



MMXX
Vol.: III, No.: I
ISSN: 2545-4854



ROOTINDEXING
JOURNAL ABSTRACTING AND INDEXING SERVICE

GIF[®]
GLOBAL IMPACT FACTOR

EUROPEAN & BALKAN PERSPECTIVES

JOURNAL OF EUROPEAN AND BALKAN PERSPECTIVES
Scientific Journal of Contemporary European and Balkan Politics:
Law, Economics, Security Issues, Cultural and Ethnic Studies and Environmental Policies

Volume: **III**
Number: **1**
Skopje **Spring**
2020

For the Publisher:

Center for International and Development Studies – Skopje
Центар за меѓународни и развојни студии – Скопје
Contact:
Address: “Anton Popov” Str. 33, 1000 Skopje
Web: www.cids.org.mk
Email: cids.skopje@gmail.com

For the Journal:

JEBP: **ISSN: 2545-4854**
Web: <https://cids.org.mk/index.php/en/publications/journal>
Indexed: **GIF Global Impact Factor – 0.198**
(<http://globalimpactfactor.com/journal-of-european-and-balkan-perspectives/>)
ROOT Indexing – Journal Abstracting and Indexing Service –
<http://rootindexing.com/journal/european-balkan-perspectives-JEBP/>

EDITORIAL BOARD:

Editor-in-Chief:

Professor Mitko Kotovchevski PhD, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University of Skopje

Deputy Editor-in-Chief:

Assistant Professor Jana Kukeska PhD, University of Tourism and Management Skopje

Editors:

Professor Oscar Afonso PhD, University of Porto

Professor Rudolf Kucharčík PhD, University of Economics in Bratislava

Professor Milan Milanov PhD, South-West University Neofit Rilski of Blagoevgrad

Professor Anton Parvanov PhD, University of National and World Economy of Sofia

Professor Goran Bandov, PhD, Dag Hammarskjöld University College of International Relations and Diplomacy in Zagreb

Professor Slavica Singer PhD, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek

Professor Boris Angelkov PhD, St. Clement of Ohrid University of Bitola

Associate Professor Haris Halilović PhD, University of Sarajevo

Assistant Professor Michael Dimitrov PhD, New Bulgarian University in Sofia

Assistant Professor Drenusha Kamberi PhD, Mother Theresa University of Skopje

Assistant Professor Driton Muharremi PhD, AAB College of Prishtine (Judge in the Kosovo Court of Appeals, Serious Crime Department)

ADVISORY BOARD:

Blagoj Conev PhD (European and Balkan Politics)

Biljana Buzlevski PhD (Economics)

Aleksandra Cibreva – Jovanovska PhD (Economics)

Liljana Pushova PhD Candidate (Economics)

Kire Babanoski PhD (Security Issues)

Blagica M. Kotovchevska PhD (Security Issues)

Anita Dimitrijovska – Jankulovska PhD Candidate (Cultural and Ethnic Studies)

Bojan Mitrovski PhD (Environmental Policies)

Petar Petrov PhD Candidate (Environmental Policies)

Editor's Note

It is with great pleasure that I bring to you the fourth volume of the Journal of Balkan and European Perspectives (JBEP). This edition covers variety of actual topics that are at the forefront of current discussions among policy makers, and academia and we hope that you will find it as enlightening as we do.

The objective of the JBEP is publishing original, up-to-date, high-quality and research papers thus aspires to be vibrant, engaging and accessible, for the intriguing community. I believe that by working together we can make a significant impact on the future direction of our journals but also of the academic thought in any respective field. And as you will see, the contributions in this volume are wonderful examples of knowledge that comes about through collaboration and dialogue. I welcome you to contribute, through comments and critique, and as future writers.

Best wishes and thank you in advance for your contribution to the Journal of Balkan and European Perspective.

Best regards,
Prof. Mitko Kotovchevski, PhD
Editor-in –Chief
Journal of Balkan and European Perspectives

Dear readers,

It is an honor and a privilege for me to address in the role of Deputy Editor-in-Chief of *the Journal of European and Balkan Perspective (JEBP)*. *The Journal* within a short period of time is evolving into a very successful Journal in providing an opportunity to present and discuss in a wide range of critical issues and knowledge not only within the national academic community but also in the global scientific and expert community. The Journal positioning emanates from the vision of the founding members to create an international and interdisciplinary forum to foster academic debate across the various actual fields concerned with the European and Balkan perspective's issues but also wider.

From thence, I am delighted to present to you the fourth volume of the *JEBP*. It offers a selection of papers addressing very hot topics today. For example, the cultural diplomacy is an absolutely crucial platform for conflict resolutions and building bridges over troubled waters, especially in the Former Yugoslavia. The question of nation and nationalism yet in the 21st century creates tensions and as such is among the most pressing problems of contemporary political theory. Of great interest for academic debate is the issue of elderly persons' vulnerability to crime, topic addressed hereby. According to the recent researches this population is more vulnerable to crime than other age groups mainly due to the physical and mental weaknesses of the old age, contributing to the visibility of a potential victim.

I look forward to sharing this volume with you – and to fostering the possibilities for research connections and cooperation within the scholars worldwide. I am convinced that this Journal will attract the interest of broader variety of scholars and will ensure that all the quality articles published in this issue will reach the diverse, knowledgeable, and global readership that they deserve.

With regards,
Prof. Jana Kukeska, PhD
Deputy Editor-in-Chief
Journal of Balkan and European Perspectives

CONTENTS

FEMALE CHARACTERS' WORDS AND ACTIONS IN SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS: THE MERCHANT OF VENICE, OTHELLO AND MACBETH, Anita Dimitrijevska-Jankulovska	6
HERMENEUTICS OF THE PANDEMIC DISCOURSES, Slavica Gadzova Sviderska	14
CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN INTRA-EU INVESTMENT PROTECTION AFTER <i>ACHMEA</i> , Katarína Brocková, Simona Chuguryan, Rudolf Kucharčík	24
WHY SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS ARE NEEDED NOW MORE THAN EVER, Stefan Chichivaliev and Tomislav Ortakovski	32
ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND PUBLIC SECTOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP: FUTURE CHALLENGE FOR THE REPUBLIC OF NORTH MACEDONIA, Branko Dimeski, Anastas Gjurovski, Memet Memeti	44
THE HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ICELAND AND ITS RESERVED APPROACH TO EUROPEAN INTEGRATION, Katarína Brocková, Simona Chuguryan and Rudolf Kucharčík	58
A CONTRIBUTION TO THE RESEARCH OF EMIGRATION FROM KOSOVO AND METOHIJA BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS, Božica Slavković Mirić	69
THE NATURE OF A DISTORTED REALITY CONCEPT REGARDING THE INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, Liljana Siljanovska, Stefani Stojchevska	81
CORRUPTION, THE BIGGEST SOCIAL EVIL, Natasha Georgieva	92
THE DEVELOPMENT OF EXISTENTIAL DEATH ANXIETY AMONG ASTRONAUTS DURING LONG-TERM SPACE MISSIONS AND ITS IDENTIFICATION AS A PSYCHIATRIC STRESS IN OUTER SPACE, Liljana Siljanovska, Stefani Stojchevska	104
CONTENT OF VITAMIN "C" IN CAULIFLOWER (<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>Botrytis</i>) AND BROCCOLI (<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>Italica</i>) GROWN USING MICROBIAL FERTILIZERS, Daniela Dimovska, Petar Petrov, Igor Iljovski	118

***Humanities discourse
in the Middleway
between the
Balkans, Europe and
the World***

**FEMALE CHARACTERS' WORDS AND ACTIONS IN SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS:
THE MERCHANT OF VENICE, OTHELLO AND MACBETH**

Anita Dimitrijovska-Jankulovska, PhD Candidate

Senior lecturer of English language, MIT University Skopje

Abstract

Female characters seen in Shakespeare's plays were not only romantic and gentle but with much more profound content in them. They not only gave all charm to the play but pushed it forward in a witty and confident way. Although in that period of time when Shakespeare's plays were created, the female characters were acted by men, the great writer knew the huge role the women had even in his time. However, in Elizabethan's time their influence was not only behind the curtains as their society was led by a woman as well. Shakespeare's awareness of women's importance was used in his playwrights and I assume that this was none of the less significant for all popularity of his plays all of the world. It is a huge paradox for the expression of Art, as it was the theatre which has always been a reflection of everyday life and society, to be repressed in this way, I mean, female characters are as big as male characters but they cannot be acted by women, although their society is led by their Queen.

Key words: *female characters, heroines, women, mothers, daughters, wives.*

Introduction

It is very difficult for us today to see Shakespeare's plays as the Elizabethans did. Performed only by men, we can somehow depict the historical period of Shakespeare if we watch the play, *Romeo and Juliet*, directed by Lilia Abagieva, and performed in our Macedonian National Theater only by actors. Even though the female parts of the drama in that time were put on the margins, and men's roles were central, we cannot imagine how would Shakespeare's comedy, *The Merchant of Venice* looked like without Portia's part in court or his tragedies *Othello* and *Macbeth* without the rebel heroine Desdemona and ambitious and manipulative Lady Macbeth. Maybe women could not be seen as actresses in that period of time, but they were big part of the society allowed or not to be in the center of action, they always found a way to be, through their fathers, husbands and sons or even through their clothes. Dressing up as men was not uncommon in some situations then, as it wasn't possible to take seriously a woman dressed in blue chiffon and ribbons,¹ Portia, in *The Merchant of Venice*, is smart and witty enough to take advantage of the men around her. At the beginning she is cute, lovely lady who makes fun of her suitors coming to take a chance by choosing the right casket. She is a rich and obedient daughter as well. She belongs to a society when intelligence and wittiness were not to be part of female's behavior. In a period of time when women were not expected to express themselves, especially not in front of men, (to express themselves, in terms of their skills and abilities on the same level as the men of their surroundings) they were side walkers to their fathers or husbands, silent, gentle, clean and well-dressed. In Act IV, Portia, disguised as a man appears in the courtroom to save Antonio's life. The Elizabethans audience recognized Portia, although she was disguised and this makes the play more comic. And I think the element of comedy gave Shakespeare right to put a woman in a courtroom, disguised

¹ 1. Gay Penny, As She Likes It: Shakespeare's Unruly Women, p.10 <http://books.google.mk/books?id=ia-JzEznxIMC&q=Portia#v=snippet&q=Portia&f=false>

as a man, off course. This scene made the Elizabethans laugh a lot, and made it obvious of Shakespeare's awareness of women's cleverness, serious thought and an ability of managing the situation when it needed. From the first appearance of Portia, and her conversation with Nerissa in Act I, Scene iii, we can conclude that she is well-behaved and obedient daughter who belongs to the high Italian society. She is aware of her feelings but at the same time she is aware of her mind. She knows what she wants but she knows what she has to, as well. On the contrary of her emotions she follows her father's instructions (who is already dead) for her lifelong partner.

*If to do were as easy as to know what were good
To do, chapels had been churches, and poor's men's
Cottages prince's palaces. It is a good divine that
Follows his own Instructions-I can easier teach
Twenty what were good to be done, then be one*

*The twenty to follow mine own teaching. The
Brain may devise laws for blood; but a hot
Temper leaps o'er a cold decree: such a hare is
Madness the youth, to skip o'er meshes of
Good counsel the cripple. But this reasoning is
Not in the fashion to choose me a husband:-O
Me, the word 'choose!' I may neither choose who
I would, nor refuse who I dislike: so is the will of
A living daughter curbed by the will of a dead
Father. -Is it not hard, Nerissa, that I cannot
Choose one, nor refuse none?*

(The Shakespeare Head Press Edition, William Shakespeare: The Works of William Shakespeare: The Merchant of Venice (Oxford University Press, 1982), I.ii.12-27.)

From the very first time we meet Portia as a character we get an impression that she is well-behaved girl who is fighting inside herself, what to choose, what to refuse, what would be the right decision to make when her father is dead and she is acting after his will. None of the suitors so far, managed to make an impression on her that is why she has difficulty in choosing the right one. When Nerissa is reading the list of them, Portia is giving funny descriptions of each of them, judging only by their name and title. This gives us a reason to conclude that she is not just spoiled, rich girl, but one with a lot of imagination and verbal skills. Here I can mention women's intuition as well, which most of the times gives us opportunity as women to judge the situation before we face the sequences. I would quote Ronald E. Riggio, Ph.D. here: '...it is mainly due to social power. Women, who have been historically lower in social power, spend more time observing and scrutinizing those in power (i.e. men, and powerful women), and become more attuned to their nonverbal clues.' (Riggio E. Ronald, Ph.D., Women's Intuition: Myth or Reality?)

We are gifted in this way vice versa the emotionally-clueless man as the Professor, Ronald E. Riggio, mentioned above says, and we have right to use it when we need it. Portia for example, from the very beginning has a feeling that none of the six suitors on the list is going to be her 'prince charming'. She is a romantic and gracious heroine in the play, despite the fact she doesn't like any of them she is very polite with each of them and very relieved when they depart due to their wrong choice. The situation changes when she meets the young Venetian Bassanio, and emotions are involved. Portia's intuition as well as love works this time when she tells him

‘There’s something tells me-but it is not love-/ I would not lose you; and, you know yourself, /’
(III.ii.4-5). She is as happy as much as she is afraid of losing him, if he doesn’t choose the leaden casket. Being in love she doesn’t want to lose his company. ‘ I would detain you here some month or two/ Before you venture for me. I could teach you/ How to choose right, but then I am forsworn;/ **(III.iii.9-10).**

She is usually self-controlled girl, but she cannot control the excitement by which she is overwhelmed when he takes the leaden casket, where he finds the picture of her which tells that he has won her. Giving herself to Bassanio, she immediately wants to give all of her possessions to him, her house, her wealth, even her servants. And does that by giving him the ring. This is a typical act of a Renaissance girl who bonds to her love in every way, giving herself completely with soul and body. This is an expected romantic love story from the time, which cannot be accepted today in our time, not even in theater. But there is one action which we share with girls from Shakespeare’s time and that is taking the matters in our hands. After Bassanio is gone to save his friend’s life, Portia regains control of herself and has total command of the situation until the end of the play. Helped by her cousin Doctor Bellario Portia disguised as a man appears in the court in Venice.

The change of Portia happens now. From a soft, romantic, gentle lady into a courageous, witty, playful and intelligent man. A woman in that period of time needed a lot of courage and wisdom to dress up as a man and enter the court. Portia does it for her love Bassanio and save his friend, a man she has never met. Dressed as a lawyer she is presented by the Duke as a young doctor from Rome. She starts as a woman, asking for mercy from Shylock, furthermore she gives her speech of mercy, hoping to soften Shylock’s heart.

The quality of mercy is not strain’d,-
It droppeth as gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath him that gives, and him that takes:
‘Tis mightiest in the mightiest: it becomes
The throned monarch better than his crown;
His scepter shows the force of temporal power,
The attribute to awe and majesty,
Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;
But mercy is above this scepter’d sway,-
It is enthroned in the hearts of kings,
It is an attribute to God himself;
And earthly power doth then show likest God’s
When mercy seasons justice. Therefore, Jew,
Though justice be thy plea, consider this,-
That, in the course of justice, none of us
Should see salvation: we do pray for mercy;
And that same prayer doth teach us all to render
The deeds of mercy. I have spoke thus much
To mitigate the justice of thy plea;
Which if thou follow, this strict court of Venice
Must needs give sentence ‘gainst the merchant
There **(IV.i.183-205)**

Here Portia expresses her verbal power that was not a quality given to women of Shakespeare's age. This speech equals Portia with the highest intelligence of that society, men, only. Acting a role of a lawyer in an extremely difficult case enables Portia to be respected as much as the men inside the courtroom.

However, her speech was great but not good enough to reach the purpose. After she failed to persuade Shylock, to give up his claim even by accepting to be paid later with two or three thousand percent of interest, she continues playfully with the case. According to the agreement Shylock is allowed to take a pound of Antonio's flesh but it doesn't allow him to take even a drop of his blood. In this way Portia succeeds to save Antonio's life, leaving Shylock's life at the mercy of the Duke, where we can trace her female softness again.

Portia's intelligence can be seen from her high sense of humor, as well. Mocking her suitors in an elegant way and asking Bassanio for the ring in the end, reveals Portia as one well-mannered and generous person. In the end this heroine turns to be an ideal woman, beautiful and smart as well, able to stand on the same level as men.

Despite Portia's self-control, courage and wittiness, we have Desdemona in Shakespeare's tragedy Othello. At the very beginning of the play we have Desdemona-the heroine, making a fearless choice and marry a Moor, Othello. She marries him without the consent of her father; an action that takes power which is not considered to be part of women's actions of the time. By her choice she shows her female nature, a person who has desires, sexual desires, something which was reserved only for men of Shakespeare's England. A woman who has such desires is surely a whore or adulteress. In front of the Venetian Senate, she admits that her act was a violent act, calling it 'downright violence'², but she defends it as an act of love. The men in the play, except for Othello see her as a dangerous woman, because of her independence. Othello considers her as a chance to become integrated in Venetian society. Desdemona is a young, white lady (Brabantio's daughter, a man of a reputation in the Venetian society) who refuses many rich suitors and secretly marries a Moor. Othello thinks that if Desdemona accepts him, the whole Venetian society will see him as one of them. Brabantio, her father, thinks that his daughter is still a child and he cannot believe that the secret marriage is true. He describes her 'a maiden never bold' (I. iii.100) and here we assume that he doesn't know the real nature of his daughter. Iago sees Desdemona as a lustful woman because of her freedom and independence and because she decided to marry a Moor. She represents the possibility of free choice, the independence of mind, and soul that cannot be put into chains by the will of a sexist society. By marrying Othello, Desdemona shows that she is strong enough and educated enough to break the social confines of passivity for women. While she is listening the warrior tales from Othello's war experiences, Desdemona falls in love with him, she is impressed by his strength and his courage, as well. She loved him for his body and mind, for his reputation and actions. In Act II, the character of Desdemona changes from a rebel heroine of the beginning she becomes a very different kind of woman. She wants to help Cassio to recover his lost position as Lieutenant but in doing this she makes a huge mistake. Throughout the play her personality changes a lot, she becomes 'a common shrew'. In fact, to convince her husband to call Cassio back to his office, she becomes insolent and troublesome, just like a shrew supposed to be. And it is only the first change the audience sees. Later in the play, when 'the handkerchief' comes, she acts like a little girl, lying to Othello like a child when he asks her to show him the handkerchief, the one he has given her as a sign of love. She lies, telling him that she has not lost

² The Shakespeare Head Press Edition, William Shakespeare: The Works of William Shakespeare: Othello, The Moor of Venice (London: Oxford University Press, 1982), I. iii. 251

her present, even though this is what has really happened. She knows how much it means to him, so in order to keep from hurting his feelings she tells him that she has put it away. The last change in Desdemona is the most incomprehensible: she interprets the part of a wife subdued to the will of her husband. This was the destiny of almost every woman of that period of time, but it is very strange that Desdemona who seemed so powerful and independent has changed in this way. Probably she is meant to represent the true destiny of a woman, in a world ruled only by men. She is trusting and loyal, innocent and pure, she is completely blinded by her love to Othello and completely inexperienced with evil in the world. Being loyal to everybody she keeps herself away from their real faces. At the play she is a victim, killed by her husband on the strength of a mere suspicion. After Iago sends the worm in Othello's head it never stops biting him. Manipulative Iago in an easy and perfidiously manner caused suspicion in Othello's love towards Desdemona. Behind the mask of an honest and loyal friend Iago is Othello's biggest enemy, jealous of his position and happiness, jealous of Cassio's higher position as well, knits a web of lies and intrigues, which unfortunately captures Othello's mind at ease. Othello has been taken by the we even before the handkerchief; Iago builds a ground before it.

Look to your wife; observe her well;
Wear your eye thus, not jealous nor secure:
I would not have your free and noble nature,
Out of self-bounty, be abused; look to't:
(III.iii.200-204)

Othello sees his wife, talking with Cassio, who is begging her to help him to get the position back. Desdemona feels free to ask something like that from her beloved husband but she doesn't know what is happening in his head after Iago's warnings. At first he is still as soft as he was before with her, although there is chaos in his mind. Desdemona is insistent for Cassio to be called back, she keeps nagging and he finally says: 'Prithee, no more; let him come when he will, / I will deny thee nothing' (III.iii.74,75) and after this he asks her to leave him alone. He regrets for the answer he gave her, explaining it by strong emotions he has for her: 'Excellent wretch! Perdition catch my soul, / But I do love thee! And when I love thee not, / Chaos is come again'. (III.iii.90-92). When the handkerchief is stolen and put in the hands of the villain, it is easy to manipulate the Moor and make him jealous. Othello is great at war games but he is so bad at social games, and he easily falls into Iago's trap. Desdemona is confused by his behavior, but his honest heart could not believe that her husband suspects her chastity. Othello blindly believes in Iago's honesty and takes for granted all that he hears from him. He is sure that she is being unfaithful and he seeks for the reasons that made her do that, whether it is the black skin, lack of social achievements or maybe his age, as he is much older than she is. In Act III, scene iv, he comes to her, asking for the handkerchief that means to him a lot, while he is asking for it, Desdemona keeps asking for Cassio, praising him: ' You'll never meet a more sufficient man' (III.iv.91), this drives him mad and whatever she says his answer is the same: ' The handkerchief!' (III. Iv. 92). After he leaves, when Emilia tells her that his acting is just jealousy, comparing men with stomach and women with food: ' They are all but stomachs, and we all but food;/ They eat us hungrily, and when they are full, /They blech us.' (III.iv.2,3). When she asks Emilia are there any women who can be unfaithful to their husbands, she expresses her honesty and innocence of the world. She cannot even think of the idea of cheating a husband. In the next Act IV, when Othello speaks to her in private, and accuses her a lot, 'false as hell' (IV.i.40), 'a whore', (IV.i.74), and ' a public communer' (IV. i. 75), she denies telling him that she is honest and faithful, but she has no idea of what exactly she

is being accused of, she cannot understand what it is that makes her a whore. He never tells her, he speaks to her bitterly, throws money at her, as to a prostitute and leaves. When her maid Emilia, enters the room, Desdemona cannot think of any further actions but the wedding sheets, she wants to be wrapped in them if she dies before her. The wedding sheets symbolize the duties of the marriage, love, honesty and loyalty. To this situation Desdemona responds with passivity and grief, and on Emilia's conclusion that her marriage with Othello was a mistake, she doesn't regret, she still loves him so much and love is all that she can think of. In the last Act, Othello comes into her bed, asking her to pray, she is aware that he is going to kill her, and she doesn't fight or defend, just begs him to banish her, not to kill her, and maybe to leave her live one more day. She loves him endlessly and keeps faithful until the end. He smothers her with the pillow, and even in her death, when Emilia enters and sees the tragedy, on the question who has done it, she says: 'Nobody, -I myself, Farewell:/ Commend me to my kind lord: O farewell!' (V.ii.130,131) and she dies. Even in her death she calls him, 'my kind lord'. At the beginning of the play Shakespeare gives us a brave and adventurous woman, woman of action, who chooses a husband who is not from her race, nor from her society, and not by her father will, also. That same woman under the shelter of love turns into fragile, romantic, gentle and passive one. She dies by the hand of her great love, accused of cheating that she has never done, and she has never understood what she has been actually accused of. But she follows the duties of her marriage until the end.

Despite the romantic heroine as Portia and Desdemona, Lady Macbeth is a different kind of woman, she loves her husband as well, but the social position and power seems to mean to her a lot. All of them are full of emotions but all of them handle a difficult situation in a different way. Portia keeps the wheel in her hand to take back justice on the road. Lady Macbeth is also the one who starts the engine of the action, but she cannot stop it afterwards, and she cannot handle the consequences. Desdemona appears as a very strong, fearless and independent and later turns into passive, silent and obedient victim of love and intrigue.

Lady Macbeth in Macbeth is a very ambitious woman, greedy for power and higher social achievements. When the play begins, her husband Macbeth is being awarded the position of Thane of Cawdor, but she wants more. She wants to be more powerful and richer, and she gets the idea of killing Duncan the actual King of Scotland. At the beginning she is very confident and determined to do that and let nobody to stop her. She influences and hurries her husband to grab the crown of Scotland. So, if Duncan is killed, her husband will become a King of Scotland and she will become the Queen of Scotland. This idea occurs to Macbeth as well, when the three witches predicted that he would become the Lord of Cawdor and later he would ascend the throne. And these prophesies he mentions in the letter he writes to her. The first one has already happened, and after reading the letter Lady Macbeth hurries to see the second half of the prophesy. That is why she makes a plot to kill Duncan when he comes in their home. She feels encouraged by the witches' prophesies because one part of it is accomplished. She is impatient to see her husband as the King and herself the Queen. She feels cold and strong enough to kill Duncan herself, and she prays to unholy spirits to make her unemotional enough to do the murder.

