Government.

(National Institute of Mental Health, 1990)

Zaštitnik građana Republike Srbije [Zaštitnik građana]. (2012, October 22). Mišljenje br. 15–3314/12 [Opinion No. 15–3314/12].

https://www.osobesainvaliditetom.rs/attachments/083_misljenje%20ZG%20DZ.pdf

(Zaštitnik građana Republike Srbije, 15–3314/12)

(Zaštitnik građana, 15–3314/12)

Legislative acts of the European Union

Legislation type and Number of Legislation. *Name of the act*. EU Body/Agency. Official Journal of the European Union. Series, Issue Number. URL.

Regulation (EU) No 182/2011. *Laying down the rules and general principles concerning mechanisms for control by Member states of the Commission's exercise of implementing powers*. The European Parliament & the Council of the European Union. Official Journal of the European Union, L 55. <http://data.europa.eu/eli/reg/2011/182/oj>

(Regulation 182/2011, Art. 3)

European Union Treaties and Founding Agreements

Name of the act [Acronym if necessary]. (Year). Official Journal of the European Union. Series, Issue Number. URL

Consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union [TEU]. (2012). Official Journal C 326, 26/10/2012 P. 0001 – 0390.

http://data.europa.eu/eli/treaty/teu_2012/oj.

(TEU, 2012, Art. 3)

International Treaties of the United Nations

Treaty Title [Acronym or abbreviated name]. (Date of signing or entering into force). Registration in the UN – UNTS number, registration number from the website *United Nations Treaty Collection*: <https://treaties.un.org>. URL

Marrakesh agreement establishing the World Trade Organization [Marrakesh Agreement]. (1994, April 15). UNTS 1867, I-31874.

<https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/UNTS/Volume%201867/volume-1867-A-31874-English.pdf>

(Marrakesh Agreement, 1994)

Court Practice

Court Practice in the Republic of Serbia

Legislation type and name of the court [acronym of the court], case number and date. Name and number of the official gazette or other publication in which the judgment was published – if applicable. URL

Odluka Ustavnog suda Republike Srbije [USRS] [Decision of the Constitutional court of the Republic of Serbia], IUa-2/2009 od 13. juna 2009. Službeni glasnik RS, br. 68/2012.

(Odluka USRS, IUa-2/2009)

Rešenje Apelacionog suda u Novom Sadu [ASNS] [Decision of the Court of appeals in Novi Sad], Ržr-1/16 od 27. aprila 2016. godine.

(Rešenje ASNS, Ržr–1/16)

The Case Law of the International Court of Justice

Types of decisions can be Order, Judgment, Jurisdiction Judgment, Merits Judgment, and

Advisory Opinion.

Name of the case (Parties, often abbreviated), type of hearing, type of decision (if applicable), I.C.J. Rep. Year of the reporter (volume, if applicable) (date of the decision), first page of the decision (if published), page and paragraph referenced (if applicable).

Legality of use of force (Yugoslavia v. United Kingdom), Provisional Measures Order, I.C.J. Rep. 1999 (June 2), p. 826.

(Yugoslavia v. United Kingdom, 1999)

Arrest warrant of 11 April 2000 (Democratic Republic of the Congo v. Belgium), Judgment, I.C.J. Rep. 2002 (I) (Feb. 14).

(Democratic Republic of the Congo v. Belgium, 2002)

Legality of the use by a state of nuclear weapons in armed conflict, advisory opinion, I.C.J. Rep. 1996 (July 8), p. 66.

(I.C.J. Rep. 1996)

Jurisprudence: European Court of Justice (ECJ) & Court of First Instance (EFI)

Cite cases introduced before January 1, 1989 by “Case”, case number [number/year of filing], name of the parties (italicized and separated by “v”), year of decision (in square brackets), title of the reporter (“ECR”), volume (if necessary), and page and paragraph referenced:

Case 120/88. *Commission v Italy* [1991]. ECR I-621.

(Case 120/88)

Cite cases introduced after January 1, 1989 by “Case”, followed by “T” (for the Court of First Instance) or “C” (for the European Court of Justice), case

number [number/year of filing], name of the parties (italicized and separated by “v”), year of decision (in square brackets), title of the reporter (“ECR”), volume, and page and paragraph referenced:

Case T-224/95. *Tremblay and Others v Commission* [1997]. ECR , II-2215.

(Case T-224/95)

Case C-242/95. *GT-Link* [1997]. ECR , I-4449, para. 36.

(Case C-242/95)

Jurisprudence: European Court of Human Rights (ECHR)

Cite cases decided on or after November 1, 1998, by *name of parties* (italicized and separated by “v”) [type of decision (note: a judgment on the merits has no designation), or, if decided by the Grand Chamber, [GC]], case number, section(s) referenced, date (optional), and abbreviated title of the reporter in which the case is published (ECHR), year, and volume:

Brumarescu v. Romania [GC], no. 28342/95, § § 52-53, ECHR 1999-VII.