The raven himself is hoarse
That croaks the fatal entrance of Duncan
Under my battlements. Come, you spirits
That tend on mortal thoughts, unsex me here,
And fill me from the crown to the toe topful

Of direst cruelty!³

Here is very clear that she is asking to be stripped of female weakness and invested with masculine resolve. She is asking for strength that was a male feature in Shakespeare's time, as well as power and ambition. She is aware of the ambition of her husband and knows that the idea of killing Duncan has probably occurred to himself as well, but she is afraid of his weakness and thinks it will stop him from the action required to take the crown. As she is afraid that he will step off his murderous thoughts which he probably has after one part of witches' prediction has already come true, she is determined to take the matters in her hands and do it by herself. That is why she is very happy when she hears that Duncan is coming to visit Inverness. She is very excited with the news that give her an opportunity of realizing her plan. When Macbeth comes home in a subtle way she is tempting him to join her in the murder:

Your hand, your tongue: look like innocent
Flower,
But be serpent under't. He that's coming
Must be provided for: and you shall put
This night's great business into my dispatch;
(I.v. 68-72)

Macbeth calmly answers her that they will speak about it later, but Lady Macbeth's strong determination drives her to say: 'Leave all the rest to me' (I.v.78). After the reception of the King Duncan, in Act I, scene vii, Macbeth has changed his mind, his conscience has risen and he is afraid of the punishment that will follow after the murder and he also likes Duncan as a man and as a monarch, too. When he shares his indecision with Lady Macbeth, she calls him a coward: 'We will proceed no further in this business' (I.vii.30), she calls him a coward and refuses to accept his decision. She plays upon her emotions accusing him of not loving her. In a cunning way she succeeds to take him back to thoughts of murder. But he is still afraid: 'If we should fail?' (I.vv.63) the thought of punishment frightens him, Lady Macbeth seems to have enough confidence for both of them: 'We fail! But screw your courage to the sticking place/And we'll not fail! (I.vii.64-66). This time he is completely convinced to kill Duncan. In the next Act II, Macbeth is prepared to murder, after Lady Macbeth has drugged Duncan's guards, she keeps encouraging him to do that saying that: 'I laid the daggers ready, / He could not miss 'em-Had he not resembled/ My father as he slept, I had done't.-My husband! (II.ii.11-13). After he does the murder, he is very nervous and describes the situation, Lady Macbeth wants to keep her out of it and finish with it in any way, tells him to wash his face and his hands and put the daggers back in the hands of the guards, when he refuses to do that, she has to do that instead. Now her hands are with blood as well.

When she becomes the Queen and she gets all she wanted, she can't think of anything but the murder although she hides it well, she confesses that by killing Duncan they gained nothing and lost everything. Contrary to Lady Macbeth's personality that gets disintegrated after the murder Macbeth's seems to increase by plotting series of murders just to secure his throne. He suddenly becomes too ambitious and can't allow his conscience to stop him murdering. Here their roles of ambition seem to change. Strong, cold, ambitious and ruthless Lady Macbeth turns into frightened, disintegrated and unhappy Queen. And weak, fearful and conscious Macbeth becomes all that Lady Macbeth was in the beginning of the play and even more, greedy for power and ambitious enough to kill everyone that comes on his way to the top. At the beginning of the play, Lady

³ The Shakespeare Head Press Edition, William Shakespeare: The Works of William Shakespeare: Macbeth (London: Oxford University Press, 1982), I. v. 38-43.

Macbeth is a powerful figure who raises the plot for Duncan, using her female powers for manipulating and convincing Macbeth to kill. Later in the play when she has actually achieved what she wanted she withdraws to the margins. She slowly slides into madness. Lady Macbeth, couldn't control his consciousness, she starts sleepwalking through the castle, rubbing her hands violently, desperately wanting to wash away invisible blood stains. The sense of guilt has driven her mad and she can't cope with it. Being unable to deal with legacy of their crimes, she commits a suicide in the end.

Her remarkable strength of will Duncan in the beginning transforms into madness and fragile female character full of feelings. As she feels guilty for all the murders that follow, she cannot live longer with it, and she kills herself. In the end Shakespeare has put her in a place of a woman, as she is no longer the dominant figure in the play. For the next murder that Macbeth plots he excludes his wife from his decision.

Conclusion

All of these three female characters Portia, Desdemona, and Lady Macbeth are very intelligent women and strong in their own way, but also women and women in the time of Shakespeare. They represent a part that was not allowed for women of the time. They are also a part that puts them back in a place of a typical woman again, whether it was a comedy in the case of Portia, or weakness of love with Desdemona, or maybe sense of guilt that leads to a suicide of Lady Macbeth. Although the roles of women were expected to be put on the margins in the Shakespearean time, he was aware of the major role of women in society and in a subtle way put them in the engine of the play.

Bibliography:

Gay Penny, *As She Likes It: Shakespeare's Unruly Women*, p.10

Riggio E. Ronald, PhD, *Women's Intuition: myth or reality?*

The Shakespeare Head Press Edition, *William Shakespeare: The Works of William Shakespeare*. London: Oxford University Press, 1982

<http://books.google.mk/books?id=ia-JzEZnxlMC&q=Portia#v=snippet&q=Portia&f=false> 10 January 2013

<http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/cutting-edge-leadership/201107/women-s-intuition-myth-or-reality> 10 January 2013

HERMENEUTICS OF THE PANDEMIC DISCOURSES
Slavica Gadzova Sviderska, PhD

Abstract

This paper is an attempt to approach the covid 19 pandemic as a social phenomenon and analyze the discourses that arise from it. Understood in Foucault's broadest concept, these discourses attempt to produce a new discursive reality called "new normality", which is in fact a redefinition of the role and position of man in the world. We approached the discourses and techniques of "new normality" with the philosophical-theoretical apparatus of Michel Foucault, Giorgio Agamben, Julia Kristeva, Guy Debord, Jean Baudrillard. From the detection of the phenomena of discipline and disciplinary normalization of the human body and its "abjectification", through the phenomena of panopticism, surveillance and monitoring, to the analysis of the pandemic as a global spectacle, we have found that further analysis of the social aspects of the pandemic is inevitable and very important, because covid 19 pandemic greatly affects human rights and freedoms.

Key words: pandemic discourse, disciplinization, normalization, new normality.

Introduction

In the last few months, the world has found itself in a whole new situation. With the proclamation of a global pandemic caused by the new coronavirus, in addition to the chaos in healthcare systems and world economies, seems that humanity is in the middle of a new network of discourses, discursive practices and narratives tending to redefine the world and the place of the man in it. Aside from all the medical-epidemiological aspects, we consider that the interpretation of these discourses is of great importance, because they already cause tectonic changes in the functioning of the society and the social behavior of man. The need for interpretation of pandemic discourses is great, because, as Katica Kjulavkova says, it is not enough to have a specific and life-threatening reality. It is necessary to identify that reality in language, with the help of the word.⁴

These discourses, which we will label as "pandemic discourses" or "discourses of the pandemic", deserve a more detailed interpretation in many respects, because they try to impose (mark, define) a new (discursive) reality through the phrases "new normality" or "new normal". At the same time, discourses are certainly not a set of signs, but practices that shape the objects they speak about, and the statements as units of the discourse, instead of being considered as isolated events, will be taken as statements in a network.

In using the term "discourse", we will rely on the complex philosophical conception of Michel Foucault, who seeks to critically reject all simplified explanations of discourses as sets of signs and to emphasize and favor the belief that they are practices that name and in the same time create the objects they are talking about. According to Foucault, the statement, appearing with one status, enters the network/s, and is placed in different fields of use, it is offered for transfers, included in strategies and operations in which its identity is maintained or disappears. Thus, the

⁴ Кулавкова. К (2020) "Паноптикум или сеопфатен надзор" DW. 12.05.2020

<https://www.dw.com/mk/%D0%BF%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%BE%D0%BF%D1%82%D0%B8%D0%BA%D1%83%D0%BC-%D0%B8%D0%BB%D0%B8-%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BE%D0%BF%D1%84%D0%B0%D1%82%D0%B5%D0%BD-%D0%BD%D0%B0%D0%B4%D0%B7%D0%BE%D1%80/a-53406690>

statement circulates, serves, hides, allows or prevents any wish from being realized, serves or opposes interests, enters the realm of disputes and struggles, becomes the subject of appropriations or rivalries. The statements themselves are invested in techniques that they apply and social relationships that they realize, redirect or change through them. The statement, as a unit of discourse, reflects through itself and within itself a complex network of relations, reflects the way in which man establishes his position within the institutions and the systems, becomes entangled in relations where he possesses power or where he is subordinated and marginalized. The statement is interpreted in terms of its integration into different fields of use, fields in which different strategies that affect the survival of identities, their transformation or disqualification are applied. The interpretation of the discourses and statements as their units is the detection of the techniques of their application and the social relations that are established through them. Also, the interpretation of discourses and statements is a detection of roles and positions that have the word (and thus the power) in their hands. It is also important to emphasize that we cannot talk about differentiated models of definite discursive practices, but about a culture that should be understood as a place that absorbs memory through appropriate procedures for transposing and storing information.

In conditions when the world is flooded with innumerable information, texts, announcements, there is a lot of discursive material that can be subjected to analysis and interpretation, but in our hermeneutics we will focus on several topics that form strong discursive sequences which appear in the media very often.

The topics covered in this hermeneutic analysis come from several premises of the pandemic discourses appearing in any information or text related to the spread of the coronavirus and the disease.

- The human body is identified with the medium of infection and it is automatically considered dirty and unclean;
- The uncleanness of the human body means the insecurity of man in the presence of other people: he himself is dangerous to the Other, and the Other is dangerous to him;
- The uncleanness of the human body means that it is unsafe to touch anything that has previously been touched by the human hand;
- Every human body that is considered a priori unclean, dirty and contagious, should be subjected to techniques of normalization and disciplinization (hence the phrases “new normal” and “new normality”);
- Every human body that is considered a priori infected and contagious, dangerous in relation to (the health of) other people, should be subject to surveillance and observation.
- The world is turning into a global media pandemic spectacle, and real life is swallowed up by its virtual and media simulation.

In interpreting the topics about body, life and death, abjection, normalization and discipline, we will refer to the theories and thoughts of Michel Foucault, Giorgio Agamben, Julia Kristeva, Jacques Derrida, Guy Debord, Jean Baudrillard. Further, their concepts and terms will contribute

to the diversity of the theoretical apparatus in the interpretation of the global phenomenon that transcends the boundaries of their theories.

Biopolitics of “bare life”

Pandemic discourses de facto equate the human body with a medium of infection. In the face of such discursive equalization, human life loses all social and cultural significance and comes down only to biological existence or “bare life” (Agamben). With such an equation, man is associated only with the “bare life,” exclusively with his body conditions or with the idiosyncrasy of his body. Based on Aristotle's teachings, we know that *bios* (qualified form of life) and *zoe* (“bare life”) should be distinguished. Walter Benjamin distinguishes between “life” and “bare life”, separating “bare” and “righteous existence”.

If the “old mastery of death, in which the power of the ruler was symbolically perceived (to take away life), has been carefully taken over by the authorities over the bodies and the calculated governing of life”⁵, (Foucault's definition of biopolitics) today's situation and current pandemic discourses are pushing back the pressure that the biological has over the historical, overemphasizing the phenomena of mortality and death.

In this sense, pandemic discourses are imposed as thanatological discourses, and pandemic bioregimes do not carry out their governing activities only on the basis of life, but also on the basis of death. With the birth of biopolitics, says Foucault, for the first time in history, the biological is reflected in the political; the fact of life is no longer the inaccessible foundation that only occasionally appears, conditioned by the coincidence of death and its fatality, in one part, it passes into the realm of control of knowledge and the *intervention of the government*. It takes care of life, much more than the threat of death, that gives the government access to the body.⁶

The paradoxical situation in which pandemic discourses and bioregimes bring us, is the opening an approach to the body, but to the body which is identified as a medium of infection and which needs to be “normalized” or “disciplined” again according to the old-new paradigm of cleanness. The normalization, disciplinization, and a whole set of micro-power techniques over the bodies, again paradoxically, are not aimed at emphasizing life, but at emphasizing its filth, dirt, contagion, and mortality. At that point, pandemic discourses automatically produce an unclean, dirty, contagious, sick body, a body seen as an *abject*.

The human body as unclean /discourses of the abject

Pandemic discourses assure us that each of us is a potential carrier of the virus, asymptotically infected, and thus potential or actually dangerous for the environment, dirty and unclean. In doing so, the human body inevitably experiences a stigma of dirt, filth and disease. Because each of us is a potential carrier of the virus, according to the linguistic and discursive logic of the pandemic bioregime, none of us is clean nor healthy. By constantly emphasizing potential contagion, i.e. uncleanness, man is again moved in the realm of “bare life” (Agamben), that is, in the realm of the “zoe” (Aristotle), because through the phenomenon of clean we name, define and perceive our culture, that is, through the practice of the rituals of cleanness, culture is proclaimed higher than nature (a more civilized and dignified form of existence). Unlike the ancient conception of politics,

⁵ For more details in: Foucault, M (1978) *The History of Sexuality* Vol. 1. New York: Pantheon Books.

⁶ For more details in: Foucault, M (1978) *The History of Sexuality* Vol. 1. New York: Pantheon Books.

where “bare life” needs to be transformed into a higher form of “good life” (transition from nature to culture), current pandemic discourses emphasize the transition from culture to nature, under the premise of the threat to the biological survival of the human race. The potential carrier of the virus, the one who does not perform (did not perform) the rituals of cleanness, is inevitably left in the realm of “zoe”, field of biological/natural existence, „because culture and its institutions work to impose a sense of guilt about the uncleanness/dirt“⁷.

In Kristeva's theory, the dirt is one of the four factors (along with taboo, food and sin) through which the category of the abject appears.⁸

In the elaboration of the idea and concept of the abject, Julia Kristeva cites the reaction of excessive fear, horror, disgust, repulsion, disgust, avoidance, distancing caused by events that undermine the distinction between the subject and the object, between “me” and “out there”. The object is radically disconnected from the space of the symbolic community and is drawn to the place where the meaning ends. Abject is what disturbs identity, order, what does not respect borders, positions and rules. By placing the sign of equality between the human body and the dirty body, between the human subject himself and the dirtiness, in pandemic discourses the human body is “abjectified”. In contrast to the human body which is “abjectified” (literally and metaphorically reduced to saliva, expectorant secretions, little drops that will endanger the health and existence of the Other), the hygenizing and sanitizing law is established (establishing decrees, measures and protocols of various types).

There is another way to deal with the obscure, and that is to make the almost psychotic division between the obscure objects and the acts of symbolic ritualization, the purpose of which is to cleanse us from impurity, that is, to keep us apart as if there is no common space in which can be

⁷ For more details on the phenomena of clean and dirty, see in the book: Котеска, Ј (2006) *Санитарна енигма*. Скопје: Темплум [Koteska, J (2006) *Sanitary enigma*. Skopje:Templum]

⁸ Here is how Kristeva explains the abject:

1. The abject is a place between the subconscious and the consciousness, where in one place and at the same time, the inner and the outer (instincts and external phenomena) meet. The abject is the (subjective) boundary from the inside to the outside and vice versa.
2. The abject has both a super-personal location and a super-historical time. It is the place where the archaic and the modern (the animal and the cultural) suddenly touch.
3. The abject does not exist in two places at once, but in one inter-space.
4. In the abject, we can see one of those fierce, dark revolts of being, directed against the threat that seems to come from an excessive exterior or interior, thrown out of the reach of the possible, the permissible, the imaginable. Both the external and the internal pose a threat to each other, because the essence of being, of our being is violent, revolting. But the danger we are talking about is not a danger to the subject, but only to the order and its institutions.
5. The quality of an object is taken away from the abject - it is neither a tool, nor an object, nor a machine, nor a quality that the object has, and that is why it cannot be part of the symbolic, because the symbolic is composed of certain phenomena, from markers that have correlates.
6. Since it is not part of the symbolic, the abject can only originate from the semiotic, that is, from the period of birth to the entry into the symbolic order, until it becomes a speech subject. The abject is produced in the semiotic, but receives and gives life only when the semiotic will (try to) penetrate the symbolic; will try, because the abject cannot live in the symbolic.
7. The abject cannot be named: because the name means existence; what we cannot name, it does not exist.

found, because the abject (dirt) in its actuality is simply excluded from the symbolic. (Žižek 2014:108).

With all of the daily information, texts and media reports related to the current pandemic of the new coronavirus, we have the impression that the field of abjects is gradually increasing and we witness the “transformation of the whole social field into a world of abjects”.⁹

The emphasis on potentially infected, unclean, dirty, and abjectal bodies, on the other hand, produces a kind of paranoid, xenophobic, and even misanthropic discourses that we constantly encounter in everyday life and in the media. The Other and Otherness¹⁰ become/ are perceived as a threat, a danger to life, a potential carrier of decay and death, something we need to separate from and ultimately “distance ourselves from”. Without going into medical and epidemiological meaning of distancing, we must stress that the statements arising from it gain paranoid, xenophobic or even misanthropic implications and become hotbeds of potential psychological, social, family, and even physical violence. We also witness that the paranoid, xenophobic and misanthropic discourses of the “unclean” and “distancing” often have their own confessional, ethnic, and racial implications, producing religious, interethnic, or racial hatred and intolerance. In addition, potentially infected, contagious, unclean, dirty, and abjectal bodies must undergo some sort of normalization and disciplinization process in order to fit more easily into the favored so-called “new normality”, that is, the redefined position and role of man in the world.

Disciplinization and normalization of bodies

Pandemic discourses assure us that the human body, perceived as dirty and unclean, and predetermined as infected and contagious, must be “trained” and normalized in accordance with the paradigm of “the new normality” through a variety of discipline techniques. Much of the media space is devoted to promoting these techniques of disciplinization (physical and social distancing, physical and social isolation, quarantine, wearing masks, etc., which are addressed not only to the sick but also to the healthy population, although we have already seen that pandemic discourses have shifted the concept of “health” and “disease” as well as the concept of “healthy” and “sick”).

Disciplinization should make the unclean/dirty body obedient, that is, “a body that is manipulated, shaped, trained, obeyed, a body that becomes obedient, that is, a body that can be subdued, transformed, and perfected” (Foucault). In a closed world (closed borders, quarantine, curfew, restriction of freedom of movement, both locally and globally), the body must be disciplined in conditions of isolation. At the peak of the new coronavirus pandemic, it is clear that we are witnessing a school example of disciplinization. According to Foucault, the policy of natural subordination of bodies involves calculated manipulation of its elements, movements and behavior. Discipline begins with organizing the individuals in space. Discipline needs a closed space, a place that will be specialized and closed as a world for itself. It is the protective space for monotonous disciplinization.

⁹ See in: Гацова Свидерска, С (2018) Книжевността и политичкото насилство. Битола: Восток.
[Gadzova Sviderska, S (2018) Literature and the political violence. Bitola: Vostok]

¹⁰ Otherness understood in its broadest sense: friend, neighbor, ethnically different, racially different, the man from another country, another continent, the man with another religious affiliation.

The techniques of disciplinization that are offered and imposed on us through the media and the spokespersons of the government are exactly as described by Foucault in his work *Discipline and Punish*: the space is parceled, i.e. it tends to be divided into as many parts as there are bodies, i.e. elements that are subject to disciplinization. The space that is characteristic of discipline is a “cell space”, and consequently the “isolation technique” is included. What transcends Foucault's philosophical premises is the fact of a terrifying and unprecedented global disciplinization of humanity, whereby the world is turned from the “global village” of openness and circulation into a global prison of distance and isolation. There are two types of disciplinization: individual control through exclusion, i.e. implementation of discipline as blockade and excommunication that should lead to normalization of the abnormal, and second, constant surveillance and control, i.e. implementation of discipline as a functional mechanism that should improve the practice of power. Through the discourse and practice of restricting freedom of movement and the curfew, we can see the controls that the government exerts on the bodies, through the synchronization of the body with the temporal imperatives and the anatomical-chronological pattern of the behavior of the population. Disciplinary technologies themselves are in line with what is called “new normal”.

Let's now take discipline. I think it is indisputable, or hardly disputable, that discipline normalizes. Again we must be clear about the specificity of disciplinary normalization. (...) Discipline, of course, analyzes and breaks down; it breaks down individuals, places, time, movements, actions, and operations. It breaks them down into components such that they can be seen, on the one hand, and modified on the other. (...) Second, discipline classifies the components thus identified according to definite objectives (...) Disciplinary normalization consists first of all in positing a model, an optimal model that is constructed in terms of a certain result, and the operation of disciplinary normalization consists in trying to get people, movements, and actions to conform to this model, the normal being precisely that which can conform to this norm, and the abnormal that which is incapable of conforming to the norm. (Foucault 1978: 84-85).

Disciplinary normalization also includes medical discourses in conjunction with the mass media spectacle.¹¹ Foucault notes that the setting of the concept of “normality” by medicine dates back to the 19th century, emphasizing that

Nineteenth-century medicine, on the other hand, was regulated more in accordance with normality than with health; it formed its concepts and prescribed its interventions in relation to a standard of functioning and organic structure (...) Medicine must no longer be confined to a body of techniques for curing ill and of the knowledge that they require; it will also embrace a knowledge of healthy man, that is, a study of non-sick man and a definition of the model man. In the ordering of human existence it assumes a normative posture, which authorizes it not only to distribute advice as to healthy life, but also to dictate the standards for physical and moral relations of the individual and of the society in which he lives. (Foucault 1973:34-35).

The very process of disciplinization and normalization in our country, but also worldwide, is associated with a certain type of increased militarization of social processes and social control (implementation of curfew, assistance of members of the military for medical purposes such as taking swabs, etc.). Militarization and the “spectral presence of the police” (Derrida) turn

¹¹ See further in the text.

pandemic discourses into discourses and techniques of “total domination” (H.Arendt). Total domination, according to Arendt, seeks to organize the infinite plurality and differentiation of human beings as if the whole of humanity is one person, and this is only possible if each person is reduced to an unchanging identity of reactions, and this group of reactions can be replaced with any other. (Arendt 1951:203).

One of the mechanisms of total control is monitoring, i.e surveillance of people. During this pandemic, we are witnessing a global surveillance, through a global panopticon / panopticum. Surveillance makes visible and public many things that used to belong to the private sphere (movement, contacts, private life of citizens), or what used to belong to the domain of statistics or medical statistics, turns into a major topic in public discourse (daily reports of numbers of sick and deceased). It also creates a situation where people “can't see, but still can be monitored through various cybernetic devices: from mobile applications, through survey applications and social media interviews in order to assess the situation with Covid-19, up to physical surveillance through drones and quadcopters and emergency control by police officers” (N. Sardzoska).

A kind of plateau for the processes of disciplinization, disciplinary normalization and for the attempts for “total control” is certainly the phenomenon of the spectacle that we will deal with in the next chapter of this hermeneutical analysis of the pandemic.

The pandemic as a spectacle

In 1967, in his work *The Society of the Spectacle*, Guy Louis Debord warns that the development of modern society is linked to the fact that authentic life has been replaced by its representation. He says the history of social life can be understood as a transition from the state of “being”, through the state of “having/possessing”, to the transition to the state of “appearing”. According to him, the spectacle is an inverted image of society, where passive identification with the spectacle replaces real life activity. Spectacle is not a set of images, but a social connection between people through images. In his analysis of spectacular society, Debord notes that quality of life is impoverished and that such a lack of authenticity degrades the knowledge and inhibits critical thinking. The spectacle obfuscates the past, imploding it with the future into an undifferentiated mass, a type of never-ending present; in this way the spectacle prevents individuals from realizing that the society of spectacle is only a moment in history, one that can be overturned through revolution.

Following the situation with the coronavirus pandemic, we are confronted with a massive, global world spectacle, to such an extent that even the philosopher who conceived the societies of the spectacle could not have foreseen it. It is a multidimensional, multimedia and ubiquitous pandemic spectacle that covers global and local mass media, television, radio, press, social networks, Internet portals, creating an unprecedented hyperinformation and hypercommunication phenomenon that seeks to swallow up the entire social field. In conditions of established quarantine and global isolation, this global spectacle almost replaced the real life with its simulation, where the main topic is the tracking of statistics on infected, diseased and dead. In this sense, what is happening now is the phenomenon that long ago (before the era of social networks) was prophetically predicted by the French philosopher Jean Baudrillard: the degree of socialization is measured by the degree of exposure to media messages, and the inflation of information is directly

related to the deflation of sense. Information swallows its own content, it swallows both communication and the social.

Rather than creating communication, it exhausts itself in the act of staging communication. Rather than producing meaning, it exhausts itself in the staging of meaning. A gigantic process of simulation that is very familiar (...) Immense energies are deployed to hold this simulacrum at bay, to avoid the brutal desimulation that would confront us in the face of the obvious reality of a radical loss of meaning (...) Behind this exacerbated *mise-en-scène* of communication, the mass media, the pressure of information pursues an irresistible deconstruction of the social. ([Baudrillard 1981:54-55](#)).

The global pandemic spectacle seems to transcend the boundaries of the three types of spectacle that Debord describes: the concentrated, the diffuse, and the integrated spectacle. Penetrating into every cell and into every pore of social life, it breaks down all of the possible boundaries between private and public, local and regional, national and international, scientific and popular, factual and quasi-factual, factual and fictional, proven and falsified, medical and quasi-medical, creative and destructive, eschatological and apocalyptic, erotic and thanatological, and ultimately, human and inhuman.

Conclusion

Apart from being a kind of medical, biological, virological and epidemiological phenomenon, the pandemic that is happening to us in 2020 is primarily a social and humanistic phenomenon. It is followed by certain discourses and discursive techniques that promote the creation and maintenance of the so-called “new normality”, through the old-new methodologies of disciplinization and disciplinary normalization of human bodies. This new normality tends to a tectonic shift of the previous paradigms of understanding man and his position in the world as we know it. Most of all, the new normality aims to redefine the concepts of health and disease, and consequently the “normal” and “abnormal” affecting to a large extent human rights and freedoms. We believe that this phenomenon should continue to be analyzed and interpreted by humanists, because it is about man and the defense of human rights and freedoms.

Human rights and freedoms become collateral damage in the situation with the pandemics worldwide.

References:

Agamben, G (1995) *Homo sacer. Sovereign Power and Bare Life*. Stanford: Stanford University Press-Stanford.

Arendt, H. (1951) *The origins of totalitarianism*. New York: Schocken Books.

Baudrillard, J (1995) *Simulacra and Simulation*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press.

Debord, G (1967). *La société du spectacle*. Paris: Buchet-Chastel.

Гацова Свидерска, С. (2018) *Книжевноста и политичкото насилство*. Битола: Восток

Žižek, S. (2014) ”Od objekta do subjekta” In: *Zeničke sveske 20/14 časopis za društvenu fenomenologiju i kulturnu dijalogiku*. Zenica: Bosansko narodno pozorište Zenica. pp 108

Котеска, Ј (2006) Санитана енигма. Скопје: Темплум.

Kristeva, J (1982) The powers of horror (An Essay on Abjection). New York: Colombia University Press.

Сарџоска, Н (2020) “Виралните општества на спектаклот” Фокус. 27.05.2020 <https://fokus.mk/viralnite-opshtestva-na-spektaklot/>

Ќулавкова, К (2020) “Паноптикум или сеопфатен надзор” DW. 12.05.2020 <https://www.dw.com/mk/%D0%BF%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%BE%D0%BF%D1%82%D0%B8%D0%BA%D1%83%D0%BC-%D0%B8%D0%BB%D0%B8-%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BE%D0%BF%D1%84%D0%B0%D1%82%D0%B5%D0%BD-%D0%BD%D0%B0%D0%B4%D0%B7%D0%BE%D1%80/a-53406690>

Foucault, M (1977) Discipline and Punish. New York: Pantheon Books

Foucault, M (1978) The History of Sexuality Vol. 1. New York: Pantheon Books

Foucault, M (1978) Security, Territory, Population (Lectures at the College de France 1977-78). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Foucault, M (1973) The birth of the clinic. An Archaeology of Medical Perception. London: Routledge.

***The Balkans and Europe
in the postmodern
World economy***

**CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN INTRA-EU INVESTMENT PROTECTION AFTER
*ACHMEA***

Katarína Brocková, Simona Chuguryan, Rudolf Kucharčík

University of Economics in Bratislava, Slovakia, Faculty of International Relations,

Abstract

Investment arbitration proceedings between investors from EU Member States and other EU Member States as host states have played an important role in shaping the EU investment law environment in the past two decades. The *Achmea* decision of the CJEU has brought an abrupt end to this era of resolving investment disputes between EU investors and EU Member States. This trend has been further confirmed by the subsequent termination of all bilateral investment treaties between 23 EU Member States. This paper aims to analyze the potential effects these developments will have on the future investment law and investment arbitration regime in the EU as well as potential effects on investment law and investment arbitration regimes of future EU Member States.

Key words

Investment arbitration – investment law regime – Intra-EU BITs – *Achmea v. Slovak Republic* – EU Member States

Introduction

International investment arbitration proceedings involving investors from EU Member States on one side and EU Member States as host states to those investments on the other side (hereinafter „intra-EU investment arbitration“) have surged since the EU enlargement in 2004. Since most of the ‘new‘ EU Member States that joined the club in the new millenium have concluded bilateral investment agreements with the ‚old‘ EU Member States prior to their accession, these bilateral investment treaties remained formally in place. Their formal termination has been addressed only very recently. Before the era of international investment protection through bilateral and multilateral investment treaties containing investor-state arbitration clauses, the only recourse to justice for foreign investors was through national courts or diplomatic protection. Both options were less than likely to help achieve foreign investors any form of compensation for damages caused by the host state’s actions. As most of the international investment protection standards are aimed at protecting foreign investors against host state’s measures in breach of *e.g.* the most-favoured nation standard, the national treatment standard, fair and equitable treatment standard, minimum international standard, full protection and security standard, as well as guarantees of free transfer of funds and protection against unlawful expropriation, it is questionable whether national courts of the host state are the best venue to seek impartial justice and adequate compensation. Despite the obvious advantages of international investment arbitration as a means of materializing claims of private investors against host states in cases of their breach of international standards of investment protection guaranteed by the bilateral investment treaties, there have been contradicting opinions on the compatibility of these bilateral investment treaties between member states of the European Union (hereinafter „intra-EU BITs“) with EU law.

By way of example, since its accession to the European Union in 2004, the Slovak Republic faced 12 investment arbitrations, 9 of which were initiated by investors from other EU Member States (Poland in 1 case, Netherlands in 5 cases, Austria in 2 cases, joint claim by investors from France, Germany and Netherlands in 1 case). The issue of intra-EU investment arbitration has become increasingly controversial and has urged the European Commission to step in in several investment arbitration cases in order to voice its opinion.¹² In 2010 in *Eureko v. [The Slovak Republic]*, the European Commission submitted its written observation on the issue of compliance of the Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty (hereinafter „SK-NL BIT“) with existing mandatory provisions of EU law. The European Commission argued that: „[A]s a result of the supremacy of EU law vis-à-vis pre-accession treaties between Member States, conflicts between BIT provisions and EU law cannot be resolved by interpreting and applying the relevant EU law provisions in the light of the BIT. Only the inverse approach is possible, namely interpretation of the BIT norms in the light of EU law. The foregoing has implications as regards the ability of private parties (investors) to rely on provisions of an intra-EU BIT that are in conflict with EU law. Under EU law, a private party cannot rely on provisions in an international agreement to justify a possible breach of EU law. This includes resort to judicial settlement mechanisms that conflict with the EU judicial system. Furthermore, in the EU legal system, national legislation of an EU Member State that is incompatible with EU law does not become ‘invalid’; it merely cannot be applied where it conflicts with EU law. The same applies in the Commission’s view, to existing intra-EU BITs that contain provisions that are incompatible with EU law: neither the BIT as such nor the conflicting provisions become ‘invalid’; but they cannot be applied where they conflict with EU law.“¹³ Furthermore, the Commission stated that even in compliance with the general principles of law, “the conclusion cannot be any different: for all states that accede to the EU, the EU treaties are to be regarded as a ‘later treaty’, *lex posterior*.”¹⁴

Not all EU Member States, especially those where most of the investors engaged in intra-EU investment arbitrations were incorporated, shared the European Commission’s view regarding the inapplicability of intra-EU BITs in intra-EU investment arbitrations. According to the opinion of the government of The Netherlands in the *Eureko* case: “The Netherlands affirms again that the BIT in question in this dispute continues to be fully in force. Consequently, there is also no reason to doubt the jurisdiction of the Arbitral Tribunal in this dispute. Accordingly, Article 8 of the BIT, which prescribes international arbitration as a dispute settlement tool for disputes between an investor and a Contracting Party, is fully applicable. In the view of The Netherlands, European Union law aspects cannot and do not affect in a way the existing jurisdiction of this Arbitral Tribunal. Thus, this Arbitral Tribunal should fully exercise its jurisdiction and adjudicate this dispute.”¹⁵

However, it took another 8 years and a significant number of new intra-EU investment arbitrations before this issue was finally resolved by the Court of Justice of the European Union (hereinafter

¹² *Eastern Sugar B.V. (Netherlands) v. The Czech Republic*, (SCC Case No. 088/2004), was the first intra-EU investment arbitration proceedings, in which the European Commission voiced its opinion on the inapplicability of the intra-EU BITs

¹³ *Eureko B.V. (later Achmea B.V.) v. The Slovak Republic*, PCA Case No. 2008-13, Award on Jurisdiction, Arbitrability and Suspension of 26 October 2010, para. 180. Available online: http://www.worldcourts.com/pca/eng/decisions/2010.10.26_Eureko_BV_v_Slovakia.pdf

¹⁴ *Ibid.* at para. 181

¹⁵ *Ibid.* at para 161

also „CJEU“) as part of the proceeding to set aside the arbitral award issued in the case Achmea B.V. (formerly Eureko B.V.) v. The Slovak Republic.

The Achmea decision of the CJEU

In 2008, Eureko B.V. (later Achmea B.V.) initiated arbitration against the Slovak Republic based on Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty (1991)¹⁶. Eureko was a company incorporated in the Netherlands, which held and operated two insurance companies in the Slovak Republic. One of them was a healthcare insurance company affected by the law passed in 2006 by the Slovak parliament that introduced a ‚ban on profits‘ of healthcare insurance companies requiring them to use all profits from healthcare insurance for healthcare purposes. The claimants raised a number of substantive and procedural issues. One of the most pressing procedural issues was the „intra-EU jurisdictional objection“ addressed further above. Despite the jurisdictional objection raised by the Slovak Republic as respondent in the case supported by the European Commission’s observations submitted to the arbitration tribunal, the arbitration tribunal issued its final award on the merits in December 2012.¹⁷ According to this award, the Slovak Republic was expected to pay damages of EUR 22.1 Mio. to ACHMEA B.V. as a compensation for the breach of several standards of international investment protection as guaranteed by the bilateral investment treaty.

As Frankfurt am Main was the place of arbitration, subsequently, the Slovak Republic sought to set the arbitral award aside in German courts. The reason named for setting the award aside was the incompatibility of the bilateral investment treaty’s arbitration clause with EU law. In the first instance, the Higher Regional Court of Frankfurt declined Slovak Republic’s request to set the arbitral award aside as it found that that the dispute resolution clause in the Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty was in compliance with EU law.¹⁸ However, the Slovak Republic appealed this decision at the German Federal Supreme Court. In 2016, this court finally filed a request for a preliminary ruling with the Court of Justice of the European Union on the compatibility of the arbitration clause contained in the Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty with EU law, namely Articles 18, 267 and 344 TFEU. On 6 March 2018, a long awaited decision of the CJEU clarified the issue as follows:

„Articles 267 and 344 TFEU must be interpreted as precluding a provision in an international agreement concluded between Member States, such as Article 8 of the Agreement on encouragement and reciprocal protection of investments between the Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Czech and Slovak Federative Republic, under which an investor from one of those Member States may, in the event of a dispute concerning investments in the other Member State, bring proceedings against the latter Member State before an arbitral tribunal whose jurisdiction that Member State has undertaken to accept.“¹⁹ The reasons for such a conclusion were mainly the

¹⁶ Agreement on Encouragement and Reciprocal Protection of Investments Between the Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic, signed on 29 April 1991, entered into force on 1 October 1992.

¹⁷ACHMEA B.V. (formerly known as Eureko B.V.) v. The Slovak Republic, Final Award dated 7 December 2012. Available online: <https://www.italaw.com/sites/default/files/case-documents/italaw3206.pdf>

¹⁸ Oberlandesgericht Frankfurt am Main Beschl. v. 18.12.2014, Az.: 26 Sch 3/13, Wirksamkeit einer Schiedsklausel in einem bilateralen völkerrechtlichen Investitionsschutzabkommen Verfahrensgang

¹⁹ JUDGMENT OF THE COURT (Grand Chamber), dated 6 March 2018, Case C-284/16. Available online: https://www.italaw.com/sites/default/files/case-documents/italaw9548_0.pdf

adverse affect of an arbitration clause contained in the BIT on the autonomy of EU law and therefore incompatible with EU law. The possibility of an arbitral tribunal to interpret EU law posed a risk to the uniform and consistent application of EU law especially due to the fact that private arbitral tribunals are not entitled nor obliged to seek preliminary rulings from the CJEU in cases where interpretation of EU law is needed.

This ruling of the CJEU, which clearly confirmed the incompatibility of the arbitration clause in the Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty with EU law, came somewhat as a surprise, as prior to this Court's decision, the Advocate General of the CJEU, Mr. Wathelet, issued a contradicting opinion on this matter.²⁰ Nevertheless, on 31 October 2018, based on the CJEU's preliminary ruling, the German Federal Supreme Court set aside the arbitral award issued in the case of *ACHMEA B.V. v. The Slovak Republic*.

Following almost 15 years of legal uncertainty, in which in ongoing investment arbitrations some host states and the European Commission argued in their submissions against the applicability of the arbitration clauses in intra-EU bilateral investment treaties and investors and their home states argued to the contrary, this contentious issue had been finally resolved. Although not saluted unanimously by the legal and academic community, the binding nature of the CJEU's preliminary ruling for all national courts of all EU member states practically meant the end of effective intra-EU international investment arbitration. However, especially due to the fact that the intra-EU bilateral treaties were not automatically considered invalid, but only their arbitration clauses inapplicable due to their incompatibility with the EU law, the autonomous and independent nature of the arbitral tribunals allowed numerous intra-EU international investment arbitration proceedings to continue beyond this date. Nevertheless, post CJEU's *Achmea* preliminary ruling, the potential execution of their awards in the territory of the European Union would be less than likely as all national courts in the European Union are bound by the CJEU's interpretation of Articles 267 and 344 TFEU. Thus, in case of a motion to set such an arbitral award aside, any national court in the EU would be bound by the CJEU's view. Accordingly, it would be expected to annul such an arbitral award and refuse to enforce it due to the arbitral tribunal's lack of jurisdiction as a result of the absence of a valid arbitration agreement²¹.

In order to clear any doubts regarding the applicability of the intra-EU bilateral investment treaties and their arbitration clauses to investment disputes arising between investors from EU Member States against other EU Member States, the European Commission (hereinafter also „EC“) had launched a series of efforts to clarify this issue.

EC's efforts to define the scope of EU investment protection outside of BITs

Following the CJEU's *Achmea* judgement, it became clear that intra-EU investment arbitrations would be coming to an end. However, based on that decision the CJEU only confirmed that the arbitration agreements contained in the Slovakia-Netherlands bilateral investment treaty were not in compliance with EU law and thus inapplicable. The CJEU has not opined on the applicability

²⁰ Opinion of Advocate General Wathelet in *ACHMEA B.V. v. The Slovak Republic*, delivered on 19 September 2017. Available online: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A62016CC0284>

²¹ See Art. V of the United Nations Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards, New York 10 June 1958. Available online: <http://www.newyorkconvention.org/english>

of the substantive protections contained in the treaty. Thus, it has not been entirely clear what kind of protections equivalent to those contained in the intra-EU bilateral investment treaties, if any, would apply to EU investors in EU host states in the future, especially against national measures of EU Member States. Shortly after the CJEU's *Achmea* decision, the EC has published a Communication outlining its reasoning for the case of existing protection of intra-EU investment even in the absence of intra-EU bilateral investment treaties.²²

In its communication, the European Commission argued that all EU cross-border investments are protected by EU law throughout their lifecycle. EU law through the application of EU market freedoms and fundamental rights as well as extensive EU case law protects access to the market, operation on the market as well as exit from the market for any EU national. According to the European Commission, EU law sufficiently protects investors from unjustified restrictions by public authorities, which at any time have to comply with the general principles of EU law, such as proportionality, legal certainty and legitimate expectations. Most notably, the European Commission pointed out that economic operators, *i.e.* investors „cannot expect that an existing legal regime will always be maintained“.²³

Deriving from existing case law²⁴, the European Commission stated that in case of the adoption of a measure that negatively affects the interests of the investor, the Member State or the EU „must provide, where appropriate, adaptations to the new rules that would take account of the particular situation of the affected investors, unless an overriding reason of public interest prevents them from providing such adaptations“.²⁵

When it comes to the enforcement of investors' rights under EU law, the European Commission pointed out in its communication that contrary to the protection afforded by intra-EU bilateral investment agreements which mostly lies within the compensation of investors in case a violation of the treaty had taken place, the EU law provides a wider range of remedies available to cross-border investors within the EU. Judicial enforcement of rights ensuing from EU law is just one of several possibilities. Prior to resorting to judicial means, the EU law entails a system of preventative measures that are aimed at limiting EU law violations, such as prior scrutiny of national measures (that are subject to prior notifications) that could impair investors' rights under EU law (system of prior notification according to Article 108 TFEU), as well as the obligation of national administrative authorities to apply EU law effectively, interpret national law in accordance with EU law, set aside national rules contrary to EU law and undo the consequences of EU law violations (duty of sincere cooperation according to Article 4(3) TEU and the primacy of EU law).

In addition, in 2002 the European Commission and the Member States set up SOLVIT, an online service provided as a first step resort for resolving any case of alleged breach of EU rights of citizen or businesses by another EU Member State.

²² European Commission: Communication: Protection of Intra-EU Investment, Brussels, 19.7.2018, COM(2018) 547 final

²³ *Ibid.* at p. 15

²⁴ C-17/03 *VEMW*, ECLI:EU:C:2005:362, para. 81; C-201/08 *Plantanol*, ECLI:EU:C:2009:539, para. 49

²⁵ *Ibid.*

In case that non-judicial remedies and out-of court settlement of the issue at stake had not been successful, EU law provides a complete system of judicial remedies at EU and Member State level, each of which courts is obliged to effectively enforce rights ensuing from EU law. In case national measures would contradict EU law, the EU law primacy would ensure the EU rights of EU cross-border investors are protected.

Future of intra-EU bilateral investment treaties

Although the position of the European Commission had been clear for a long while, the legal uncertainty regarding the faith of the intra-EU bilateral investment treaties lingered. One of the significant steps taken towards clarifying this issue was the declaration on the legal consequences of the Achmea judgement and on investment protection issued by EU Member States on 15 January 2019.²⁶

According to this declaration, the EU Member States agreed to terminate the intra-EU bilateral investment treaties. With respect to ongoing intra-EU investment arbitration proceedings, the Member States pointed out that they will „ensure effective legal protection pursuant to the second subparagraph of Article 19(1) TEU under the control of the Court of Justice against State measures that are the object of pending intra-EU investment arbitration proceedings.“²⁷

On 5 May 2020, 23 EU Member States (4 EU Member States did not join the agreement: Austria, Ireland, Sweden, Finland) concluded a plurilateral agreement terminating the existing bilateral investment treaties between the Member States of the European Union²⁸. Once this agreement enters into force, it will bring to an end a long period of academic and expert discussions, thousands of hours and millions of euros spent on investment arbitration proceedings leading to awards that faced an uncertain outlook on enforcement, threats of EU law infringement proceedings to Member States applying intra-EU bilateral investment treaties despite their alleged contradiction with EU law. The formal agreement on the termination of these agreements will pave the way to a new era of EU investment protection. However, this will not be without new challenges as the scope of this protection is still not entirely practically clear and 4 EU Member States have decided not to join the agreement.

Parties to the agreement have agreed to terminate all pending intra-EU investment arbitrations and continue to seek remedies via national judicial systems or out-of-court settlements. According to the parties' agreement, the sunset clauses in BITs that allow investors to initiate investment arbitration proceedings against host states several years after the termination of the BITs, shall be deactivated as well. The agreement shall enter into force following ratification, approval or acceptance by at least two signatories.

²⁶ Declaration of the Member States of 15 January 2019 on the legal consequences of the Achmea judgement and on investment protection. Available online: https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/business_economy_euro/banking_and_finance/documents/190117-bilateral-investment-treaties_en.pdf

²⁷ Ibid, at para. 6

²⁸ Agreement for the Termination of Bilateral Investment Treaties between the Member States of the European Union, 29.5.2020, Official Journal of the European Union, L 169/1. Available online: [https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22020A0529\(01\)&from=EN](https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22020A0529(01)&from=EN)

For EU Member States that acceded to the EU only after most of their bilateral investment treaties with other EU Member States were already in force, such as the Slovak Republic, this development shall mean that 16 out of 56 total BITs concluded by the Slovak Republic so far will be terminated. It remains to be seen whether Austria, Sweden and Finland will eventually join this agreement on termination of the intra-EU BITs.²⁹ As Slovakia was a very frequent target of investment arbitrations initiated by investors from other EU Member States, it will now be an interesting area of observation and analysis whether court proceedings initiated by foreign investors against government measures will pick up at a comparable frequency. For prospective EU members, such as North Macedonia, the moment of accession to the European Union would mean that North Macedonia would be expected to join the plurilateral agreement and terminate its existing bilateral investment treaties concluded with other EU Member States before its accession.

Conclusion

The saga of the intra-EU investment substantive and procedural protection has been a long debated contentious issue. Ever since the EU enlargement in 2004, the European Commission has argued against the applicability of intra-EU BITs due to a number of reasons vested primarily in its contradiction with EU law. *Inter alia*, naming risks such as potential discrimination of investors who did not have recourse to investment arbitration or jeopardising the autonomy of EU law due to allowing independent private arbitral tribunals to decide legal matters involving the application of EU law without the recourse to CJEU in case of need of interpretation of any of its provisions.

The Achmea decision of the CJEU in the case against the Slovak Republic has brought an end to the speculation on the applicability of the intra-EU BITs. However, the scope of the substantive provisions for the protection of foreign investment within the EU single market has not been entirely clarified despite the attempts of the European Commission to outline such a legal framework. Due to the vast area of potential national measures that may negatively affect EU investors in other EU Member States and also due to the lack of jurisprudence of national courts in these matters, it is impossible to predict which course this type of investment protection will take in the near future. National courts in the 'new' EU Member States (those that became EU Member States in 2004 and beyond) will need to adopt to a whole new area of expertise and apply EU law to a much larger extent than they were previously required. Hopefully, this will enhance the efforts and speed up the process of national judicial systems transformation in order to meet the requirements of this new normal for investment protection in general.

²⁹ Ireland is not signatory to any bilateral investment agreement

Bibliography:

Agreement on Encouragement and Reciprocal Protection of Investments Between the Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic, signed on 29 April 1991, entered into force on 1 October 1992.

Agreement for the Termination of Bilateral Investment Treaties between the Member States of the European Union, 29.5.2020, Official Journal of the European Union, L 169/1. Available online:

[https://eurex.europa.eu/legalcontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22020A0529\(01\)&from=EN](https://eurex.europa.eu/legalcontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22020A0529(01)&from=EN)

ACHMEA B.V. (formerly known as Eureko B.V.) v. The Slovak Republic, Final Award dated 7 December 2012. Available online: <https://www.italaw.com/sites/default/files/case-documents/italaw3206.pdf>

C-17/03 VEMW, ECLI:EU:C:2005:362, para. 81; C-201/08 Plantanol, ECLI:EU:C:2009:539, para. 49

Declaration of the Member States of 15 January 2019 on the legal consequences of the Achmea judgement and on investment protection. Available online:

https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/business_economy_euro/banking_and_finance/documents/190117-bilateral-investment-treaties_en.pdf

Eastern Sugar B.V. (Netherlands) v. The Czech Republic, (SCC Case No. 088/2004). Available online: https://www.italaw.com/sites/default/files/case-documents/ita0261_0.pdf

Eureko B.V. (later Achmea B.V.) v. The Slovak Republic, PCA Case No. 2008-13, Award on Jurisdiction, Arbitrability and Suspension of 26 October 2010, para. 180. Available online: http://www.worldcourts.com/pca/eng/decisions/2010.10.26_Eureko_BV_v_Slovakia.pdf

European Commission: Communication: Protection of Intra-EU Investment, Brussels, 19.7.2018, COM(2018) 547 final JUDGMENT OF THE COURT (Grand Chamber), dated 6 March 2018, Case C-284/16. Available online: https://www.italaw.com/sites/default/files/case-documents/italaw9548_0.pdf

Oberlandesgericht Frankfurt am Main Beschl. v. 18.12.2014, Az.: 26 Sch 3/13, Wirksamkeit einer Schiedsklausel in einem bilateralen völkerrechtlichen Investitionsschutzabkommen Verfahrensgang Opinion of Advocate General Wathelet in ACHMEA B.V. v. The Slovak Republic, delivered on 19 September 2017. Available online: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A62016CC0284>

United Nations Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards, New York 10 June 1958. Available online: <http://www.newyorkconvention.org/english>

WHY SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS ARE NEEDED NOW MORE THAN EVER

Stefan Chichivaliev and Tomislav Ortakovski

Sustainable Development Center in Skopje

Abstract

The pandemic caused by Covid-19 has brought the world to its knees. Despite adopted governmental measures, countries' systems have failed to offer the economic and social security for communities and families. Such development has added to the number of the most vulnerable in all categories, establishing the need for new models and approaches that would help and support the already diminished systems. The emergence of the social entrepreneurship as a new economic model that utilizes business activities for economic gain that is invested in addressing social issues, defines its modus operandi. Social entrepreneurs should be recognized as potential leaders in mitigating social issues while contributing to economic recuperation. The evidence has showed that despite the lack of governmental and institutional recognition, legal identity and organization legitimacy, social enterprises provide impact in the society on various levels and fields. By utilizing in-depth interviews with ten social entrepreneurs from North Macedonia and Kosovo, this paper analyses the social entrepreneurship ecosystem through the legislative framework, access to finance and markets and support mechanisms, and showcases the need for social entrepreneurship development in the Western Balkans. The current crisis only emphasizes the need for supporting and developing of future social entrepreneurs as the new leaders in the economic and social sphere.