(Brumarescu v. Romania, 1995/1999)

Messina v. Italy (dec.), no. 25498/94, ECHR 1999-V.

(Messina v. Italy, 1994/1999)

Smith and Grady v. the United Kingdom (just satisfaction), nos. 33985/96 and 33986/96, § 13, 25 July 2000, ECHR 2000-IX.

(Smith and Grady v. the United Kingdom, 1996/2000)

Akman v. Turkey (striking out), no. 37453/97, ECHR 2001-VI.

(Akman v. Turkey, 1997/2001)

Jurisprudence of other international courts and tribunals

Look at:

https://www.law.nyu.edu/sites/default/files/upload_documents/Final_GFILC_pdf.pdf

Video – Sharing Website (e.g. You Tube, Vimeo)

Video

Author surname, initial(s) [Screen name]. (Year, month day). *Title of video* [Video]. Source. URL

University of Sheffield Library [uniSheffieldLib]. (2019, January 30). *Information and digital literacy workshops* [Video]. YouTube. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Lm7bLmbKOk0>

(University of Sheffield Library, 2019)

Radiohead (2009, April 22). Radiohead – No surprises [Video]. YouTube. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u5CVsCnxyXg>

(Radiohead, 2009)

Video Channel

Author surname, initial(s) [Screen name]. (n.d.). Tab name [Source]. Retrieved date, from URL

University of Sheffield Library [uniSheffieldLib]. (n.d.). Home [YouTube channel]. Retrieved August 12, 2020, from <https://www.youtube.com/user/uniSheffieldLib>

(University of Sheffield Library, n.d.)

Veb-stranica (internet stranica)

Author Surname, Initials. or Name of organisation. (Date Year, Month day). *Title of webpage*. Site name (if not the same as the Name of organisation). URL

Binding, L. (2020, July 21). *River Thames has higher density of microplastics than other major European rivers*. Sky News. <https://news.sky.com/story/river-thames-has-higherdensity-of-microplastics-than-other-major-european-rivers-12033067>

(Binding, 2020)

World Health Organisation. (2018, May 18). *Assistive technology*.
<https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/assistive-technology>

(World Health Organisation, 2018)

(WHO, 2018)

Tables and Figures

Tables and figures are attached as an appendix at the end of the article, starting from a new page after the list of references. The title of a table/figure is written above it, and below the word Table/Figure with a number indicating the order in the text, with one space – spacing 1.15, space 6pt Before and After – alignment justify, without indenting the text, according to the following example:

Table 2

Title

Figure 1

Title

Below the table/figure, with one space – line spacing 1.15, space 6pt Before – a note is added. There are three types of notes - those describing the contents of a figure that cannot be understood from the figure title, an image and/or legend alone (e.g., definitions of abbreviations or explanations of asterisks used to indicate certain values), and those attributing copyright. Examples:

Note. The map does not include data for Puerto Rico. Adapted from 2017 poverty rate in the United States, by U.S. Census Bureau, 2017 (<https://www.census.gov/library/visualizations/2018/comm/acs-poverty-map.html>). In the public domain.

Note. Number of studies = 120, number of effects = 782, total N = 52,578. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Note. Lyamouri–Bajja et al. (2012, p. 57).

Tables and figures help authors present a large amount of information to readers in an easier and more understandable way. The tables show numerical values and/or textual information arranged in rows and columns. An image is an illustrative presentation of information using charts, diagrams, infographics, drawings, photographs, etc. In order for the tables and figures to help readers understand your work more easily, the data in them needs to be presented in a way that readers do not need to read the text to understand.

Use the tables feature of your word-processing program to create a table. Do not use the tab key or space bar to manually create the look of a table. The parameters being compared should not be displayed in the same column. Use the same font type in the tables as in the rest of the article. Do not use vertical borders to separate data. For the necessary clarity of the display, it is enough to use horizontal edges at the top and bottom of the table, below column headings, and if necessary, to separate a row containing totals or other summary information from other rows in the table. Use spacing between columns and rows and strict alignment to clarify relations among the elements in a table. If a table is longer than one page, use the tables feature of your word-processing program to make the headings row repeat on the second and any subsequent pages.

Make sure the axes shown are clearly visible and the images are sharp enough. The legend is entered inside the edges of the figure. Use graphics software to create figures in APA Style papers – the built-in graphics features of your word-processing program (e.g., Microsoft Word or Excel) or special programs such as Photoshop or Inkscape.

Special cases of citing references

Citing the second and each subsequent edition

Surname, Initial(s). (Year of publication). *Title*, edition note. Publisher.

Gaćinović, R. (2018). *Mlada Bosna*, drugo dopunjeno i izmenjeno izdanje [Young Bosnia, 2nd edition]. Evro Book.

Multiple references by the same author

1) *Same author, different years* – Sort by year of publication, starting from the earliest.