Keywords: Social entrepreneurship, social enterprise, crises, Western Balkans, eco-system

Introduction

As COVID-19 continues to spread across the world, its social and economic impacts hit the most vulnerable the hardest (WHO, 2020). The pandemic is a health emergency of international concern and with a global, complex, and protracted negative implications. The toll on human life is already huge, as is the toll on the socio-economic systems of the countries. The pandemic is a threat to the economic and social security of states, communities, and families.

Governments imposed large-scale lockdowns, travel restrictions, physical distancing and quarantine for billions of people across the vast interconnected world of today, with impacts that are currently primarily monitored, but remain to be fully assessed after the crises. However, relevant projections already provide information on the gravity of the socio-economic impact of COVID-19.

The International Labor Organization (ILO) is projecting a decline of working hours by around 6.7% globally, which is equivalent to 230 million full-time workers, considering a 40-hour working week, with the most significant losses expected in upper-middle-income countries. For Europe, estimates lie at 6%, affecting around 23.6 million workers (ILO, 2020).

World Bank scenarios for Europe suggest "regional growth will fall into a recession in 2020, contracting between -4.4 to -2.8 percent, held back by the coronavirus pandemic, and rebound subsequently to roughly 5.6 to 6.1 percent in 2021 as policy measures are introduced, global commodity prices gradually recover, and trade strengthens" (World Bank, 2020, p.7).

In the European Union, the European Commission predicts that real GDP growth in 2020 might fall to below zero or even be substantially negative because of the COVID-19.

In the Western Balkans, the countries have also introduced “containment measures which is expected to result in a notable contraction across the region. The Western Balkan economies are particularly affected through several channels” (OECD, 2020, p.1).

The COVID-19 crisis adds to the number of the most vulnerable in all the categories, with low-income groups, unemployed people and people working under precarious labor conditions, children, older adults, informal economy workers, migrants, and youth especially vulnerable.

The economic and social crisis arising from the pandemic require a new approach, a new economic model to tackle social issues and reduce the subsequent effects from COVID-19. Social entrepreneurship utilizes business activities for economic gain which is, in turn, invested in activities addressing social issues, defining its *modus operandi*. Its emergence in the past couple of decades has taken the world by storm and became a subject of public debate (Chichevaliev, 2019a). Social entrepreneurship’s continuously growing recognition and acceptance as a new economic model that brings innovative solutions to social issues has contributed to the adoption of new legislative frameworks, development of supporting infrastructure, provision of institutional support and funding from international and domestic institutions and organizations.

The European Union has recognized social entrepreneurship and its potential and has shifted its focus on creating enabling environment for its development, promotion and support (European Parliament, 2017). The European Commission also supported the development of the field by launching ‘The Social Business Initiative’ in 2011. The commitment to support social entrepreneurship development is increasing on a regional and national level.

The fact that almost 10% of the Europe’s enterprises are social enterprises which are employing 6.5% of the workforce or around 14.5 million people (European Commission, 2011; Monzón & Chaves, 2012) promotes the importance and need for social entrepreneurship today more than ever. It also emphasizes their importance in tackling issues of importance to different communities in ways that those communities feel at ease with.

However, on the Western Balkans the situation was very different. Stemming from the common societal ideological systems, the WB countries share a historical background that assured high employment and it provided an adequate material living standard in an environment characterized by largely-absent political rights and freedoms (Blair et al., 2003). Nowadays, the socio-economic state of the region is in a condition where social issues are increasingly adding to the already unstable and fragile state (Freedom House, 2019). Social enterprises have recognized this gap and have come into sight by contributing to the alleviation and mitigation of social issues, but governments still do not recognize their true potential. Social enterprises remain burdened with many challenges that hinder their development and sector growth in general, even though they are best suited to address different socio-economic issues and emergencies on the ground.

In this paper, qualitative methodology is applied, using document analysis and in-depth interviews to showcase the need of social entrepreneurship development in the Western Balkan as an answer to a variety of economic and social issues, including dealing with the consequences of the current COVID-19 crises. The evidence demonstrate that social entrepreneurship contributes to the transformation of the global economic model and alleviates and mitigates traditional and contemporary social issues.

The Need for Social Entrepreneurship Development in the Western Balkans

Social Entrepreneurship is a new global concept that uses business models and activities to raise resources and apply them for alleviating and mitigating social issues such as poverty, unemployment, social exclusion and other related issues contributing to the deterioration of the quality of life (Chichevaliev, 2019b). In the past decade, this nascent field has been recognized globally by international organizations and many governments. However, the understanding of what it means to be a social entrepreneur, to start a social enterprise or to research and write on social entrepreneurship varies, with no general agreement (Alegre, 2013).

In the Western Balkans, the lack of political stability, as one of the key factors for development of the sector, has excessive negative impact on the social economy (Poon, 2011; Chowdhury et al., 2013; Medina & Belanger, 2017). Lack of legal definition and framework, funding, institutional support and data for social entrepreneurship are prevalent in most countries on the Balkan Peninsula (Phillips et al., 2016). These challenges, coupled with the overall lack of policy and strategic approach, highlight the importance of designing, fostering and furthering conducive ecosystems that effectively support social enterprises.

The lack of an encompassing definition of social enterprises on national level contributes to existence of variety of definitions, in turn increasing the challenges with their legal identity and organizational forms. It also widens the gap regarding their role in society and increases the adoption of hybrid models. The lack of funding and difficulties in accessing the same resources as traditional business, contribute to the development of the hybrid models for social enterprises. To bridge the financial challenges, social enterprises are combining and interconnecting their social mission with a commercial enterprise (Pache & Santos, 2013; Chichevaliev, 2019b). Foster & Bradach (2005) also add that such development poses a risk for distancing the social entrepreneurs from their social mission.

Legislative Framework

Legal frameworks bring clarity by defining the nature, mission and activities of social enterprises. By granting them recognition and visibility, they help policy makers support social enterprises through different levers (including fiscal measures), and they help funders and investors understand the benefits of providing funds to social enterprises (OECD/European Union, 2017). Although an appropriate legal framework is needed, it is important to carefully evaluate whether new legislation is needed or the adaptation of the existing framework is a better solution. TUSEV, a Turkish advocacy organization, consulted with the Turkish Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Development and concluded that the best way to create an enabling legal environment for social enterprises was not by the passage of new laws, but by regulating the existing framework through circulars (guidance) and communications made by Ministries (OECD/European Union, 2013).

Regarding the types of legal entities, country experience demonstrates that creating a specific legal form that is adapted to the needs of social enterprises provide two clear advantages: it enables the countries to respond to the specific challenges faced by the social enterprises and it removes the complexity of seeking to adapt pre-existing forms to social enterprise (Triponel and Agapitova, 2017).

Access to Finance and Markets

Access to finance is key throughout social enterprises' life cycle. Depending on their development stage, social enterprises derive financing from a combination of resources, ranging from subsidies

and debt instruments to equity, patient capital and impact investments (OECD/European Union, 2016).

To be sustainable, social enterprises require access to public and private markets. Policy makers could [and should] support various instruments to this end, such as: 1) encouraging the use of social clauses in public procurement, both at the national and local levels; 2) supporting socially responsible procurement by private companies and facilitating their relations with social enterprises; 3) levelling the playing field, by allowing social enterprises to access the same enabling policy measures provided to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), as well as tailoring support to their specific features; and 4) encouraging and supporting managerial training for social entrepreneurs (possibly by developing university-level taught courses on social enterprise management) (OECD/European Union, 2017).

Support Mechanisms

Social enterprises have specific features which create complex needs demanding diversified solutions. While it is desirable that business support agencies for conventional businesses deal with social enterprises and support them, there is also a need for specialized support agencies (Daniele et al., 2009). Some of these support strategies and structures promote quality improvement strategies for the goods and services produced by social enterprises (e.g. services charters and quality certification). These services are often provided by organizations targeting the upgrading of networks of social enterprise and systems at national and local levels. Thus, membership organizations for social enterprises can be seen as support structures which are emerging along with the rise of social enterprise (Leś and Kolin, 2012).

On the other hand, governments strive to build conducive ecosystems to support the development and growth of social enterprises in different stages of development and according to the specificities of their business models. The institutional framework also needs to be coherent and coordinated across policy areas. In this regard, a coordination mechanism can ensure coherence across government departments or agencies (horizontally) and between national, regional, and local government levels (vertically). At the same time, the institutional framework needs to be inclusive, ideally co-created with the stakeholders that are part of the wider ecosystem (OECD Center for Entrepreneurship et al, 2020).

Social enterprises have the potential to significantly contribute to the realization of a number of policies of central and local governments, especially when it comes to reducing unemployment and poverty, increasing social cohesion, furthering of human rights, and providing relief from emergency situations. With the countries' social and economic systems crumbling down in times of crises, the need for development of social entrepreneurship in the region has been stressed as one of the possible novel solutions for filling the voids left by the countries' systems.

Methodology

Method

For the purpose of this paper qualitative methodology is used. In depth interviews were utilized to gather primary data, which helped the researchers to better understand the state of play, conditions, experiences, and events from social entrepreneurs' personal perspective. Analysis of texts and documents, such as government reports, media articles, and websites, helped to learn about distributed knowledge (Hammarberg et al., 2016).

Sample

Purposeful sampling was applied in this research paper. Ten in-depth interviews on diverse locations were selected to assess the need for social entrepreneurship development throughout the Western Balkans. The interviews were conducted with the founders of the enterprises. Five interviews were conducted in Kosovo, cities of Prishtina and Gjilan, and the other five in North Macedonia, cities of Skopje, Kichevo and Radovish. Both, urban and rural areas of the countries were covered with the research, while the interviewed organizations are engaged in diverse economic activities such as: 3D printing, hand crafted arts and souvenirs, green enterprises, textile business, artisan cheeses and other.

The selection was made out of 40 social enterprises who answered the call to present their stories, experiences and impact as main criteria.

Analysis

Thematic analysis was applied. The themes were selected based on the criteria for selection of interviewees i.e. experience and impact. The in-depth interviews were audio recorded and uploaded to the Text Analysis Markup System (TAMS), a qualitative coding and analysis program, mainly recognized as TAMS Analyzer. The audio recordings were transcribed in computer software Microsoft Word. Then, the themes and subthemes were coded and analyzed. Two central themes were constructed – experience and impact, and subthemes related to the set criteria.

The themes and subthemes were coded as the initial step of the analysis. Then, patterns across data were identified and the connections between the work of the social enterprises, the experience of the social entrepreneurs and the achieved impact. The final step was drawing conclusions from the data and discussing the results.

Limitations

The main limitation of this paper was the time-period of the field-research. This process started in the last week of February 2020, and provided us with contemporary data on the countries' ecosystems and social enterprises experience and achieved impact. In March 2020, quarantine was placed in North Macedonia and throughout most of the Western Balkan states, which made it difficult to pinpoint the sample and conduct the in-depth interviews. This issue was overcome by including specifically targeted social enterprises with public and evident social impact in three fields – green economy, work integration and social inclusion.

The other limitations are more frequent and include the critiques of qualitative research such as the issue of generalization and replication of the research. These limitations have been mitigated by focusing on the organization development and contemporary needs of the social enterprises, as well as the issues faced in the social entrepreneurship ecosystem. Using the triangulation method, the data was confirmed and has provided evidence why social entrepreneurship is needed now more than ever.

Results and Discussion

In times of crisis and in their aftermath, it is of crucial importance how governments react to protect the most vulnerable. That depends on the robustness of their current social systems and the capacity to significantly improve them, specifically through the instruments for governance for wellbeing: strengthening rules and regulations to boost innovation and novel incentives to mitigate the consequences.

Sophisticated measures are needed to provide for social protection and its sustainability: introducing or expanding sickness benefits, short-time work benefits that support enterprises in retaining workers during droughts in demand, extending unemployment protection coverage and benefits levels, and reinforcing social assistance and social services.

Social enterprises in the region, especially in North Macedonia and Kosovo, face multiple difficulties in their practice. The lack of government effectiveness to provide quality of public and civil services has directly and adversely affected social entrepreneurship development. This influences the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies.

In this research, three dimensions are analyzed encompassing a) the legislative framework; b) access to finance and markets; and c) support mechanisms, based on the social entrepreneurs and their enterprises experience and practice.

The newest developments showcase that social enterprises are on the crossroad when it comes to the issue of legislation, with their attitudes varying between the two extremes. The issue with provision of legal identity is a two bladed sword. Providing social enterprises with legal identity could prove to be the right position for the development of the social entrepreneurship since it would allow for tailored policy development, provide clarification and differentiate social entrepreneurship from other notions. It would also contribute to the increase of research opportunities since it would make easier to identify social enterprises. The other side of the blade is the possibility of overregulation and rigid frameworks which would put social enterprises in a certain framework contributing to the loss of creativity and innovation.

Different approaches in legally defining the concept and scope of social enterprises and entrepreneurship are adopted throughout the Western Balkan countries. While Kosovo and Albania have adopted laws on social entrepreneurship that focus on social inclusion, the other countries are yet to adopt such decisions, with Serbia and North Macedonia having draft laws in different stages of the legislative process, focusing on reducing unemployment and poverty, and social inclusion. The situation in North Macedonia is particularly complicated, taking into account the drafting process started around 2010, with the first official draft finalized in 2012.

The enterprises mainly promote the idea of regulation, but the lack of trust in government institutions and commitment to implementation of the contemporary policies has blurred the vision of what is befitting for their development. Lack of trust is a much larger issue and goes far beyond its implications on social entrepreneurship.

The scarce sources of funding and hindered access to available funding have put social enterprises in an unfavorable position of being grant oriented instead of fulfilling their social mission and the needs of the target groups. The grey area in which social enterprises are operating, between the commercial and non-profit sector, has added to their already burdened access to funding, since the donors, governmental institutions and the private sector cannot figure out to which sector they belong. Also, this grey area perpetuates the lack of understanding of the work of social enterprises and their mission-driven attitudes between potential funders, which results in even more constrained sources of funding.

Funds can be obtained through “traditional means” by competitively offering goods and services to clients; through various national and international programs, granting and donor schemes; through private donations, crowd funding and various fund-raising activities; as well as through charity-based action. Regardless of how the funds are obtained, the distinct advantage of social enterprises is their social mission that is inseparable from their *modus operandi*.

One aspect that united the participants in this research was the fact that they all have reached out to local, national and international granting schemes to secure additional funding. However, the majority of them is yet to receive any kind of structured support in this regard, while the ones that have received it try to utilize it in support of their main economic activities, given the small amounts being distributed.

Similar issues are observed regarding the support and available mechanisms for development of social entrepreneurship. The lack of supporting instruments for social enterprises such as mentoring, consulting, technical assistance is leaving social enterprises in limbo and, sometimes, on the verge of collapse.

The main ideas behind any social enterprise and throughout its internal organization are a social mission, a sense of oneness with a target group/community and a conviction that seeks to alleviate people out of current circumstances. By definition, social entrepreneurs are not business-savvy, market experts, nor they know how to present their mission or results to donors. This reality calls for action and makes the overwhelming need for establishing and furthering support structures for development of an enterprise obvious.

Fostering development of an enabling ecosystem and developing instruments that support growth of social enterprises requires institutional recognition of their organizational structure and legal form, which the region lacks.

The interconnectedness of these dimensions is indisputable and public policies present the link between them. Creation of sustainable and coherent policies supports the development of social entrepreneurship, but also increase policy dialogue and cooperation. The main democratic principles of inclusiveness and transparency of policy making processes have to be ensured in order to offer solutions that will have the intended impact. Throughout the research, none of the interviewed social entrepreneurs stated that they have been invited to participate in any policy creation process. This further illustrates both, the present understanding of the concept of social enterprises, and the limited possibilities for short and mid-term developments in this field in the Western Balkan countries.

Despite the lack of sector development, social entrepreneurs still have a role to play by providing relief from emergency situations such as COVID-19. Effective and comprehensive social protection systems are critical for households and individuals to build resilience for social and economic shocks as COVID-19, and to enable those to overcome immediate challenges and aftershocks.

The evidence from the COVID-19 crises showed that the governments are not properly equipped to deal with the social issues and security without the help of change agents such as social entrepreneurs. Social entrepreneurs support transitioning and recovery from such crises by expending and rehabilitating social services to create systemic change to the benefit of the most vulnerable groups (for instance poor and lower-income families).

A positive example for a social enterprise that is contributing to the mitigation of social issues in times of crises is the social enterprise “HumanaS” lead by the Association “Humanost” (translation: Humanity). They have formed a mobile team for the purpose of greater collective security and prevention of the COVID-19. Due to the emerging situation, and in order not to make direct contact with other persons and to expose themselves to additional danger, all adults over 60 years of age on the territory of the Municipality of Centar who are weak and in poor health can ask for help. Their mobile team, respecting all precautions, will come to their home, provide them with the necessary assistance and support, and provide them with the necessary food, hygiene and/or medication. These activities are undertaken in collaboration with the Municipality of Centar (in the center of Skopje).

Such examples showcase the core of social entrepreneurship, but also an opportunity for social enterprise to reach their potential as change makers. The example also shows that the partnership between national and local authorities and social enterprises is crucial for scaling the economic and social impact of both social enterprises and authorities.

Currently, governments have a unique chance to boost social entrepreneurship for faster recovery in their efforts to provide sustainable social security, income, jobs, and resilience. Partnering with social entrepreneurs is vital for the Governments to help to develop an effective and agile response to the crises for better social systems that care for all and leave no one behind.

Social entrepreneurs during crises support the well-being of the populations through working with governments and financial institutions in different ways, including co-creating economic and productive opportunities to aid and provide information to the most vulnerable people on official government information; crisis management; practical advice and preventive measures in physical and psychological health: financial resilience - managing finances in times of crisis among others.

Thus, the need for collaboration and partnership with social entrepreneurs as key agents for creating well-being for all, with the focus on the most vulnerable. They operate on the verge of the engagement of the government and social partners and act to fulfill the deficit in capacities of the state for outreach and families and individuals to provide for the health, education, and other services.

Countries that support social entrepreneurs can benefit on the long run since they can offer various possibilities to facilitate the transition and recovery in times of crises. Social entrepreneurs can provide support and services for the most affected population groups such as a) care for elderly, migrants and other vulnerable groups; b) education for children and vulnerable adults, youth, and other; c) provision of creative, innovative, agile, flexible and motivating ways to fix the most challenging social issues (wide range of action from developing IT solutions for social and health care emergency response to individual needs of the most vulnerable, creating solutions to bridge the information gap and provide timely and necessary information to increase social literacy, and distant learning/counseling, to physical outreach and transportation to improve physical access to essential social services); d) work integration possibilities by employing the most vulnerable and thus increase the base of those enrolled in social protection and reduce informality; e) educating and increasing literacy and thus contributing to growing human capabilities and human capital, addressing economic and social exclusion and building social cohesion and peace; and d) providing a quick and effective response to shocks when they appear.

Conclusion

The current global crises have shown that the existing economic and social systems cannot cope with the new challenges. The systems are already collapsing despite all the efforts to sustain the damage. The need for innovative solutions that would address issues and provide a helping hand to the economic and social systems to mitigate the already unrepairable harm is evident. Social entrepreneurs can provide the much-needed assistance and support, by merging the economic outcomes with novel solutions to social issues.

Unlike governments that are faceless, bureaucratic and rigid, social enterprises exist to improve the situation of their target groups, which makes them recognizable, adaptable and quick to act. These qualities cannot be duplicated by any governmental agency, which highlights the need for effective and efficient government action to set up a system for supporting success of social enterprises. It is in this sense that social enterprises can fulfil their potential and be catalysts for change.

The governments and social partners need to act now and recognize the mandate and added values of social entrepreneurs, to significantly invest in economic well-being and in relevant sectoral policies, rules, and legislation, to enable and ease the way to contracting social entrepreneurs, to facilitate capacity building of the social entrepreneurs for taking responsibility for public funds and recruit social entrepreneurs on continuous bases, and provide for the sustainability of their engagement. Partnering with social entrepreneurs is vital for the Governments to help the development of an effective and agile response to the crises for better social systems, leaving no one behind.

Social entrepreneurs are needed today more than ever and can thrive if given the opportunity to do so.

References:

Alegre, I. (2013). What Do We Mean by Social Entrepreneurship: A Definitional Analysis Paper presented at the International Social Innovation Research Conference 2013, Oxford

Balkan Social Enterprise Research Network. (2017) Social Enterprise Developments in the Balkans. Skopje

Blair H, Popovski M, Trajkovski I. (2003) Assessment of the Civil Society Sector in Macedonia. Skopje. Report for USAID/Macedonia (Washington: Development Associates, 28 August)

Chichevaliev S. (2019a) Conductive Factors for Development and Promotion of Social Entrepreneurship in North Macedonia. *Journal of European and Balkan Perspectives*, 2(1), p.63-74

Chichevaliev S. (2019b) Conductive Factors for Development and Promotion of Social Entrepreneurship in Sweden. Proceedings of the 3rd International Scientific Conference on Business and Economics, South East European University, Faculty of Business and Economics, Skopje, 584-594

Chowdhury S.M. Alam Z. Arif I. (2013) Success Factors of Entrepreneurs of Small and Medium Sized Enterprises: Evidence from Bangladesh, *Business and Economic Research*, Vol.3, No.2

Daniele D. Johnson T. Zandonai F. (2009) “Networks as Support structures for Social Enterprises” In A. Noya (ed.) *The Changing Boundaries of Social Enterprises*, OECD, Paris

European Commission. (2020) Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, The European Council, The Council, The European Central Bank, The European Investment Bank, and The Eurogroup. Available: https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/communication-coordinated-economic-response-covid19-march-2020_en.pdf (visited on 05.05.2020)

European Commission. (2011) Social Business Initiative

Foster, W. Bradach, L. J. (2005). Should Nonprofits Seek Profits?, *Harvard Business Review*, Issue: February 2005

Freedom House. (2019) Freedom in the World. Available: <https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/2019/democracy-retreat> (visited on 12.05.2020)

Hammarberg K. Kirkman M. Lacey De S. (2016) Qualitative research methods: when to use them and how to judge them. *Human Reproduction*, 31(3), p.498-501

ILO. (2020) Youth hit hard by COVID-19’s economic fallout. Available: https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/multimedia/video/institutional-videos/WCMS_741948/lang--en/index.htm (visited on 05.05.2020)

ILO. (2020) COVID-19 causes devastating losses in working hours and employment. Available: https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_740893/lang--en/index.htm. (visited on 05.05.2020)

ILO. (2020). Updated estimates and analysis. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/documents/briefingnote/wcms_740877.pdf (visited on 05.05.2020)

Leś, E, Kolin M (2012) “East-Central Europe”, In J. A. Kerlin (ed.), *Social Enterprise: A Global Comparison*, Tufts University Press, London

Medina M. Belanger C.M. (2017). Analyzing external environment factors affecting social enterprise development. 13(1), p.78-103

Monzón, J. L. Chaves, R. (2012) The Social Economy in European Union, The European Economic and Social Committee. Available: <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/resources/docs/qe-30-12-790-en-c.pdf> (visited on 13.05.2019)

OECD. (2020) Evaluating the initial impact of COVID-19 containment measures on economic activity. Available: <https://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/evaluating-the-initial-impact-of-covid-19-containment-measures-on-economic-activity/> [Visited on 05.05.2020].

OECD Center for Entrepreneurship, SMEs, Regions and Cities and the Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion of the European Commission (2020) Overview: what is a supportive institutional framework. Available <https://betterentrepreneurship.eu/en/node/53> (visited on 12.05.2020)

OECD/European Union. (2017) Boosting Social Enterprise Development: Good Practices Compendium (visited on 11.05.2020)

OECD/European Union. (2016) Policy Brief on Scaling the Impact of Social Enterprises: Policies for Social Entrepreneurship (visited on 11.05.2020)

OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (Covid-19) (2020) A Systemic Resilience Approach to Dealing with Covid-19 and Future Shocks. Available: <http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/a-systemic-resilience-approach-to-dealing-with-covid-19-and-future-shocks-36a5bdfb/>. (visited on 13.05.2020)

OECD. (2020) 'Supporting People and Companies to Deal with the COVID-19 Virus: Options for an Immediate Employment and Social-Policy Response'. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. https://oecd.dam-broadcast.com/pm_7379_119_119686-962r78x4do.pdf.

Pache A.C. Santos F. (2013) Inside the hybrid organization: Selective coupling as a response to conflicting institutional logics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56, 972–1001

Poon D. (2011) The Emergence and Development of Social Enterprise Sectors. *Social Impact Research Experience Journal*. (SIRE). Wharton School.8

Phillips J. De Amicis L. Lipparini F. (2016) Social Entrepreneurship in the Western Balkans: State of Play. Available: http://www.pytest.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/se-in-w-balkans_state-of-play.pdf (visited on 10.05.2020)

Triponeț A. Agapitova N. (2017) Structuring and Defining Social Enterprise – Legal Frameworks for Social Enterprise. <https://triponețconsulting.com/2017/04/05/structuring-and-defining-social-enterprise/> (visited on 11.05.2020)

<https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2013/02/the-role-of-social-entrepreneurs/>

World Bank. (2020) World Bank Economic Update Spring 2020, Fighting COVID 19. Available <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/33476/9781464815645.pdf?deliveryName=DM58536> (visited on 12.05.2020)

World Health Organization. (2020) Coronavirus Covid-19. Available: <http://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-emergencies/coronavirus-covid-19> (visited on 05.05.2020)

**ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND PUBLIC SECTOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP: FUTURE
CHALLENGE FOR THE REPUBLIC OF NORTH MACEDONIA**

Assoc. Prof. Branko Dimeski PhD

Assoc. Prof. Anastas Gjurovski PhD

Rudnicka str. 6.6., 6250 Kicevo, St. Kliment Ohridski University,
Faculty of Law, Kicevo, North Macedonia, and

Assoc. Prof. Memet Memeti PhD

South East European University, Faculty of Contemporary Social
Sciences, Tetovo, North Macedonia

Abstract

The concept of entrepreneurship is one of the most exploited concepts in the economic, social, cultural and political literature. It is a very general and very important aspect of the everyday economic activities within the society that consistently calls for application of innovations, flexibility, risk taking, creativity, professionalism etc. Besides the fact that, on a first place as a concept is fully recognizable and exploited in the private sector, in recent years in the literature there are growing attempts to study the application and effects of the entrepreneurship in public sector organizations. Thus, the goals of the paper are to make analysis of the key importance of the entrepreneurship in the public sector regarding the concept of general entrepreneurship applied in the private sector. In addition, the goal is to assess the creation of public value and its relation with applying the concept of entrepreneurship in the public sector. Consequently, one of the most important goals is to evaluate the current efforts undertaken by the Republic of North Macedonia in implementing entrepreneurship in private and public sector organizations. Mostly, in doing the research, the historical method and method of analysis is used. The results of the research point out that applying entrepreneurship in public sector organizations is crucial in creating public value in society. However, besides the huge efforts undertaken by the Governments of North Macedonia in the past in order to promote the entrepreneurship in the society, the country must undertake serious steps in the future for promoting and enhancing the concept of entrepreneurship in public sector organizations.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, private sector, public sector, public value, Republic of North Macedonia

Introduction

Entrepreneurship research is one of the highest priorities of economic theory, sociology, political science, etc., in order to find new directions or models and enrich the existing models or knowledge related to entrepreneurial behavior in society. As a result, there are a huge number of authors and therefore a number of definitions of what entrepreneurship is, its role in society, how to implement it in the best way in order to maximize the results of operations, etc.

It is well known that the study of entrepreneurship as a developmental direction dates back to the late 17th and early 18th centuries, especially in the private sector³⁰. At the same time, in the process

³⁰ Jevons W. S. (1881) "Richard Cantillon and the Nationality of Political Economy".
<https://www.econlib.org/book-chapters/chapter-richard-cantillon-and-the-nationality-of-political-economy-by-w-stanley-jevons/> (visited on 23.04.2020).

of starting a new business, the subject of study are innovation, risk taking, professionalism, creativity, perseverance, etc. in order to make profit³¹. However, over the years, in the last 3-4 decades, numerous attempts have been made for a more detailed analysis, i.e. study of the application of entrepreneurship in public sector organizations in order to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of operations. At the same time, it is known that the operation of organizations in the private and public sector has its similarities but also a large number of differences arising from the nature of the internal and external environment in which organizations operate. However, it is important to note that a number of public sector organizations (especially in highly developed countries but also in some developing countries) have made numerous attempts to apply entrepreneurial behavior in their work under the influence of the already numerous knowledge of entrepreneurship in the private sector. It is important to emphasize that the main motive for applying entrepreneurial behavior in the public sector is the creation of the so-called public value for society by public organizations in satisfying the public interest of citizens.

As a result, the aim of this paper is to analyze the importance of entrepreneurship, i.e. the effects of its application in public organizations in the process of creating new public values in society. In the first part of this research, an analysis is made of the general characteristics of the concept of entrepreneurship in its application in private sector organizations. Furthermore, the emphasis is on the analysis of the application of entrepreneurship in public sector organizations, i.e. the role and significance of the creation of the so-called public value in society. Finally, at the end of the paper, an analysis is made of the previous efforts of the Republic of North Macedonia in the field of development and promotion of the concept of entrepreneurship in social frameworks.

The concept of entrepreneurship: Common definitions and characteristics

The concept of entrepreneurship is one of the central concepts of study in economic theory. The beginnings of the scientific study of entrepreneurship date back to the end of the 17th and the beginning of the 18th century³², when the founder of the philosophy of entrepreneurship is considered the Frenchman Richard Cantillon who also appears as one of the founders of the so-called classical economy. This French economist defined the entrepreneur as a person who pays a certain price for a product or service and at the same time sells it on the market at another uncertain price. In other words, the entrepreneur, according to this author, is a person who makes decisions about the procurement and use of resources, and at any stage of these activities takes a risk for the enterprise.

During the 19th century, it was particularly important to emphasize that entrepreneurial behavior was represented in the German economic system, and that in order for someone to want to be an entrepreneur, they had to have certain entrepreneurial abilities³³. However, in order to start a new business, it was not necessary to initially submit evidence of certain entrepreneurial skills³⁴. During the twentieth century, entrepreneurial behavior was deeply studied by Joseph Schumpeter,

³¹Business Dictionary (2020) "Business Dictionary- entrepreneurship definition". <http://www.businessdictionary.com/search.php?q=entrepreneurship&cx=002109824679542468969%3Antvpz2hrzm0&cof=FORID%3A9&ie=UTF-8> (visited on 05.03.2020).

³² Jevons W. S. (1881) "Richard Cantillon and the Nationality of Political Economy". <https://www.econlib.org/book-chapters/chapter-richard-cantillon-and-the-nationality-of-political-economy-by-w-stanley-jevons/> (visited on 23.04.2020).

³³ Rostam-Afschar, D. (2013) "Entry regulation and entrepreneurship: A natural experiment in German craftsmanship" in: *Empirical Economics*. Vol. 47, No. 3. pp. 1067-1101.

³⁴ refers to those who held a Meister certificate.

Friedrich von Hayek, Menger, von Mises, and others. According to Schumpeter, an entrepreneur is a person who has the desire and ability to turn his new idea or inventiveness into a successful innovation³⁵. In doing so, the entrepreneur uses creativity in launching new products or new business models that are of paramount importance to the long-term economic development of society. As a result, entrepreneurship results in the start-up and development of new industries through a creative combination of available resources³⁶. Another author who has made significant contributions to the development of entrepreneurship in the history of economic thought is Alfred Marshall. According to this author, the entrepreneur is a “capitalist” who performs a number of functions and tasks and who has a significant role in competing markets.

During the XXI century, the concept of entrepreneurship has drastically evolved from its primary importance in the economy in other areas of society, i.e. in the social sphere, the environment, human rights, etc. or the appearance of the so-called entrepreneur in society or politics³⁷. In any case, entrepreneurs are leaders who have the desire to take risks and initiatives in order to gain an advantage over market opportunities by planning, organizing and investing in resources, often by innovating and creating new or improving existing products or services³⁸. But in any case, there is a consensus that entrepreneurship is a driving force for economic development in the United States, the European Union, and so on. By applying entrepreneurial knowledge, new businesses are opened, especially small and medium enterprises, which are crucial for increasing employment and economic development in every country. It is important to note that a huge number of authors have made enormous contributions to the expansion of knowledge in the field of entrepreneurship, and over the years, research has been conducted on the importance of the ideas of every great scientist in this field. Accordingly, regarding that the global survey of 1977, 2002, etc. is well known³⁹. According to the areas in which entrepreneurship develops, there are so-called economic entrepreneurs, ethical entrepreneurs, cultural entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs, political entrepreneurs, etc.

In general, no matter what area of entrepreneurship we develop, according to Knight, the entrepreneur is ready to take such a risk level that may seem unrealistic to other people⁴⁰. In other words, the entrepreneur operates in three areas of uncertainty: risk, ambiguity (i.e. hazard) and true uncertainty⁴¹. Entrepreneurs must have extremely good communication skills with all parties involved in the projects to which the entrepreneur is engaged⁴². The scientific idea of the development of entrepreneurship has been constantly evolving in order to find different forms and directions to improve the process of entrepreneurial behavior and encourage business initiatives in society.

³⁵ Schumpeter, J. A. (1976) *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*. London: Routledge.

³⁶ pertains to what Schumpeter called “the gale of creative destruction”.

³⁷ so-called social entrepreneurship, political entrepreneurship, etc.

³⁸ Deakins, D., Freel, M. S. (2009) *Entrepreneurial activity, the economy and the importance of small firms*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

³⁹ Heames, J. T., Breland J. W. (2010) “Management pioneer contributors: 30-year review”. in: *Journal of Management History*. Vol. 16, No. 4. pp. 427-436.

⁴⁰ Knight, F. H. (2005) *Risk, Uncertainty and Profit*. Paris: Adanson Publishing.

⁴¹ *ibid.*

⁴² Clarke, J., Cornelissen, J. (2011) “Language, communication, and socially situated cognition in entrepreneurship”. in: *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 36, No. 4. pp. 776-778.

Entrepreneurship in the public sector

Along with the centuries of research and great interest in deeper analysis of the characteristics of entrepreneurship, it can be said that the beginnings and development of scientific thought were initially oriented towards the private sector. However, with the emergence of a huge number of reform movements in many countries around the world, especially in the post-World War II period aimed at reforming public sector management systems, the concept of entrepreneurship is slowly but surely entering organizations from the public sector⁴³. This means that in the last 50 years there has been a massive wave of authors whose goal, no doubt, is to study the characteristics of entrepreneurship in public organizations. However, in any case, it should be noted that in terms of research on entrepreneurship in the private sector, the level and scope of research on entrepreneurship in the public sector is still quite scarce⁴⁴.

Public entrepreneurship was first studied by Nobel Laureate Elinor Ostrom in her 1964 doctoral dissertation defended at the University of California, Los Angeles⁴⁵. The next major author in public entrepreneurship research was Peter Drucker, who stressed that all public institutions that exist in society to defend the public interest must be as innovative and entrepreneurial as private business organizations. According to him, however, installing entrepreneurial spirit and innovation in public organizations can be much more complicated than doing it in the most bureaucratized company in the private sector⁴⁶. Over the next few decades, a number of authors have called for as many entrepreneurial-oriented public sectors as possible.

As a result, i.e. as a reaction to the efforts for innovative and entrepreneurial oriented public sector, during the 80s and the beginning of the 90's of the last century, the concept of the so-called new public management emerged⁴⁷. The aim of the new public management was to make efforts for the public sector to function as the private sector works i.e. for the public organizations to be more flexible and innovative in the uncertain environment in which they operate. However, in the last decade, the thoughts of authors such as Marvin Pichla and Mitchell Weiss have been quite significant^{48,49}. It can be said that the focus of both authors is entrepreneurship in public sector organizations.

Marvin Pichla noted in his research that the study of entrepreneurship in the public sector is very poorly represented in colleges and universities. He has repeatedly stressed that there is no doubt that entrepreneurship plays an equally important role in both the private and public sectors. According to him, entrepreneurship is a universal concept that can be defined as the process of starting a business and organizing the required resources needed to successfully implement

⁴³ Lans T. et al., (2013) "Learning for entrepreneurship in heterogeneous groups: Experiences from an international, interdisciplinary higher education student programme". in: *Trames- A Journal of the Humanities and Social Sciences*. Vol. 17, No. 4. pp. 383-399.

⁴⁴ *ibid.*

⁴⁵ Ostrom E. (1965) *Public Entrepreneurship: A Case Study in Ground Water Basin Management*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of California.

⁴⁶ Drucker P. (1985) *Innovation and entrepreneurship: Practice and principles*. New York: Harper & Row.

⁴⁷ Hood C. (1991) "A Public Management for all Seasons". in: *Public Administration*. Vol. 69, No. 1. pp. 5-19.

⁴⁸ Pichla M. (2014) "PATimes- Is Public Sector Entrepreneurship the Way to the Future?". ASPA- American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC. The 25th March 2014. <https://patimes.org/page/3/?s=pichla&x=0&y=0> (visited on 15.03.2020).

⁴⁹ Weiss M. (2014) "Government Entrepreneur is Not an Oxymoron". *Harvard Business Review*. 28th March 2014. <https://hbr.org/2014/03/government-entrepreneur-is-not-an-oxymoron> (visited on 28.03.2020).

business activities. As a result, it is important to emphasize that public sector employees, like private sector employees, need to think entrepreneurially⁵⁰.

Similar to Marvin Pichla's thoughts are the thoughts of Mitchell Weiss from 2014⁵¹. In his research, he constantly emphasizes the need for as many public entrepreneurs as possible in society. In order to emphasize the great importance of public entrepreneurship, he cites a number of examples of successful implementation, innovation and projects in many countries around the world⁵². Given that every public organization faces a number of challenges for the future that are of a public nature, Weiss believes that every society should seriously invest in the development of educational programs and training sessions for entrepreneurial learning⁵³. This is due to the fact that a large number of managers working in the public sector do not have the necessary knowledge and qualifications, i.e. the necessary entrepreneurial knowledge and skills. It must be emphasized that entrepreneurship symbolizes not only innovation and flexibility, but also creativity in getting "something out of nothing"⁵⁴. The development of the entire public sector in the society in the future cannot be reduced only to the performance of standard and everyday operational procedures, but intensive education of the employees in the public sector in the field of entrepreneurship⁵⁵.

By integrating the thinking of Marvin Pichla and Mitchell Weiss, it can be build a concrete model for developing a culture of entrepreneurial behavior in the public sector called the "patent for public entrepreneurship". In doing so, the two main messages to be sent to the creators of public policy in any society are that "public entrepreneurship is entrepreneurship"⁵⁶ and that "public entrepreneurship is an organizational culture"⁵⁷. Regarding that, the active role of the citizens, especially on a local level, is very important in providing effective governance and access to all necessary information considering people's needs⁵⁸. As a result, both the citizens and public officials can work together in creating entrepreneurial spirit in public sector organizations.

Creating public value in the context of public entrepreneurship

One of the main goals, if not the most important goal of the study of public entrepreneurship, is the creation of the so-called public value in any public organization. In the public entrepreneurship literature, it can be said that Mark Moore is the founder of the concept of creating public value. According to him, the goal of every manager in the public sector is to create public value, just as

⁵⁰ Pichla M. (2014) "PATimes- Is Public Sector Entrepreneurship the Way to the Future?". ASPA- American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC. The 25th March 2014. <https://patimes.org/page/3/?s=pichla&x=0&y=0> (visited on 15.03.2020).

⁵¹ Weiss M. (2014) "Government Entrepreneur is Not an Oxymoron". Harvard Business Review. 28th March 2014. <https://hbr.org/2014/03/government-entrepreneur-is-not-an-oxymoron> (visited on 28.03.2020).

⁵² *ibid.*

⁵³ *ibid.*

⁵⁴ *ibid.*

⁵⁵ *ibid.*

⁵⁶ Pichla M. (2014) "PATimes- Is Public Sector Entrepreneurship the Way to the Future?". ASPA- American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC. The 25th March 2014. <https://patimes.org/page/3/?s=pichla&x=0&y=0> (visited on 15.03.2020).

⁵⁷ Weiss M. (2014) "Government Entrepreneur is Not an Oxymoron". Harvard Business Review. 28th March 2014. <https://hbr.org/2014/03/government-entrepreneur-is-not-an-oxymoron> (visited on 28.03.2020).

⁵⁸ Cipunseva, H., Memeti, M. Hadzimustafa, S. and Kreci, V. (2013) "Public Policy Processes on a Local Level- Evidence from Republic of Macedonia". Social Science Research Network. p. 3. 17th December 2013. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2368799> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2368799> (visited on 13.04.2020).

the goal of every manager in the private sector is to create private value⁵⁹. In explaining this concept, according to this author, each public manager is active within an organizational environment in which there are three characteristics: resources (operational capability), legitimacy and support and value performance⁶⁰. These features, according to Mark Moore, make up the so-called strategic triangle⁶¹.

According to Bozeman, public values create rights, benefits, obligations and principles that governments around the world need to respect⁶². On the other hand, according to Meynhardt, public value is a value intended for the public, that is a value that arises from the relationship between the individual and society⁶³.

When creating public value, it is especially important to emphasize that every public organization must enable the creation of an appropriate culture of behavior among employees, to increase awareness of the importance of public interest in society. As a result, over the past two decades, the concept of public value has been intensively studied by a number of centers and scientific institutes around the world (such as the US-based Institute for Public Value⁶⁴, the Government Technology Center⁶⁵, etc.).

In the literature it is known that the so-called framework of public value is used in order to include all activities necessary for the creation of public value in society. As can be seen from Figure 1, 4 components are taken into account when creating public value, namely: Assured alignment, Appropriate resourcing, Public support and Capacity development⁶⁶. Within each of these components, 5 criteria are evaluated and the fulfillment of each of these criteria is evaluated through appropriate scoring. Within the Assured alignment component, 5 criteria are evaluated: Clarity of goals, Appropriate KPIs, Links to other work, Quality of track record and Measures drive good behavior. Within the Appropriate Resourcing component, 5 criteria are evaluated: Measurement of unit costs, Detailed resource plan, Timely information to managers, Optimized funding mix and Awareness of knock-on costs. Within the Public Support component, 5 criteria are evaluated, namely: Stakeholder needs, Public perceptions, User experience, Public participation and Stakeholder influencing. Within the Capacity development component, 5 criteria are evaluated, namely: Well-designed evaluation, Use of new technologies, Clear accountability, Cross-boundary collaboration and Resilience⁶⁷. This framework is of great importance in order to

⁵⁹ Moore, M. (1995) *Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government*. Boston: Harvard University Press. p. 28.

⁶⁰ *ibid.*, p. 24.

⁶¹ *ibid.*, p. 24.

⁶² Bozeman, B. (2007) *Public Values and Public Interest: Counterbalancing Economic Individualism*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

⁶³ Meynhardt, T. (2009) "Public Value Inside: What is Public Value Creation?" in: *International Journal of Public Administration*. Vol. 32, No. 3-4. pp. 192-219.

⁶⁴ Accenture Newsroom (2006) "Accenture Launches Institute for Public Service Value to Identify and Promote Leading Practices in Government Service Delivery." 08 June 2006. <https://newsroom.accenture.com/industries/health-public-service/accenture-launches-institute-for-public-service-value-to-identify-and-promote-leading-practices-in-government-service-delivery.htm> (visited on 18.04.2020).

⁶⁵ Cresswell, A.M., G. et. al. (2006) "Advancing Return on Investment Analysis for Government IT: A Public Value Framework." 25th October 2006. https://www.ctg.albany.edu/publications/advancing_roi/ (visited on 18.04.2020).

⁶⁶ Historic England (2020) "Public Value Framework". <https://historicengland.org.uk/about/what-we-do/corporate-strategy/public-value-framework/#Alignment> (visited on 12.04.2020).

⁶⁷ *ibid.*

make a realistic or objective assessment of whether the financing of the programs or projects achieves the desired results. By scoring each criterion within each component, it can be determined whether and to what extent each criterion contributes or does not contribute to the successful implementation of the component to which this criterion belongs.



Figure 1. Creating public value

Source: Historic England (2020) "Public Value Framework". <https://historicengland.org.uk/about/what-we-do/corporate-strategy/public-value-framework/#Alignment> (visited on 12.04.2020).

Within Figure 2, is presented the so-called Mark Moore's strategic triangle. As can be seen, strategic public management plays the role of coordinator between the three key elements. Each of these elements contains a number of questions that need to be answered by public management in each public organization. It must be emphasized that this strategic triangle, through the answers to each of the questions contained within each element, is a kind of so-called scorecard of the public organization. As a universal concept, this scorecard can find practical application in local governments, ministries, agencies, public funds, etc⁶⁸.

⁶⁸ Farrell, L. (2015) "Local Government Utopia- Applying the public value scorecard in local government services. Part 1". The 23th February, 2015. <https://localgovernmentutopia.com/2015/02/23/38-applying-the-public-value-scorecard-in-local-government-services-part-1/> (visited on 15.03.2020).

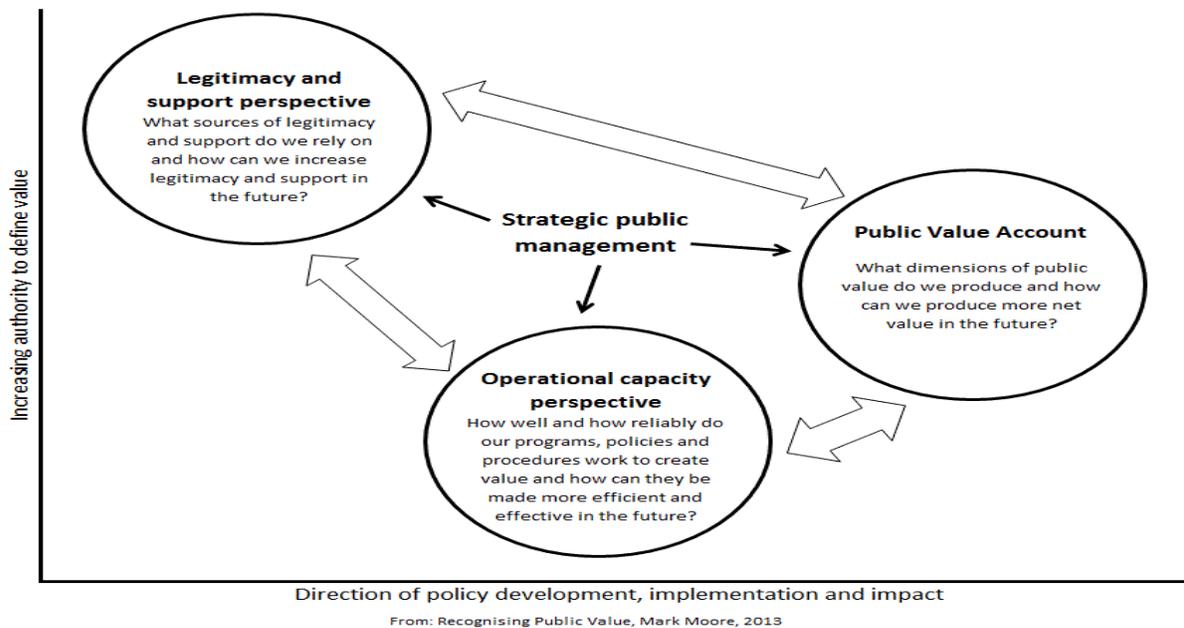


Figure 2. Strategic triangle in public sector entrepreneurship

Source: Farrell, L. (2015) "Local Government Utopia- Applying the public value scorecard in local government services. Part 1". The 23th February, 2015th <https://localgovernmentutopia.com/2015/02/23/38-applying-the-public-value-scorecard-in-local-government-services-part-1/> (visited on 15.03.2020).

Entrepreneurship development in the Republic of North Macedonia

At the moment, the central institution established for the development of entrepreneurship in the Republic of North Macedonia is the Agency for Entrepreneurship Support⁶⁹. This institution is responsible for the implementation of all programs and policies adopted by the Government in order to support and develop competitiveness, flexibility and innovation. Having in mind the fact that entrepreneurship is a very important component for achieving economic growth and greater employment in society, the Agency performs a number of activities and cooperates with a number of other organizations in society, such as: centers for local economic development, entrepreneurial incubators, clusters, etc⁷⁰. It should also not to be forgotten that this Agency actively cooperates with universities, ministries, chambers of commerce, banks, etc. in order to actively promote entrepreneurial behavior⁷¹. Over the years, this agency has been involved in a number of research and donation projects in order to strengthen the so-called network to support entrepreneurial behavior by strengthening consulting services, innovation and technology transfer, knowledge exchange, maintaining a database of entrepreneurial activities, etc. It must be said that this

⁶⁹ Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "Who we are?" <http://www.apprm.gov.mk/default.aspx> (visited on 05.03.2020).

⁷⁰ *ibid.*

⁷¹ *ibid.*

institution, in carrying out its activities, is in close correlation with the Sector for Entrepreneurship and Competitiveness at the Ministry of Economy of the Republic of North Macedonia⁷².

For the most part, the main activities that resulted from the so-called Agency's annual operational program for 2019 and 2020 were as follows: entrepreneurial education, establishment of the so-called voucher counseling system, active support of women's entrepreneurship, organization of trainings and forums for local consultants, organization of competitions for the best business plans, etc⁷³. At the same time, it must be emphasized that the total budget with which the agency financed its activities for 2019 was really modest and amounted to a total of 4,000,000 Denars⁷⁴.