2) *Same author, same year* – Arrange in alphabetical order of the initial letter of the reference's name. In addition to the year of publication, put the initial letters of the alphabet, which are also used in bibliographic parentheses.

Gaćinović, R. (2018a). Vojna neutralnost i budućnost Srbije [Military neutrality and the future of Serbia]. *Politika nacionalne bezbednosti*, 14 (1), 23–38. <https://doi.org/10.22182/pnb.1412018.2>

Gaćinović, R. (2018b). *Mlada Bosna*, drugo dopunjeno i izmenjeno izdanje [Young Bosnia, 2nd edition]. Evro Book.

(Gaćinović, 2018a, p. 25), (Gaćinović 2018b)

3) *The same author as an independent author and as a co-author* – First list the references in which he is an independent author, and then those in which he is a co-author.

4) *The same author as the first co-author in several different references* – Arrange in alphabetical order the surname of the second co-author.

Pollitt, C., Birchall, J., & Putman, K. (1998). *Decentralising public service management*. Macmillan Press.

Pollitt, C., Talbot, C., Caulfield, J., & Smullen, A. (2005). *Agencies: How governments do things through semi-autonomous organizations*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Special cases of citing bibliographic parentheses

Exceptions to citing bibliographic parentheses at the end of a sentence

Citing the author's surname within the sentence – Put the year of publication in brackets after stating the surname, and the page number at the end of the sentence in brackets.

According to Bjelajac (2017), ... (30).

Citing the author's surname within the sentence before the citation from the reference – After citing the surname, state the year and page number in the bibliographic parenthesis, and then cite the citation.

As Bjelajac (2017, p. 45) states: " ... "

Fukuyama (1992, p. 57) explicitly states: " ... "

Citing the same reference several times in one paragraph – If the same page or range of pages is cited, enter the bibliographic parenthesis at the last citation or at the end of the paragraph before the punctuation mark. If different pages are cited, state the reference when quoting the specific page for the first time, and then, until the end of the paragraph, put out only different page numbers in parentheses. If the next citation refers to the same reference as the previous citation, do not enter the author's name in parentheses, but only the year and page.

(Bjelajac, 2017, p. 34)

.....

(2017, p. 46)

Do not use "the same", "*ibid*", or "*op. cit.*" for multiple citing of a reference.

Citing the terms "see", "compare", etc.

Enter these expressions in bibliographic parenthesis.

(see Bjelajac 2017, p. 153)

(Stepić, 2015; compare Knežević, 2014)

Secondary referencing

This is when you reference one author who is referring to the work of another, and the primary source is not available. *Secondary referencing should be avoided if possible.*

If you have only read the latter publication you are accepting someone else's opinion and interpretation of the author's original intention. You cannot have formed your own view or critically appraised whether the secondary author has adequately presented the original material.

You must make it clear to your reader which author you have read whilst giving details of the original.

Use 'as cited in' if the author has cited the work of another, e.g.

(Chomsky, 1999 as cited in Đurić & Stojadinović, 2018, p. 47)

If the author has directly quoted from an original piece of work then you would use 'as quoted in' e.g.

„Tom prilikom neoliberalizam se od strane najvećeg broja njegovih protagonista najčešće određuje kao politika slobodnog tržišta” (Chomsky, 1999, p. 7, as quoted in Đurić & Stojadinović, 2018, p. 47).

In the references, list only the secondary reference.

Đurić, Ž., & Stojadinović, M. (2018). Država i neoliberalni modeli urušavanja nacionalnih političkih institucija [The state and neoliberal models of collapsing national political institutions]. *Srpska politička misao*, 62(4), 41–57. <https://doi.org/10.22182/spm.6242018.2>

Same bibliographic parenthesis, multiple references

Different authors – Separate references with semicolons.

(Stepić, 2015, p. 61; Knežević, 2014, p. 158)

Same author, different years – Give the author's last name, and then the year of publication of the various references in order from earliest to most recent, and separate them with a comma, i.e., a semicolon when stating the number of pages.

(Stepić 2012, 2015) or (Stepić 2012, p. 30; 2015, p. 69)

Different authors, same last name – Some authors have the same last name, and if this happens the author's name initial(s) should be added in all citations, even if the year of publication is different.

(Subotić, D., 2010, p. 97), (Subotić, M., 2010, p. 302)

(Williams, A., 2009), (Williams, J., 2010)

Application of spelling rules

Align the papers with the spelling rules of the English language.

Please, pay special attention to the following:

- Some well-known foreign expressions should be written only in the original language in italics, e.g.: *de iure*, *de facto*, *a priori*, *a posteriori*, *sui generis*, etc.
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- Do not use bold or underline to emphasize certain words, but only italics or quotation marks or quotation marks (' ').
- *Idem*, *ibidem*, *op. cit.* – These are not used in APA style. Always use the Author (Year) and (Author, Year) formats.

Remark

This is abbreviated guidance. Detailed instructions for authors are available on the journal's website, or the website of APA:

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