It is very important to emphasize that the main and basic goal of the Agency is to encourage and develop entrepreneurship in small and medium enterprises or private business. In addition, we can say that the Republic of North Macedonia still identifies the concept of public entrepreneurship and the creation of public values within the concept of social entrepreneurship and social responsibility. Unfortunately, the support for the development of social entrepreneurship and social responsibility by the Agency for Entrepreneurship Development in the Republic of North Macedonia was covered by only 150,000 Denars for the whole of 2019 and 2020 separately⁷⁵. In any case, within the Strategic Plan of the Agency for the period 2018-2020, a total of 62,154,900 Denars were provided for various activities related to the development of entrepreneurship in small and medium businesses⁷⁶. However, significant activities for the promotion and development of social entrepreneurship, which was increasingly in the focus of civic or non-governmental organizations, were still lacking.

According to the European Commission, the concept of social entrepreneurship is not sufficiently legally regulated within the legal system, despite the fact that there is a common consensus in society that this concept is extremely important. In other words, there is still no law that would regulate social entrepreneurship, but there are only certain individual provisions within other different laws that contribute to the regulation of some issues related to social entrepreneurship in the Republic of North Macedonia⁷⁷. In any case, in the past there were many actions oriented towards the legal regulation of the concept. One of those significant attempts is the so-called Draft Law on Social Entrepreneurship, which was prepared during 2015 by the Ministry of Labor and Social Policy within the project funded by the European Union entitled "Encouraging Social

⁷² *ibid.*

⁷³ Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "The Program for support of the Entrepreneurship, Competition and Innovativeness for SME for 2019 and 2020". <http://www.apprm.gov.mk/Programme> (visited on 18.03.2020).

⁷⁴ Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "The Program for support of the Entrepreneurship, Competition and Innovativeness for SME for 2019". <http://apprm.gov.mk/Media/107/Programa%20APPRM%202019.pdf> (visited on 18.03.2020).

⁷⁵ Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "The Program for support of the Entrepreneurship, Competition and Innovativeness for SME for 2019 and 2020". <http://www.apprm.gov.mk/Programme> (visited on 18.03.2020).

⁷⁶ European Commission (2019) "EACEA- Promotion of entrepreneurship culture". 22th November 2019. <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/310-promotion-entrepreneurship-culture-former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia> (visited on 21.04.2020).

⁷⁷ European Commission (2019) "EACEA- Development of entrepreneurship competence." 22th November 2019. <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/38-development-entrepreneurship-competence-former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia> (visited on 21.04.2020).

Entrepreneurship”⁷⁸. However, despite the good intentions of the Government of the Republic of North Macedonia, this Draft Law has not been officially adopted yet⁷⁹.

In any case, the efforts of other ministries must be emphasized, such as the Ministry of Education and Science, which has developed the so-called Entrepreneurial Learning Strategy in the Republic of Macedonia (2014-2020)⁸⁰. This Strategy was aimed at the so-called Agenda for Entrepreneurial Education in Europe, European Union Entrepreneurship Action Plan, European Union Small Business Act by investing in skills for better socio-economic results, etc⁸¹. As a result, this strategy aimed to support entrepreneurial education (both formally and informally) within the country’s education system. In addition, in the formal education, i.e. in the secondary education, curricula and subjects for innovation and entrepreneurship were introduced⁸². Also, within the framework of higher education, it was important to emphasize that entrepreneurial education was represented at the International Slavic University, i.e. at the Faculty of Economics and Organization of Entrepreneurship⁸³. Entrepreneurial education was also represented at the University of Tourism and Management in Skopje within the Department of Entrepreneurship⁸⁴. Entrepreneurial education was also represented in non-formal education organized by governmental and non-governmental institutions. Particularly significant were the activities carried out by the Agency for Youth and Sports, especially in the implementation of various training activities among young people for the development of entrepreneurial spirit and the development of various business skills⁸⁵. It is important to emphasize that in recent years, within the Central Registry of the Republic of North Macedonia, a total of 21 associations and other organizations were active in the development of entrepreneurship, both locally and centrally i.e. in particular, the Youth Entrepreneurship Support Network (YES Network), Fund for Innovation and Technological Development, etc. were especially prominent⁸⁶.

Conclusion

Entrepreneurial learning is the basis for any economic, social and general societal development of any country in the world. From the beginning of the entrepreneurship studies until today, it can be emphasized that there is a broad scientific consensus that it is risk taking, innovation and flexibility in undertaking any activities in order to invest resources and get results or achieve goals. Unlike private business, where entrepreneurship is most necessary in the development of small and medium-sized businesses, in recent decades there has been increasing talk of applying entrepreneurship to public sector organizations. At the same time, public entrepreneurship is increasingly equated with the concept of the so-called social entrepreneurship.

Due to the increasing fiscal crises, but also due to the shortages in spending budget funds in order to protect the public interest, from the 60s of the last century until today have appeared a number

⁷⁸ *ibid.*

⁷⁹ *ibid.*

⁸⁰ *ibid.*

⁸¹ *ibid.*

⁸² *ibid.*

⁸³ *ibid.*

⁸⁴ *ibid.*

⁸⁵ *ibid.*

⁸⁶European Commission (2019) “EACEA- Promotion of entrepreneurship culture”. 22th November 2019. <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/310-promotion-entrepreneurship-culture-former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia> (visited on 21.04.2020).

of scientific directions aimed at reforming the public sector as in developed and in developing countries as well. One of those powerful scientific considerations was the so-called new public management whose principles of conduct apply to public institutions that would function as private sector organizations do. Thereby, without a clear strategy for motivating or educating public sector employees in the field of entrepreneurship, this is not possible.

One of the most important goals of public institutions is to create the so-called public value. Public value is the basis for the study of all other types of strategic activities that take place within a public organization. Without creating public value, it is not possible to talk about any democratic development, but also the protection of the public interest in society.

In presence in the Republic of North Macedonia, the promotion of entrepreneurship development is mainly promoted by the Agency for Entrepreneurship Support. At the same time, this institution is very active through the development of strategies and programs to support entrepreneurship in order to encourage and develop competitiveness and innovation. However, most of these activities are aimed at developing entrepreneurial learning in the private sector, i.e. in small and medium enterprises. As a result, it should be emphasized that the activities that this Agency does in the direction of development of social entrepreneurship are very modest (from the program for support of social entrepreneurship were allocated only 150,000 Denars separately for 2019 and 2020)⁸⁷. Let's not forget that the development of public entrepreneurship in the Republic of North Macedonia is equated with the concept of social entrepreneurship, and at the same time it is very important for the non-governmental sector and public institutions to invest more in its development. Despite the existence of political will, which is of great importance for the development of public entrepreneurship and its role in creating public values in society, it is necessary to fully regulate this area in society. One thing is particularly clear and that is without any development of public or social entrepreneurship in the future, the Republic of North Macedonia will not be able to achieve the desired development (public sector efficiency and effectiveness) on its path to full membership in the European Union.

References

Accenture Newsroom (2006) "Accenture Launches Institute for Public Service Value to Identify and Promote Leading Practices in Government Service Delivery." 08 June 2006. <https://newsroom.accenture.com/industries/health-public-service/accenture-launches-institute-for-public-service-value-to-identify-and-promote-leading-practices-in-government-service-delivery.htm> (visited on 18.04.2020).

Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "Who we are?" <http://www.apprm.gov.mk/default.aspx> (visited on 05.03.2020).

Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) "The Program for support of the Entrepreneurship, Competition and Innovativeness for SME for 2019". <http://apprm.gov.mk/Media/107/Programa%20APPRM%202019.pdf> (visited on 18.03.2020).

⁸⁷ See reference above.

Agency for Entrepreneurship Support of the Republic of North Macedonia (2020) “The Program for support of the Entrepreneurship, Competition and Innovativeness for SME for 2019 and 2020”. <http://www.apprm.gov.mk/Programme> (visited on 18.03.2020).

Bozeman, B. (2007) *Public Values and Public Interest: Counterbalancing Economic Individualism*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Business Dictionary (2020) “Business Dictionary- entrepreneurship definition”. <http://www.businessdictionary.com/search.php?q=entrepreneurship&cx=002109824679542468969%3Antvpz2hrzm0&cof=FORID%3A9&ie=UTF-8> (visited on 05.03.2020).

Cipusheva, H., Memeti, M. Hadzimustafa, S. and Kreci, V. (2013) “Public Policy Processes on a Local Level- Evidence from Republic of Macedonia”. Social Science Research Network. 17th December 2013. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2368799> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2368799> (visited on 13.04.2020).

Clarke, J., Cornelissen, J. (2011) “Language, communication, and socially situated cognition in entrepreneurship”. in: *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 36, No. 4. pp. 776-778.

Cresswell, A.M., G. et. al. (2006) “Advancing Return on Investment Analysis for Government IT: A Public Value Framework.” 25th October 2006. https://www.ctg.albany.edu/publications/advancing_roi/ (visited on 18.04.2020).

Deakins, D., Freel, M. S. (2009) *Entrepreneurial activity, the economy and the importance of small firms*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Drucker P. (1985) *Innovation and entrepreneurship: Practice and principles*. New York: Harper & Row.

European Commission (2019) “EACEA- Promotion of entrepreneurship culture”. 22th November 2019. <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/310-promotion-entrepreneurship-culture-former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia> (visited on 21.04.2020).

European Commission (2019) “EACEA- Development of entrepreneurship competence.” 22th November 2019. <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/38-development-entrepreneurship-competence-former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia> (visited on 21.04.2020).

Farrell, L. (2015) “Local Government Utopia- Applying the public value scorecard in local government services. Part 1”. The 23th February, 2015. <https://localgovernmentutopia.com/2015/02/23/38-applying-the-public-value-scorecard-in-local-government-services-part-1/> (visited on 15.03.2020).

Heames, J. T., Breland J. W. (2010) “Management pioneer contributors: 30-year review”. in: *Journal of Management History*. Vol. 16, No. 4. pp. 427-436.

Historic England (2020) “Public Value Framework”. <https://historicengland.org.uk/about/what-we-do/corporate-strategy/public-value-framework/#Alignment> (visited on 12.04.2020).

Hood C. (1991) “A Public Management for all Seasons”. in: *Public Administration*. Vol. 69, No. 1. pp. 5-19.

Jevons W. S. (1881) “Richard Cantillon and the Nationality of Political Economy”. <https://www.econlib.org/book-chapters/chapter-richard-cantillon-and-the-nationality-of-political-economy-by-w-stanley-jevons/> (visited on 23.04.2020).

Knight, F. H. (2005) *Risk, Uncertainty and Profit*. Paris: Adansonia Publishing.

Lans T. et al., (2013) “Learning for entrepreneurship in heterogeneous groups: Experiences from an international, interdisciplinary higher education student programme”. in: *Trames- A Journal of the Humanities and Social Sciences*. Vol. 17, No. 4. pp. 383-399.

Meynhardt, T. (2009) “Public Value Inside: What is Public Value Creation?” in: *International Journal of Public Administration*. Vol. 32, No. 3-4. pp. 192-219.

Moore, M. (1995) *Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government*. Boston: Harvard University Press.

Ostrom E. (1965) *Public Entrepreneurship: A Case Study in Ground Water Basin Management*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of California.

Pichla M. (2014) “PATimes- Is Public Sector Entrepreneurship the Way to the Future?”. ASPA- American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC. The 25th March 2014. <https://patimes.org/page/3/?s=pichla&x=0&y=0> (visited on 15.03.2020).

Rostam-Afschar, D. (2013) “Entry regulation and entrepreneurship: A natural experiment in German craftsmanship” in: *Empirical Economics*. Vol. 47, No. 3. pp. 1067-1101.

Schumpeter, J. A. (1976) *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*. London: Routledge.

Weiss M. (2014) “Government Entrepreneur is Not an Oxymoron”. *Harvard Business Review*. 28th March 2014. <https://hbr.org/2014/03/government-entrepreneur-is-not-an-oxymoron> (visited on 28.03.2020).

***Modern history
of Europe
and the
Balkans***

**THE HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ICELAND AND ITS
RESERVED APPROACH TO EUROPEAN INTEGRATION**

Katarína Brocková, Simona Chuguryan and Rudolf Kucharčík
Faculty of International Relations, University of Economics in Bratislava

Abstract

This article is dedicated to European integration. We will point out the importance of differentiated integration, which will become necessary in the process of European integration in the future. We will also address the specific approach of the Nordic countries to the issue of European integration. On the example of Iceland, based on its historical and political development, we will describe the possible reasons for the reserved approach of the Nordics to integration into the EU. Iceland, on its way to establishing a modern political system, underwent a relatively interesting development, during which it tried to join the European Union, but eventually changed its mind. Today, Iceland is a unique entity that has formed gradually and is an integral part of today's Europe.

Key words: Iceland, European integration, European Union, Northern Europe, differentiated integration, national identity, fishing

Introduction

Northern Europe has developed in isolation from the rest of Europe, leading to the definition of certain characteristic, original and specific features. "The Nordic countries have many features in common that set them apart from the rest of Europe, which is why this region can generally be seen as a kind of interconnected coherent unit."⁸⁸

The countries of the northern European region show a significant degree of unity and belonging among each other. The geographical location, which predestined Northern Europe to a certain isolation from continental Europe, led to the creation of closer and higher standard relations between the states in this area, and at the same time identified the specific problems of the Nordic states.

„The Nordic region, or Norden, may be defined as consisting of the five sovereign states such as Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, plus the three autonomous territories connected to these states: the Faroe Islands and Greenland (Denmark) and Åland (Finland). These states are widely considered to form a distinctive region by virtue of their strong historical ties and the tradition of inter-governmental co-operation across national boundaries.“⁸⁹

The Nordic states developed together for a period of time, even as a single state unit (Kalmar Union), which determined their common history. They have a similar culture, religion and language. All the Nordic countries are advanced democracies with a developed market economy and an advanced social system applying the welfare principle.

⁸⁸ Burclík, M. Havlík, V. Pinková, A. (2011) Scandinavia. Policy changes in Northern countries. Praha: Wolters Kluwer, s. 1.

⁸⁹Hison, M. (2019) The Nordic region. Euractiv Slovakia. The 25th February 2019 <https://www.europskaunia.sk/island-a-eu> (visited on 10.05.2020).

Despite many common elements, the individual states of northern Europe have their own specifics and differences. Even the relations of individual states to the integration processes into European structures are different, as can be seen in the following Table 1. From this point of view, Northern Europe represents a really diverse range of approaches towards European integration.

Table 1: Nordic states in European integration

	EU member	Euro member	Single market	Fiscal stability treaty	Banking Union	Schengen	Council of Europe	NATO
Denmark	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Finland	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Iceland	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Norway	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Sweden	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N

Y-Yes participating, N- not participating

Source: McCallion, S. M. Brianson, A. (2018) *Nordic States and European Integration: Awkward Partners in the North?* Editors: Stegmann *McCallion*, Malin, *Brianson*, Alex. Eds. Palgrave studies in European Union Politics, s. 7.

In general, the attitude of most Nordic countries towards the European Union can be described as indecisive and even hesitant, which is due to three basic facts:

- They see the European Union as an extra guarantor of regional security, which from their point of view seems unnecessary or even irrelevant. At the same time, they perceive a state's relationship with the EU as superior to that state's relationship with other states in the region.
- Strong connection of states to the region, prevents their more significant integration into European structures. They perceive it as a threat to their regional identity. For many of them, European integration is incompatible with the region's identity.
- The public's perception of European integration is also important. It focuses on how the public perceives European integration and to what extent it is able to accept it and whether the intensity of Euroscepticism in the public is high.

These facts complete the mutual relations of the states of the Nordic region with the European Union and create special approaches to European integration. The states in the Nordic Region have an exceptionally good cooperation among each other, which we refer to as Nordic cooperation. Their willingness to integrate into European structures depends also on this cooperation.

"We have one of the oldest and most wide-ranging form of regional political cooperation, and we aspire to be the most sustainable and integrated region in the world."⁹⁰

Issue Formulation

We will focus our attention on Iceland, which, like other countries, is an integral part of the northern European region. Based on the historical and political development of Iceland, we will

⁹⁰ **Froderberg, M.** 10 facts about the Nordic Region and Nordic co-operation. The Nordic Council and the Nordic Council of Ministers. Copenhagen. Denmark. <https://www.norden.org/en/information/10-facts-about-nordic-region-and-nordic-co-operation> (visited on 12.05.2020).

try to identify the basic reasons that can be considered as key determinants in its reserved approach to European integration.

We will identify the main reasons for its refusal to join the European Union. We will also focus on its attempts at integration, when in 2008, following the consequences of the global economic crisis, Iceland applied to the European Union, but later asked for withdrawal.

Finally, we will try to find a parallel between the situation at the time of the crisis and today during the global COVID-19 pandemic, whether it has an impact on changing Icelanders' attitudes towards European integration.

Problem Solution

Iceland and international integration

At present, Iceland is an island nation that is an integral part of northern Europe. It is located on the island of Iceland and the surrounding smaller islands in the North Atlantic Ocean. Iceland, officially called the Republic of Iceland, is a unitary state. It is a developed democratic state, whose inhabitants enjoy a high standard of living.

„Iceland is two and a half times the size of Denmark, but only a little over 1% of the land is suitable for growing crops. Most of the landscape consists of big lava fields and glaciers. More than half of the population of 356,991 live in and around the capital - Reykjavík. Iceland is a republic with a directly elected president. The president formally nominates the prime minister. ⁹¹ The Head of state is the President Guðni Th. Jóhannesson and the Head of Government is the Prime Minister Katrín Jakobsdóttir. The Parliament has a legislative power called Althing. The Althing is the parliament and supreme authority of Iceland.

From a foreign policy perspective, we can call Iceland an active player in supporting multilateralism and the international order.

Iceland bases its international position mainly on long-term Nordic cooperation within Nordic integration clusters, such as the Nordic Council and the Nordic Council of Ministers. It is also an active member of NATO. These organisations provide it with historically unprecedented guarantees of stability, prosperity, security and development.

Iceland is a member of many important international institutions, such as NATO, of which it is a founding member. Since 1951, Iceland has been protected by a special defence treaty with the United States. Today, Iceland secures its defence cooperation with NATO member states and especially with the Nordic countries. There has never been any major conflict in Iceland, and Iceland has never had its own armed forces.

Iceland is also a member of the UN, the OSCE, the Arctic Council, the OECD, the IMF, the World Bank and the World Trade Organization. Iceland is a member of the EFTA and the EEA, which guarantees its participation in the European single market. Iceland also has free trade agreements with several countries.⁹²

⁹¹ **Nosterud, B. K.** (2020) Iceland, the volcanic island in the north Atlantic is famous for its hot springs and dramatic scenery. The Nordic Council and the Nordic Council of Ministers, Copenhagen. Denmark. <https://www.norden.org/en/information/facts-about-iceland> (visited on 2.05.2020).

⁹² Republic of Iceland. General country information. Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Slovak Republic. (2014) Economic information on the territory. MFA SR MZV SR. https://export.slovensko.sk/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/Island-Ekonomické-informácie-o-teritóriu_November-2014.pdf (visited on 15.05.2020).

Theoretical definition

The idea of creating a united Europe, as well as attempts to unite the nations of Europe, are an integral part of European history. It is a long-term process that continues to this day. It is an ever-changing and evolving mechanism that includes aspects from many areas of political, economic, social, cultural, legal and, last but not least, international cooperation.

As a theoretical basis we will use the so-called differentiated integration, which Frank Schimmelfennig, based on the term Uniform integration, defines as the following:

„To define differentiated integration, its opposite: uniform integration. Uniform integration means that the rules of the EU are equally valid for all member states (and member states only) resulting in a homogeneous regulatory and organizational border for the EU. Uniform integration can still be considered the official model and the formal norm of the EU. Differentiated integration, on the other hand, refers to a situation in which EU legal rules are not equally valid for all member states.“⁹³

We agree with Frank Schimmelfennig that Differentiated integration will become the basis for the European Union's enlargement process in the future.

„Differentiated integration has proven a successful instrument for a balanced exercise of sovereignty and self-determination in European integration. On the one hand, it has allowed member states who would like to preserve a higher degree of sovereignty and self-determination to opt out of further integration. On the other hand, it has made sure that these member states could not exercise their sovereignty to prevent other member states from making sovereign decisions to move ahead with integration. Differentiated integration is likely to better reflect national preferences.“⁹⁴

As the integration process becomes more dynamic and intense, the European Union will expand faster and get more and more diverse members.

„As the EU expands to include additional countries, it is likely to have an increasingly diverse membership with heterogeneous preferences and capacities, including member states that are less willing or able to integrate.“⁹⁵

The approach, as well as the measure of individual states to European integration, is differentiated. „European integration brings together governments, parties, and peoples with highly divergent preferences on how low national borders ought to be and how much sovereignty and self-determination should remain exclusively with the nation states. Governments constantly renegotiate the borderlines in intergovernmental treaty conferences and in the policy-making process of the European Union.“⁹⁶

⁹³ **Schimmelfennig, F.** (2017) Introduction. In *Differentiation and Self-determination in European Integration*. Euborders, Zurich. September 2017 https://www.ibe.org/working-paper-01-euborders_145111.pdf (visited 11.05.2020). p. 2.

⁹⁴ Ibid, p.15-16.

⁹⁵ Ibid, p. 3

⁹⁶ Ibid, p. 1

The Historical and Political Development

The last from the larger islands settled by humans was Iceland and this is the reason why it does not have a pre-history. Because of the inhospitable natural conditions and a large distance from the European continent Iceland was populated very slowly in comparison with other European countries.

Celtic monks, who arrived at Iceland in the 7th century, are considered as first settlers of the island. The Celtic monks lived on the island in bothies similar to beehives, built around a church, well and a small garden. These men arrived on the island with only necessary equipment. They had religious books, ceremonial symbols, and small bells, which they used to call the other believers to prayers and church services, and to drive out bad spirits.⁹⁷

Although the island was inhospitable, it provided the monks with good place for meditation, prayers and a way to God.

The Norwegian Ingólfur Arnarson is considered as the first real Icelander. “He arrived at Iceland in 871 and as it was required by a pagan tradition of a noble Viking, he threw the pillars from the chieftain chair into the sea and settled down on the spot, where they washed ashore. This was very common in those times and sometimes it took years, before the settlers explored the seashore and found the pillars.”⁹⁸

In 874 he settled down in the southern part of island and contributed to the establishment of Reykjavik (the current capital city). With his arrival began the period of settlement.

Due to the increase of population on the island, it was necessary to create a united government, to introduce common law and judiciary system for the entire country. For this given reason a national assembly – Alting⁹⁹ was established in 930, which is considered to be the oldest parliament in the world.

The Alting met once a year. They voted on issues important to the entire island, presented laws, delivered verdicts and it was also the place where executions took place. Only men could vote in the assembly, but everybody was able to participate in it. This kind of governance was very unusual and progressive in the given period.¹⁰⁰

Later, in 1000, based on the decision of the Alting, they adopted Christianity, mainly out of fear of military action of the Norwegian King, Olaf Tryggvason. On the bright side, by adopting Christianity, they prevented other countries from coming to Iceland and influencing its domestic political situation under the pretext of spreading Christianity.

The religious conversion was carried out by a simple political act and was not based on religious belief or violence. The Speaker of Alting, Thorgeir said: “The country adopted Christianity without any disputes, bloodshed or violence!”¹⁰¹

In the 13th century Iceland submitted to the Norwegian reign. Later, in 1397, Iceland as a part of Norway became a part of the Danish crown based on the Treaty of Kalmar. After the establishment of the Kalmar Union and a personal unification of Scandinavian countries under the Danish Queen,

⁹⁷ Zeman, J. (2002) Iceland. Island made of fire. Prague: Paseka. p. 7-8.

⁹⁸ Želiezko, P. History of Iceland. <http://www.mundo.cz/island/historie> (visited 12.05.2020)

⁹⁹ Basically, the Alting with a short exception of its cancelation in the 19th century (1800 – 1843) works until nowadays.

¹⁰⁰ Kucharčík, R. Chuguryan, S. (2014) Selected chapters from comparative policy. Bratislava: Publisher Ekonóm. p. 52.

¹⁰¹ In the 16th century, after the reformation, the country adopted Lutheranism.

Margaret I of Denmark took control over Iceland. The life under the Danish reign was not simple for Icelanders. Despite of imposing a new religion, Iceland was obliged to trade exclusively with chosen Danish merchants based on the trade monopoly. The low competition caused an import of expensive and poor-quality goods. On the contrary, the Icelandic products, mostly fish, were purchased by Danish merchants below cost.

Regarding the political situation on the island, the Alting, the most important institution at that time, gradually lost its importance and became the highest authority, but only in the local judicial system. A little bit later, in 1800 the Alting was dissolved. Instead, the Supreme Land Court was established.

In the 19th century, on the one hand, Danish absolutism began to weaken, and on the other hand, the exile Icelandic national movement grew stronger, demanding the restoration of Alting.

The situation in Iceland as well as the revolutions all over Europe supported the effort of Icelanders to renew their independence. The Icelanders began to show more notably their effort to solve their own issues such as the position of Iceland within the Danish Kingdom and the finances of Icelandic economy. In 1904, based on a constitutional revision, Iceland got its autonomy.

The island got its partial sovereignty a little bit later, when the Danish and Icelandic parliaments approved the changes related to the position of Iceland. On 1 December 1918 Iceland became a fully sovereign state in a personal union with Denmark. The Danish King became the highest representative of Iceland. Iceland gained full autonomy, became a sovereign state and it was established the Kingdom of Iceland.

In 1944 a referendum was realized as it was previously stated in an agreement. 99,7% of voters expressed themselves to be in favour of the establishment of an independent republic. The Act of Union was fully cancelled, and Iceland gained its independence.¹⁰² Iceland formally became a republic and the personal union with Denmark ended on 17 June 1944. At this time the Republic of Iceland was established.

The year 2008 played an important role in the recent history of Iceland, when effects of the global economic crisis fully demonstrated themselves on the island.

„In October 2008, Iceland nationalized its three largest banks. Kaupthing Bank, Landsbanki, and Glitnir Bank had defaulted on \$62 billion of foreign debt. The banks' collapse sent foreign investors out of Iceland. That sent the krona down 50 percent in one week. The stock market fell 95 percent. Almost every business in Iceland went bankrupt. Housing prices fell, while mortgage costs doubled. Iceland's banks went bankrupt. The government could not bail them out because it didn't have the money. Instead of being too big to fail, they were too big to save. As a result, these

¹⁰² **Thorarensen, J.** (2011) Constitutional reform proces in Iceland.
<https://www.uio.no/english/research/interfaculty-research-areas/democracy/news-and-events/events/seminars/2011/papers-roma-2011/Rome-Thorarensen.pdf> (visited 12.05.2020), s. 3.

banks' financial collapse brought down the country's economy. “¹⁰³ The bad economic situation resulted in early elections in 2009. The election won the Social Democrats, led by Johanna Sigurdardottir. The starting point for the new government's foreign policy was Iceland's integration into the European Union.

A year later (2010), official access negotiations were opened with Iceland. Later in 2013, their new Icelandic government stopped negotiating and subsequently applied in 2015 to exclude Iceland from the group of candidate countries for membership of the European Union.

Iceland and the European Union - factors influencing their relationships

Despite the reluctance to become a full member of the EU, from time to time Icelanders show an increased interest in integrating into European structures, especially during difficult times. Such as during the global economic crisis when they applied for membership on 16 July 2009. There were several reasons for this, namely:

1. Efforts to stabilize the country and restore its credibility abroad
2. The adoption of the euro would stabilize currency and interconnect the European economy with Icelandic
3. Membership would help Icelanders cope with the country's poor economic situation
4. Existence of a favourable domestic political situation
5. Public support in commencing integration processes
6. Protection against the consequences of similar crises
7. Elimination of isolation and restoration of competitiveness

Opponents of Iceland's full membership of the European Union had their arguments, namely:

1. Restrictions on fisheries policy
2. Loss of independence and weakening of decision-making
3. Weakening of national identity
4. Gradual weakening of public support for integration
5. EU regulations and their impact on the country's economy
6. The need to repay the debt to the governments of the United Kingdom and the Netherlands¹⁰⁴
7. Lengthy process of implementing EU legislation¹⁰⁵
8. The need to resolve the conflict between Iceland and the EU over mackerel fishing quotas

The factors influencing Icelanders' attitude towards European integration and their eventual membership of the EU can be divided into rational and irrational.

¹⁰³ **Amadeo, K.** (2019) Iceland's Economy, Its Bankruptcy, and the Financial Crisis. World Economy. The 30th May 2019 <https://www.thebalance.com/iceland-financial-crisis-bankruptcy-and-economy-3306347> (visited 12.05.2020).

¹⁰⁴They paid the guaranteed amount of deposits to their citizens and demanded compensation from Iceland, which was about 4 billion euros.

¹⁰⁵ Even though already when joining the Schengen area (1985) and the EEA (1994) Iceland, it has already adopted most of the EU regulation.

Despite the fact, Iceland has adopted most of EU regulation already when joining the Schengen area (1985) and the EEA (1994)

Rational factors include economic cooperation with the European Union and its Member States, focusing mainly on fisheries policy. Also, the elimination of the isolation of Iceland and its inhabitants, increased visibility and a higher degree of competitiveness of the country abroad. The Common Fisheries Policy can be considered to be the most important of them.

We include national identity, sense of belonging to the northern region, a strong degree of integrity of Icelanders and a belief in their uniqueness as irrational factors. Last but not least, public opinion, which is very important.

Fisheries Policy

Due to the geographical location and natural condition, in the centre of Island's economy is the fisheries policy which the most important commodity for export. The fishing restrictions were the main source of disagreements and Island's reason for withdrawal from the European Communities.

Nevertheless, the countries of the European Union are among its most important trading partners. At the same time, the largest market for Icelanders is the European Union's market. The Icelandic economy is oriented towards fisheries and fishery products, which represent a significant part of the state budget revenue and a significant share of GDP, although its share has been declining in recent years. „In 2019, Iceland exported 71% of its goods to EU countries, most of them to the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Spain. In terms of export structure, the largest items were fish and seafood (41%)".¹⁰⁶

"Iceland's fishing area covers an admirable 760 thousand square kilometres, which is about seven times larger than Iceland alone. It is located in the North Atlantic Ocean and is extremely rich in fish, especially cod."¹⁰⁷

Iceland's fishing industry is one of the most modern in the world and is based on the protection of the marine ecosystems and promotes regulated fishing, which contributes to a rational approach to fishing that is in the interests of all Icelanders.

Fisheries are also declared to be of Iceland's national interest, what is significantly reflected in its domestic as well as foreign policy. In the fisheries sector and in the downstream processing industry, only partial ownership is allowed up to a maximum share of 25 to 33%.¹⁰⁸

Recently, other sectors such as biotechnology, aluminium and aluminium products have come to the fore, contributing to employment and economic growth, yet fishing still remains an important part of Icelanders' lives, especially those living in rural areas.

¹⁰⁶ Embassy of the Slovak Republic in Oslo. (2020) Iceland: Foreign trade and investment. Norway. The 15th May 2020 <https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zahranicni-obchod-a-investice/>(visited 17.05.2020).

¹⁰⁷ **Dráč, P.** (2017) Islanders are among Europe's most important fishermen. Peasant newspaper, 14th February 2017 [HTTPS://WWW.RNO.SK/ISLANDANIA-PATRIA-K-NAJDOLEZITEJSIM-RYBAROM-EUROPY/](https://www.rno.sk/islandania-patria-k-najdolezitejsim-rybarom-europy/)(VISITED 7.05.2020).

¹⁰⁸ Embassy of the Slovak Republic in Oslo. (2020) Iceland: Foreign trade and investment. Norway. The 15th May 2020 <https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zahranicni-obchod-a-investice/>(visited 17.05.2020).

National identity

Based on history, it is clear that Iceland has almost always developed as part of another state. It went through a long period in which it had to fight for its sovereignty and independence. Perhaps that is why Icelanders are still cautious about integration, and there is an effort to maintain the strongest possible independence as a sign of their own sovereignty.

Even today, due to its geographical location, Iceland is in some isolation from the rest of Europe, which also predisposes it to show a certain distance from the Union.

Icelanders' national identities are also reflected in their efforts to keep their fishing policy fully independent without any outside interference. It is part of Icelanders and their history.

"According to historical sources, the first export of fish from Iceland dates back to the 12th century."¹⁰⁹

Iceland is a sparsely populated country, where the vast majority of the population lives in cities and most of them in the capital. Reykjavík is a home to two-thirds of the total population.¹¹⁰ This fact also contributes to greater fellowship and unity of Icelanders.

Finally, as European integration deepens, it triggers concerns about the loss of national sovereignty and identity. A strong national identity increases country's opposition to integration into international organisations like the European Union.¹¹¹

Conclusion

Currently, relations between Iceland and the European Union can be described as stable. The issue of resuming accession negotiations is now questionable, as there is a lack of a national consensus and the support of the public as well as political elites is very low. Icelanders fear the loss of their independence and the disruption of their national unity. They are also afraid of a certain degree of isolation and economic instability in their country, which has recently become the greatest threat from the population's point of view.

Even before the outbreak of the global COVID-19 pandemic, the Icelandic economy declined. The pandemic itself will slow down development, and so the question arises: Will Iceland's current economic situation lead to its renewed integration efforts, as it did during the global financial crisis?

If the EU wants to go beyond its current boundaries in the future and move forward in the process of expanding its area of influence, as well as in recruiting new members, it will probably have to apply differentiated integration.¹¹²

¹⁰⁹ **Dráč, P.** (2017) Islanders are among Europe's most important fishermen. Peasant newspaper, 14th February 2017 <https://www.rno.sk/islandania-patria-k-najdolezitejsim-rybarom-europy/>(visited 7.05.2020).

¹¹⁰Iceland: Basic characteristics of the territory, Economic overview. <https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zakladni-charakteristika-teritoria-ekonomicky-prehled/>(visited 10.05.2020).

¹¹¹ **Schimmelfennig, F.** (2017) Introduction. In Differentiation and Self-determination in European Integration. Euborders, Zurich. September 2017 https://www.ibei.org/working-paper-01-euborders_145111.pdf (visited 11.05.2020). p. 3.

¹¹² Ibid, p. 3.

Literature:

Amadeo, K. (2019) Iceland's Economy, Its Bankruptcy, and the Financial Crisis. World Economy. The 30th May 2019 <https://www.thebalance.com/iceland-financial-crisis-bankruptcy-and-economy-3306347> (visited 12.05.2020).

Burclík, M. Havlík, V. Pinková, A. (2011) Scandinavia. Policy changes in Northern countries. Praha: Wolters Kluwer.

Dráč, P. (2017) Islanders are among Europe's most important fishermen. Peasant newspaper, 14th February 2017
<https://www.rno.sk/islandania-patria-k-najdolezitejsim-rybarom-europy/>(visited 7.05.2020).

Embassy of the Slovak Republic in Oslo. (2020) Iceland: Foreign trade and investment. Norway. The 15th May 2020.
<https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zahranicni-obchod-a-investice/>(visited 17.05.2020).

Hison, M. (2019) The Nordic region. Euractiv Slovakia. The 25th February 2019
<https://www.europskaunia.sk/island-a-eu> (visited on 10.05.2020).

Iceland: Basic characteristics of the territory, Economic overview.
<https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zakladni-charakteristika-teritoria-ekonomicky-prehled/>(visited 10.05.2020).

Froderberg, M. 10 facts about the Nordic Region and Nordic co-operation. The Nordic Council and the Nordic Council of Ministers. Copenhagen. Denmark. <https://www.norden.org/en/information/10-facts-about-nordic-region-and-nordic-co-operation> (visited on 12.05.2020).

Kucharčík, R. Chuguryan, S. (2014) *Selected chapters from comparative policy*. Bratislava: Publisher Ekonóm.

Mccallion, S. M. Brianson, A. (2018) Nordic States and European Integration: Awkward Partners in the North? Editors: Stegmann Mccallion, Malin, Brianson, Alex. Eds. Palgrave studies in European Union Politics, s. 7.

Nosterud, B. K. (2020) Iceland, the volcanic island in the north Atlantic is famous for its hot springs and dramatic scenery. The Nordic Council and the Nordic Council of Ministers, Copenhagen. Denmark. <https://www.norden.org/en/information/facts-about-iceland> (visited on 2.05.2020).

Republic of Iceland. General country information. Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Slovak Republic. (2014) Economic information on the territory. MFA SR MZV SR. <https://export.slovensko.sk/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/Island-Ekonomické-informácie-o-teritóriu-November-2014.pdf> (visited on 15.05.2020).

Schimmelfennig, F. (2017) Introduction. In Differentiation and Self-determination in European Integration. Euborders, Zurich. September 2017 https://www.ibeio.org/working-paper-01-euborders_145111.pdf (visited 11.05.2020).

Thorarensen, J. (2011) Constitutional reform proces in Iceland. <https://www.uio.no/english/research/interfaculty-research-areas/democracy/news-and-events/events/seminars/2011/papers-roma-2011/Rome-Thorarensen.pdf> (visited 12.05.2020), s. 3.

Zeman, J. (2002) Iceland. Island made of fire. Prague: Paseka.

Želiezko, P. History of Iceland. <http://www.mundo.cz/island/historie> (visited 12.05.2020)

Iceland: Basic characteristics of the territory, Economic overview. <https://www.businessinfo.cz/navody/island-zakladni-charakteristika-teritoria-ekonomicky-prehled/>(visited 10.05.2020).

**A CONTRIBUTION TO THE RESEARCH OF EMIGRATION FROM KOSOVO AND
METOHIJA BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS**

Božica Slavković Mirić PhD

The Institute for Recent History of Serbia - Belgrade

Abstract

Our research of emigration from Kosovo and Metohija in the period between the two worlds was done on the basis of archival sources, professional literature and the press. The analysis of interstate relations and the number of emigrants are the topics of our paper, which we tried to look at. The issue of emigration of the Muslim population from Kosovo and Metohija was related to the political and economic situation in this area. The Yugoslav state tried to solve the national question in the south by emigrating the Muslim population, primarily to Turkey and Albania. Various privileges were given for these purposes. Turkey was interested in this settlement because it wanted to settle its deserted areas from which the Kurds were evicted. The Yugoslav-Turkish Convention on Emigration was signed in 1938, but negotiations were stopped because there was no financial agreement. The emigration process stopped due to the death of President Kemal Ataturk and the outbreak of World War II. Analyzing the statistics we were researching, we came to the conclusion that the number of emigrants was twenty thousand within one year, which showed that this phenomenon was not massive.

Key words: Emigration, Kingdom of Yugoslavia, Kosovo and Metohija, Period between the two world wars, Turkey

Introduction

Our paper is based on previous research related to the topic of emigration from Kosovo and Metohija between the two world wars. This subject has interested authors since the 1970s, but it was difficult to single out the area of Kosovo and Metohija, which in the period after the First World War belonged to Southern Serbia within the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and then the Vardar, Zeta and Moravian Banovina within Kingdom of Yugoslavia, so it did not exist as today's geographical concept. In addition, the issue of emigration should not be separated from political and economic context. Also, in our paper we made an effort in additional research in the archives and literature to analyze the interstate relations that influenced emigration, the legal regulation of this issue and to try to reach an approximate number of emigrants from this area. Massive migrations of Muslims to the southeast of the Balkans and to Turkey began with the Great Eastern Crisis (there were 60,000 emigrant families on the Thessaloniki-Mitrovica railway in October 1878), culminating in the collapse of the Turkish Empire. The Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1908, initiated the migration of Muslims to Sandžak and the Kosovo Vilayet, which, due to the arrival of „The Young Turks“ in Turkey were proceeding as planned. These emigrants came as very poor, thus worsening the situation in the Novi Pazar's sandžak and causing the Serb population to flee to Serbia.¹¹³ Muslims emigrated to Turkey during

¹¹³ Hodža, H. (1978) „Uzroci, problemi i posljedice migracija stanovništva Kosova i pripadnika albanske nacionalnosti u inostranstvo“. In: Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom: zbornik. Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 258. Hajredin Hodža states that during the Turkish rule, until 1912, the largest migration movements were towards the east. Due to military service, hired as escorts of merchant caravans,

and after the Balkan Wars¹¹⁴, which in 1914 gained mass character.¹¹⁵ The population emigrated first because of religious fanaticism (according to religious law, Turks were prohibited from living under the rule of other nations). In addition, they migrated because of family ties, fear of repercussions for acts committed by individuals over Orthodox population during the Turkish rule, unpunished injustices inflicted by individual authorities, but also for hoping for a better life in Turkey.¹¹⁶ They emigrated to some countries in the Middle East (Syria, Egypt, etc.), and from Kosovo (Sirinička Župa) to the United States, Canada and Australia, which had an economic character.¹¹⁷ Ali Hadri states that in the period 1910-1920 the population of Kosovo and Metohija was reduced from 475,000 in 1910 to 439,000 in 1920.¹¹⁸ However, the cause was not only the emigration of Albanians, but also the wars of 1912–1918, when the expulsion of Serbs from Kosovo was particularly intense.

Legal and planning regulation of emigration issue

The emigration of the Muslim population from Yugoslavia was legalized on 21 September 1928, pursuant to Article 55 of the Law on Citizenship. On the basis of this article, Turkish citizenship was granted to the inhabitants of the former Turkish Empire, which after the wars of 1912–1913. affiliated to the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, "if, within five years of the entry into force of this Law, they declared to the competent first-instance administration that they will to withdraw citizenship" and "were obliged to move out of the Kingdom within one year whereby they were free to bring all their movable property good".¹¹⁹ For a departure from Yugoslav citizenship, one "simple statement" was sufficient, even the formalities referred to in Article 55 were not required, and on behalf of the illiterate, a mission official could sign. At the request of the emigrant, the Yugoslav Ministry of Foreign Affairs would forward the lists to the Tirana and Ankara missions, as well as the Consulate General in Constantinople, for approval.¹²⁰ However, because bilateral procedures were not regulated, emigrants were often returned from the Turkish

or for deportation following Albanian uprisings, many Albanians came to present-day Turkey (100-200,000 Albanians). According to Serbian sources, in the period 1912–1913, about 20,000 people emigrated to Albania who could be assumed to be Albanians. (Janjetović, Z. (2005) *Deca careva, pastorčad kraljeva. Nacionalne manjine u Jugoslaviji 1918-1941*. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije, 69).

¹¹⁴ During and after the Balkan wars, 413,992 Muslims emigrated to Turkey (out of 1,445 179 who no longer lived in the conquered area of Ottoman Europe) (Karčić, F. (ed.) (2001). *Muslimani Balkana: "Istočno pitanje" u XX vijeku*. Tuzla: Behram-begova medresa, 57).

¹¹⁵ From April to July 1914, 16,570 persons emigrated from the "new regions" of Montenegro (from Bar). By the end of April 1914, about 40,000 families had emigrated from the area annexed to Serbia. According to the Turkish Foreign Ministry, about 200,000 Muslim residents have emigrated from the lost Balkan provinces.

¹¹⁶ Smlatić, S. (1978) „Iseljavanje jugoslovenskih muslimana u Tursku i njihovo prilagođavanje novoj sredini“. In: *Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom : zbornik*. Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 250-51.

¹¹⁷ Pajazit. N. (1978) „Karakter i osobenosti prilaza izučavanju iseljništva naroda i narodnosti pokrajine Kosova“. In: *Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom: zbornik..* Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 585.

¹¹⁸ Hadri, A. (1967) „Kosovo i Metohija u Kraljevini Jugoslaviji“ in: *Istorijski glasnik*. Vol. 1-2, 74.

¹¹⁹ Archives of Yugoslavia (hereafter: AJ), Collection: Yugoslav Embassy in Turkey (370), unit 56, page 500, *Zakon o jugoslovenskom državljanstvu od 1. novembra 1928*; Avdić, A. (1991) „Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata“ in: *Novopazarski zbornik*. Vol. 15, 112.

¹²⁰ AJ, 370-56-142, 487, 489, 499, 8 May 1933; AJ, Collection: The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia (334), file 26, unit 64, 851–852.

border at the expense of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.¹²¹ That is why this state sought to reach an agreement with Turkey on the eviction of Muslims, so negotiations between the Yugoslav and Turkish governments began in 1930.¹²² The minister of the court, Bogoljub Jevtić, and the Turkish minister, Ruzdi Aras, agreed in principle in 1931 on the expulsion of Turkish and other Muslims from Yugoslavia.¹²³

In an effort to overcome bureaucratic obstacles, the Royal Banking Authority of the Vardar Banovina¹²⁴ set out to indicate the visa validity on passports issued for emigration to Turkey (1932). Specifically, the Turkish missions refused a visa to anyone whose passport indicated that he had been issued for eviction.¹²⁵ Emigrants from Yugoslavia who were granted Turkish citizenship and had a regular Turkish passport were to be issued visas, while those who had emigrated from Yugoslavia but had not yet obtained Turkish citizenship were to be refused.¹²⁶

The Minister of the Army and Navy of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia ordered that all persons of non-Slovene origin, who wished to emigrate, should be released from recruitment, and those who were serving on the staff term should be dismissed. However, he emphasized that in the event of non-eviction in a year, this privilege would not apply.¹²⁷

Turkish Minister Ali Hajdar Bey drew the attention (1932) to the Yugoslav Foreign Minister of writing a domestic press (*Novosti* and *Narodna odbrana*) on the subject of compensation for Turkish properties in the territory of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia; those texts claimed that the properties had been forcibly taken away by the Turks several hundred years ago and, accordingly, they were not entitled to any compensation.¹²⁸ The value of the abandoned property was to be paid to the settlers and made available to the Turkish State by the proceeds of the valuation of the emigrant property, either in cash or in a loan for goods it would buy in the Kingdom of Yugoslavia.¹²⁹ Djordje Nastasijević, national deputy, reported to the Yugoslav Prime Minister, Milan Stojadinović, that the Athenian newspapers wrote that a few thousand Muslims could be emigrated from southern Serbia via Thessaloniki and Piraeus to Constantinople. However, the Turkish government had forbidden its diplomatic and consular agents in Yugoslavia from issuing them visas for settlement on Turkish territory.¹³⁰

Since 1935, negotiations have begun to resolve the issue of expelling Muslims from Kosovo, Macedonia and Sandžak to Turkey. The Kingdom of Yugoslavia wanted to address the issue

¹²¹ AJ, 370-9-42, 506, 630, 3 June 1932.

¹²² Avramovski, Ž. (1964) „Prilog pitanju italijansko-albanske iredentističke propagande na Kosovu i Metohiji u vreme minhenske krize i okupacije Albanije“ in: Istorijski glasnik. Vol. 2–3, 125.

¹²³ Hadri, Kosovo i Metohija u Kraljevini Jugoslaviji, 75.

¹²⁴ For more information on Kosovo and Metohija in the period between the two world wars, see: Slavković Mirić, B. (2018) *Političke, ekonomske i kulturne prilike na Kosovu i Metohiji 1929-1941*. Beograd: IP Prosveta, IP Princip; Jovanović, V. (2011) *Vardarska banovina 1929-1941*. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije. According to the Law on the Name and Division of the Kingdom into Administrative Areas (1929), as well as the Constitution of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia (1931), Kosovo and Metohija were divided into three banovinas - within Zetska were Djakovica, Istok, Mitrovica, Peć and Podrima districts, within Moravian banovina were Lab, Vučitrn and Drenica sections, within Vardar banovina were Nerodimlje, Gnjilane, Gračanica, Podgora, Šar planina and Gora county (*Zakon o nazivu i podeli kraljevine na upravna područja*, *Zbirka Službenog glasnika*, XXXVI, Split 1929, 4–5; *Politika*, 4 Oktober 1929, 3; *Politika*, 3 September 1931, 3).

¹²⁵ AJ, 370-9-578, Ministarstvo inostranih dela Kraljevskom poslanstvu u Carigradu, 13 May 1932.

¹²⁶ AJ, 370-8-216, Ministarstvo inostranih dela Kraljevskom poslanstvu u Ankari, 12 June 1939.

¹²⁷ AJ, 370-9-708, 13 July 1936.

¹²⁸ AJ, 370-7-27, Ministarstvo inostranih dela kraljevskom poslanstvu u Ankari, 29 November 1932.

¹²⁹ AJ, 370-9-631, 30 Oktober 1935.

¹³⁰ AJ, 370-9-657, 15 November 1935.

modeled on Greece, Romania and Bulgaria.¹³¹ An inter-ministerial conference was held in Yugoslavia on 20 September 1935, at which representatives of five ministries and the General Staff met to discuss the eviction of Muslims. Head of the Political Department Section Ilija Milikić, Advisor Milivoje Milčić, Advisor Petar Čabrić and Secretary Radovan Mitrović from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Inspector Vojislav Magovčević and Chief Financial Officer Djura Tatalović from the Ministry of Agriculture, Inspector Dušan Tadić from the Ministry of the Interior, advisor Dušan Trajković of the Ministry of Finance, senior officer of the Commercial Department Miloš Popović of the Ministry of Transport and Colonel Jovan Sokolović of the General Staff participated in this conference. The chairman, Ilija Milikić, emphasized that the conference was necessary because a large number of Turks and Albanians beside the border was a problem, while the number of Orthodox population was low (165,000). The poor results of previous evictions were outlined and the need to sign an agreement with Turkey was emphasized. The Albanian government has refused to accept Albanians from Kosovo and Metohija, citing lack of finances as the reason, although conference participants thought it was due to future territorial claims. The liquidation of the settler's estate was to be settled with a loan of 21.8 million dinars which was taken by the Ministry of Agriculture at the State Mortgage Bank. Expatriates were to be provided with free transport to the border or a discount of up to 75%, but the Ministry of Transport did not give up tariffs. Article 55 of the Law on Citizenship expired in 1933, and at the request of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs it was extended until 1938. 20,000 persons were evicted to Turkey, while about 2,000 statements were registered for Albania, but none were granted immigration permits. Milivoje Milčić stated that "the Turks were a peaceful element that was not subject to nationalist propaganda unlike Arbanas, and thus, in friendly relations with Turkey, the issue of emigrating Turks and thus of Arbanas could be resolved." Milčić also stated that, „given that there were a large number of families applying for settlement, in the southern regions the only way would be to evict the Turkish and Arnaut elements and colonize them by the border“. Magovčević stressed that a loan made with the State Mortgage Bank should buy Albanian and Turkish properties, but the action of the Albanian Committee¹³² in border areas deterred potential expatriates. Measures to evict the non-Slovenian population should be facilitated through, for example, issuing free passports, exemption from duties, giving free transportation to the state border, replacement of surrendered properties, exemption from military service, etc. The process of obtaining numerous documents also needed to be simplified. Colonel Sokolović emphasized that expedition should be accelerated. He believed that potential expatriates should be separated

¹³¹ Turkey concluded a convention with Greece, 30 January 1923, on the expulsion of 1,300 000 Greeks from Turkey to Greece and about half a million Turks from Greece to Turkey (348,000 and 475,000), with Romania on 4 September 1936 (ratified 27 January 1937) on the emigration of 400,000 Turks, mainly from Dobruža to Turkey. An agreement was reached with Bulgaria in 1938. (Avdić, *Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata*, 113; Bandžović, S. (2003) „Ratovi i demografska deosmanizacija Balkana (1912-1941)“. in: *Prilozi*. Vol. 32, 214).

¹³² The Kosovo Committee was formed, with the assistance of Italy, in January 1919, with its headquarters in Skadar. The Committee was chaired by Hodza Kadriu, headed by Hasan Pristina, Bajram Curi, Sali Maljica and Sotir Peci. This Committee was very important in all political matters, as well as in relations between Albania, Yugoslavia and Italy. (Maliković, D. (2005) *Kačaki pokret na Kosovu i Metohiji 1918–1924*. Priština- Leposavić : Institut za srpsku kulturu ; Kosovska Mitrovica: Filozofski fakultet; Dimić, Lj. Borozan. Đ. (1999) „Političke i bezbednosne prilike na Kosovu i Metohiji u prvoj polovini 1920“ in: *Istorija 20. veka*. Vol. 1–2, 89-104; Dželetović, P. (1990) *Kačaci Kosova i Metohije*. Beograd: Inter-ju-pres; Antonić, G. (2006) „Kosovski komitet i Kraljevina SHS u svetlu jugoslovenskih izvora 1918–1920“ in: *Istorija 20. veka*. Vol. 1, 30; Borozan, Đ. (1995) *Velika Albanija: porijeklo-ideje-praksa*. Beograd: Vojnoistorijski institut Vojske Jugoslavije, 75).

from those who carried out anti-emigration propaganda. In his view, Turkish children should have attended state-run national schools. Also, Colonel Sokolović emphasized that those who would not want to move out should not be admitted to either state or self-governing service. He also suggested creating a Serb-populated zone along the Albanian border.¹³³

The conference ended with „a project on the eviction of a non-Slovenian element from southern Serbia“, which in the first place implied that the issue of eviction should be resolved by a special convention of Yugoslavia and Turkey, as well as Yugoslavia and Albania. Also, if Albania did not agree to the agreement or if the Albanians did not agree to emigrate to Turkey, it was foreseen to move them from the border zone to the interior of the country, and to settle this zone with the population of Yugoslav nationality. Then, everyone who gave a declaration of resignation from Yugoslav citizenship should be given free expatriate passports. Also, if they declare that they were leaving all immovable property to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, they should be released from all duties and military service, given a free pass to Thessaloniki and Svilengrad, and all debts should be paid from the estimated value of their movable property. Railways were supposed to give a 75% discount, also. In order to make eviction more successful and faster, any anti-emigration propaganda had to be suppressed and the non-Slovenian population had to be required to comply with all laws and regulations, especially for the payment of fiscal obligations. Also, in the territory of South Serbia, and especially from the border crossings, it was necessary to invite non-Slovenian conscripts as often as possible to military exercises and in principle not to admit potential emigrants to the state and self-governing service, and to deploy those who were already in the civil service in the places where lived "National population". The principle of compulsory schooling of children in public elementary schools should be strictly applied, regulations on settling of the southern regions should be applied with regard to the restriction of the necessary complexes for settlement, first of all at border crossings, access to nationalization of geographical objects and personal surnames, as well as public companies, signs, advertisements etc; all this had to be applied from the border line to the interior of the country.¹³⁴

Negotiations with the Turkish government extended until 1938, when the text of the convention was initialed. At the Ankara meeting in 25-27 February 1938, Turkish Foreign Minister Ruzdi Aras proposed setting up a commission composed of two Romanian, two Yugoslav and two Turkish representatives and one Greek observer who needed to study more closely the issue of Muslim emigration to Turkey.¹³⁵ The Emigration Commission met on 9 June 1938 in Constantinople, and held eight sessions until 11 July.¹³⁶ The chairman was Hasan Saka, chairman of the Turkish section of the Balkan Economic Council. The Yugoslav delegates were Milan Ristić, head of the Balkan section of the Foreign Ministry, and Vojislav Magovčević, inspector of the Ministry of Agriculture. Milan Ristić emphasized that there were a large number of Muslims of Turkish descent in southern Serbia who would like to move to Turkey, and who, after selling all their goods and inability to move out, „fell to the government's expense“. In addition, it was pointed out that the issue of emigration to Yugoslavia was of both economic and social nature, as there was a large number of rural populations of landless people who were waiting for land to be cultivated. Hasan Saka pointed out that, for the settlement of about 200,000 people, the financial

¹³³ AJ, 370-9-42, 638–640, Interministrijalna konferencija.

¹³⁴ AJ, 370-9-42, 642,643.

¹³⁵ Avdić, Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata, 113.

¹³⁶ *Politika*, 14 July 1938, 2.

cost will be high, primarily because they would settle in Anatolia, where land for emigrants had yet to be bought. In that case, Turkey insisted that Yugoslavia give half of the amount needed to settle, or 20,000 000 lire (payment per emigrant), as well as financial assistance that the Yugoslav government would have to pay for part of the costs Turkey would bear. The question was whether so many emigrants from Yugoslavia could be settled because Romanian expatriates had to arrive at the same time and whether the period of 5 years should be extended to 6 or 7 years. Turkish representatives suggested that compensation be paid per family. Also, if more than 200,000 people were settled (40,000 families, it was estimated that each family had at least five members), 40,000 000 lira would have to be set aside.¹³⁷

Following the completion of the negotiations, the text of the Convention on the Regulation of Expatriation of the Muslim Population from the Territory of Southern Serbia (21 members) was drafted. First, the convention referred to a Yugoslav Muslim population who spoke Turkish and had a Turkish culture. The second article highlighted from which municipal sections the Muslim population was to be evicted (In Kosovo and Metohija, these were Šar planina (Prizren), Gora (Dragaš), Podgora (Suva Reka), Nerodimlje (Uroševac), Gračanica (Priština), Kačanik, Gnjilane, Peć, Istok, Kosovska Mitrovica, Djakovica, Podrima (Orahovac), Lab (Podujevo), Vučitrn and Drenica (Srbica). In the third article, the Turkish government pledged to accept 40,000 families, and it was foreseen that emigration would take place in the next 6 years (1939 4,000, 1940 6,000, 1941 7,000, 1942 7,000, 1943 8,000, 1944 8,000). Article 5 stated that the convention only applied to rural families, which could transport four pieces of large cattle and ten small livestock. In addition to the rural, the urban population could also be emigrated. All the immovable property of the emigrants became the property of the Yugoslav state when they left their residence. Article 7 provided that the Yugoslav government would pay Turkey 500 Turkish lira per family, or 20,000 000 for all 40,000 families. The Yugoslav government was supposed to pay from April 1 to October 1 a half-yearly amount in respect of the number of displaced families, 30% in foreign currency and 70% in dinars deposited into the account of the Republic of Turkey with the National Bank of Yugoslavia. These funds were to be spent on transactions and purchases of Yugoslav goods, free of tax, except those paid in foreign currencies (copper, wool, leather, walnut, oilseeds, olives and grain). The emigrants should have given a written statement that they were renouncing their Yugoslav citizenship¹³⁸, after which they would be granted emigrant status, and would be granted Turkish citizenship upon the signing of an annual list of emigrants by Turkish delegates. They could bring with them all movable property; the Yugoslav government was required to pay all the cost up to the embarkation port of Thessaloniki, and for surplus goods they had to pay fees at the lowest customs tariff. The departure of the emigrants was to be done on the basis of collective Turkish passports.¹³⁹

The convention had a weak echo in the Yugoslav press, primarily because of the secrecy of the negotiations. The big problem was that the Turkish government asked Yugoslavia to pay out 20 million lire in three years, which created the condition to move half of the estimated number of families within the same period.¹⁴⁰ In addition, the problem was that the agreement had to be

¹³⁷ Avdić, Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata, 113-119.

¹³⁸ AJ, 334-26-64, 381-543, 637-674, 734-740; AJ, 334-26-64, 742.

¹³⁹ AJ, 370-9-921, 922; Avdić, Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata, 119-122.

¹⁴⁰ AJ, 370-9-42, 773,777,927,931.

applied to the complex ethno-religious structure of the population of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia.¹⁴¹ The provisions of the convention applied to the Turkish population, but also to Albanians and Muslims who declared themselves Turks, not to "Roma and nomadic populations". There was a vague „border“ between Muslims and Turks in this agreement.¹⁴² Hajdar bey, the Turkish foreign minister, pointed out in 1938, in a conversation with his Albanian counterpart, that Turkey was not a Muslim republic nor wanted to become one by accepting Muslims of other "races", which meant that it would not accept Albanian expatriates. Hajdar Bey believed that there were about 250,000 Turks in Yugoslavia.¹⁴³ Therefore, Yugoslavia's intention, through the emigration of the people of Turkish culture, to resolve the issue of the disloyal Albanian population, was not welcome in Ankara.¹⁴⁴

The Turks proved to be loyal citizens of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia and were alarmed at the possible forced eviction. Spira Hadzi Ristic, national deputy for Skoplje, believed that the Turks feared that settling in Turkey would not be carried out properly, but abruptly and without order, so they should have the right to choose freely to stay or go to Turkey.¹⁴⁵ Unlike the Turks, the Albanians were a "restless element" in the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. Through Muslim emigration Yugoslavia tried to solve a problem with disloyal Albanians.¹⁴⁶ In addition, their numbers increased steadily. According to a report to the Royal Assembly in Ankara (18 October 1935), there were 505,000 Albanians in the southern regions of Serbia until 1931, and from 1931 to 1935 that number increased by about 65,000.¹⁴⁷

Number of emigrants

There are different figures in the historiography about the number of emigrants to Turkey and Albania, so we cannot specify the exact number of emigrants.¹⁴⁸ Miroslav Jovičić states that about 45,000 Albanians, Turks and Roma emigrated to Turkey between the two world wars.¹⁴⁹ Statistics 1929–1939. show that 16,885 Yugoslavs emigrated to Turkey and 4,322 to Albania.¹⁵⁰ According to these data, the ethnicity of the emigrants is not indicated. The population emigrated not only from Kosovo and Metohija and from Macedonia, but also from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Vojvodina. This shows that it was not possible to talk only about the emigration of the Albanian population. On the contrary, the biggest decrease in the Turkish population in Yugoslavia is in the years between the two wars, and on the other hand, maintaining a high natural increase of Albanians, leads more to the conclusion that, above all, it is about the emigration of the Turks. The total number of emigrants to all countries of the world was 20-30,000 over one year. Therefore,

¹⁴¹ Bandžović, Ratovi i demografska deosmanizacija Balkana (1912–1941), 220, 227.

¹⁴² Dogo, M. (1997) „Muslimani kao etničke i verske manjine u jugoistočnoj Evropi između dva svetska rata“. In: Islam, Balkan i velike sile. Beograd: Istorijski institut SANU, 459.

¹⁴³ Dogo, Muslimani kao etničke i verske manjine u jugoistočnoj Evropi između dva svetska rata, 462.

¹⁴⁴ Jovanović, V. (2006) „Interministrijalna konferencija Kraljevine Jugoslavije o iseljenju „neslovenskog elemenata u Tursku“ (1935)“ in: Prilozi. Vol. 35, 110.

¹⁴⁵ AJ, Collection: Milan Stojadinovic (37), unit 54, p. 630, 1936.

¹⁴⁶ Jovanović, V. (2008) „In search of homeland? Muslim migration for Yugoslavia to Turkey 1918-1941“ in: Tokovi istorije. Vol. 1-2, 64.

¹⁴⁷ Avdić, A. (1985) „Opšti pogled na migraciona kretanja muslimanskog stanovništva na Balkanu od kraja 19. veka do zaključenja jugoslovensko-turske konvencije“ in: Novopazarski zbornik. Vol. 9, 147–66.

¹⁴⁸ Janjetović, Deca careva, pastorčad kraljeva. Nacionalne manjine u Jugoslaviji 1918-1941, 69.

¹⁴⁹ Jovičić, M. (1990) „Ustavno-pravni položaj pripadnika albanske nacionalnosti u Jugoslaviji“. In: Srbi i Albanci u 20. veku. Beograd: SANU, 143.

¹⁵⁰ Statistički godišnjak Kraljevine Jugoslavije(vol.X).1940. Beograd: Opšta državna statistika, 137.

the number of 20,000 emigrants to Turkey and Albania for thirteen years (between the two world wars) cannot be considered a mass phenomenon.¹⁵¹ In addition, anthropogeographic surveys of Atanasije Urošević showed that the evictions were not of a mass character.¹⁵² Officially, 1918-1932, 19,278 people emigrated to Turkey.¹⁵³ According to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the number of persons who emigrated to Turkey by 1935 (according to the statement on resignation) was 21,500, or 4,940 families, while 1,350 persons (338 families) moved to Albania.¹⁵⁴ According to official Yugoslav data, 19,379 persons were emigrated from Yugoslavia to Turkey (from 1927 to 1939) and 4,322 Yugoslavs emigrated to Albania.¹⁵⁵ Some Albanian historians have cited twice as many emigrants as their Serb counterparts. They also equated the terms Muslim and Albanian.¹⁵⁶ Among the emigrants were those from higher social classes - former feudal lords and clerks who could not cope with the loss of economic positions and privileged position during the Turkish rule.¹⁵⁷ However, life in the new conditions was not easy and it was necessary to adapt to the way of life there, which caused many difficulties for the emigrants.¹⁵⁸

¹⁵¹ Gligorijević, B. (1990) „Političke, privredne i socijalne prilike na mešanim područjima“. In: Srbi i Albanci u 20. veku. Beograd: SANU, 218–19.

¹⁵² According to his research, they primarily went to Turkey and to a small extent to Albania. By 1935, 844 houses (about 4,220 people) had been evicted from Kosovo and Metohija (7,638 houses) - 804 Albanian houses and 40 Serb houses. To Albania were evicted 68 houses (about 340 people) and 2 Albanian houses (about a dozen people) to Syria. (Urošević, A. (2001) O Kosovu: antropogeografske studije i drugi spisi. Priština : Narodna i univerzitetska biblioteka "Ivo Andrić" : Institut za srpsku kulturu ; Gnjilane : Knjižara "Sveti Sava", 95). From Novobrdaska Kriva Reka (out of 2,944 Albanian houses in the whole area), 95 homes (about 475 people) moved out, 81 to Turkey and 14 to Albania. The eviction rate was 3.13% (Urošević, A. (1996) Novobrdaska Kriva Reka. Priština : "Grigorije Božović" ; Gnjilane : "Sveti Sava", 42-45).

¹⁵³ Janjetović, Deca careva, pastorčad kraljeva. Nacionalne manjine u Jugoslaviji 1918-1941, 70. According to the 1927 census, Turkey had a population of 13,648 270, of whom 86% were Turkish speakers, while according to the 1935 census, it had 16,188 767 inhabitants. (Bandžović, Ratovi i demografska deosmanizacija Balkana (1912–1941), 215).

¹⁵⁴ AJ, 370-9- 42, 630, Ministarstvo inostranih dela, 18 Oktober 1935. Minister Sukri Kaja pointed out that "by 1935, about 600,000 people had immigrated to Turkey, of which over 400,000 came through the population exchange and the rest came voluntarily." AJ, 370-9-629, Ministarstvu inostranih poslova Beograd, 19 November 1935). According to Albanian statistics, between 1 January and 31 October 1935, more than 1,500 Kosovo migrants settled between Fieria and Lusnja (AJ, 370-9-665, Ministarstvu inostranih poslova, 5 December 1935).

¹⁵⁵ Gligorijević, B. (1997) „Između pravoslavlja i katoličanstva – Islam u Jugoslaviji 1918–1941“. In: Islam, Balkan i velike sile. Beograd: Istorijski institut SANU, 444; Mušović, E. (1981) „Jugoslovensko iseljništvo u Turskoj“. In: Zbornik radova Etnografskog instituta. Vol. 12. Beograd: Naučna knjiga. 68.

¹⁵⁶ H. Bajrami states that 1919-1940. 260,000 Albanians displaced (Janjetović, Deca careva, pastorčad kraljeva. Nacionalne manjine u Jugoslaviji 1918-1941, 70). According to other Yugoslav sources cited by H. Bajrami 1928–1935. 31,000 people were displaced from Turkey from Kosovo and Sandzak, noting that Turkey was ready to accept 15,000 more emigrants that year. According to Albanian demographers, about 50,000 Albanians were evicted from Albania and about 25,000 to Turkey between the two world wars, stating that about 40% of Albanians were displaced by the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. According to some Turkish sources, in the period 1934-1949. 2,340 families with 8,969 members moved from Yugoslavia to Turkey (Bandžović, Ratovi i demografska deosmanizacija Balkana (1912–1941), 220, 223). Hajredin Hodža stated that around 100,000 Albanians had emigrated to Turkey by 1936, and several thousand Albanians had emigrated to Albania (Hodža, Uzroci, problemi i posljedice migracija stanovništva Kosova i pripadnika albanske nacionalnosti u inostranstvo, 260).

¹⁵⁷ Gligorijević, Političke, privredne i socijalne prilike na mešanim područjima, 218–19.

¹⁵⁸ Jovanovic, V. (2007) „Iseljavanje muslimana iz Vardarske banovine: između stihije i državne akcije“. In: Pisati istoriju Jugoslavije: viđenje srpskog faktora. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije, 85.

Conclusion

Mass migrations of Muslims to the southeastern Balkans and to Turkey began with the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire. The population emigrated for political, economic and religious reasons, as well as for the hope of a better life in Turkey. The Kingdom of Yugoslavia tried to use emigration to solve the problem of the disloyal Albanian population and to get land for colonization. Turkey was interested in this issue in order to inhabit the desolate parts of its country from which the Kurds were expelled. The authorities of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia tried various direct and indirect measures and privileges to encourage Muslims to emigrate. The final number of emigrants cannot be determined with precision, as the national statistics were incomplete and the data different. However, the estimated number of 20-30,000 emigrants to Turkey and Albania in the period between the two world wars cannot be considered a mass phenomenon.

Yugoslavia wanted to resolve the issue of emigration in a planned way. Negotiations between Turkey and Yugoslavia began in 1930. Representatives of the Yugoslav authorities held an inter-administrative conference in September 1935, at which a project for the emigration of the Muslim population from Yugoslavia was drawn up. It was concluded that it was necessary to sign a bilateral convention with Turkey and Albania. The Yugoslav-Turkish convention was signed in Constantinople in July 1938. It was planned that 40,000 Muslim families would emigrate to Turkey within 6 years. Yugoslavia had to pay compensation of 20,000 000 Turkish liras. However, the ratification of the agreement and its implementation were hampered by financial misunderstandings, Albanian propaganda against emigration and the outbreak of World War II.

References:

Antonić, G. (2006) "Kosovski komitet i Kraljevina SHS u svetlu jugoslovenskih izvora 1918–1920" in: *Istorija 20. veka*. Vol. 1, 27-44.

Archive of Yugoslavia (AJ). Belgrade: Collection: Milan Stojadinović (37).

Archive of Yugoslavia (AJ). Collection: Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia (334).

Archive of Yugoslavia (AJ). Collection: Yugoslav Embassy in Turkey (370).

Avramovski, Ž. (1964) "Prilog pitanju italijansko-albanske iredentističke propagande na Kosovu i Metohiji u vreme Minhenske krize i okupacije Albanije" in: *Istorijski glasnik*. Vol. 2–3, 123-140.

Avdić, A. (1991) "Jugoslovensko-turski pregovori o iseljavanju muslimanskog stanovništva između dva svetska rata" in: *Novopazarski zbornik*. Vol. 15, 112-125.

Avdić, A. (1985) "Opšti pogled na migraciona kretanja muslimanskog stanovništva na Balkanu od kraja 19. veka do zaključenja jugoslovensko-turske konvencije" in: *Novopazarski zbornik*. Vol. 9, 147–166.

Bandžović, S. (2003) "Ratovi i demografska deosmanizacija Balkana (1912-1941)" in: *Prilozi*, Vol. 32, 179-229.

Borozan, Đ. (1995) *Velika Albanija: porijeklo-ideje-praksa*. Beograd: Vojnoistorijski institut Vojske Jugoslavije.

Dimić, Lj. Borozan Đ. (1999) "Političke i bezbednosne prilike na Kosovu i Metohiji u prvoj polovini 1920" in: *Istorija 20. veka*. Vol. 1–2, 89-104.

Dogo, M. (1997) "Muslimani kao etničke i verske manjine u jugositočnoj Evropi između dva svetska rata". In *Islam, Balkan i velike sile*. Beograd: Istorijski institut SANU, 455-464.

Gligorijević, B. (1997) "Između pravoslavlja i katoličanstva – Islam u Jugoslaviji 1918–1941". In *Islam, Balkan i velike sile*. Beograd: Istorijski institut SANU, 443-454.

Gligorijević, B. (1990) "Političke, privredne i socijalne prilike na mešanim područjima". In *Srbi i Albanci u 20. veku*. Beograd: SANU, 211-220.

Hadri, A. (1967) "Kosovo i Metohija u Kraljevini Jugoslaviji" in *Istorijski glasnik*, Vol. 1-2, 51-84.

Hodža, H. (1978) "Uzroci, problemi i posljedice migracija stanovništva Kosova i pripadnika albanske nacionalnosti u inostranstvo". In *Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom : zbornik*. Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 258-261.

Janjetović, Z. (2005) *Deca careva, pastorčad kraljeva. Nacionalne manjine u Jugoslaviji 1918-1941*. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije.

Jovanović, V. (2008) "In search of homeland? Muslim migration for Yugoslavia to Turkey 1918-1941" in: *Tokovi istorije*. Vol. 1-2, 56-67.

Jovanović, V. (2006) "Interministrijalna konferencija Kraljevine Jugoslavije o iseljenju „neslovenskog elemenata u Tursku" (1935)" in: *Prilozi*, Vol. 35, 105-24.

Jovanović, V. (2007) "Iseljavanje muslimana iz Vardarske banovine: između stihije i državne akcije". In: *Pisati istoriju Jugoslavije: viđenje srpskog faktora*. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije, 79-99.

Jovanović, V. (2011) *Vardarska banovina 1929-1941*. Beograd: Institut za noviju istoriju Srbije.

Jovičić, M. (1990) "Ustavnopravni položaj pripadnika albanske nacionalnosti u Jugoslaviji". In: *Srbi i Albanci u 20. veku*. Beograd: SANU, 137-154.

Karčić, F. (ed.) (2001) *Muslimani Balkana: "Istočno pitanje" u XX vijeku*. Tuzla: Behram-begova medresa.

Maliković, D. (2005) *Kačački pokret na Kosovu i Metohiji 1918–1924*. Priština-Leposavić: Institut za srpsku kulturu; Kosovska Mitrovica: Filozofski fakultet.

Mušović, E. (1981) "Jugoslovensko iseljništvo u Turskoj". In Zbornik radova Etnografskog instituta. Vol. 12. Beograd: Naučna knjiga.

Pajazit. N. (1978) "Karakter i osobenosti prilaza izučavanju iseljništva naroda i narodnosti pokrajine Kosova". In: Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom : zbornik, Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 583-593.

Slavković Mirić, B. (2018) Političke, ekonomske i kulturne prilike na Kosovu i Metohiji 1929-1941. Beograd: IP Prosveta, IP Princip.

Smlatić, S. (1978) "Iseljavanje jugoslovenskih muslimana u Tursku i njihovo prilagođavanje novoj sredini". In: Iseljništvo naroda i narodnosti Jugoslavije i njegove uzajamne veze s domovinom : zbornik. Zagreb: Zavod za migracije i narodnosti, 255-267.

Statistički godišnjaci Kraljevine Jugoslavije 1930-1940. Beograd: Opšta državna statistika.

Urošević, A. (2001) O Kosovu: antropogeografske studije i drugi spisi. Priština : Narodna i univerzitetska biblioteka "Ivo Andrić": Institut za srpsku kulturu; Gnjilane: Knjižara "Sveti Sava".

Urošević, A. (1996) Novobrdaska Kriva Reka. Priština: "Grigorije Božović"; Gnjilane: "Sveti Sava".

Dželetović, P. (1990) Kačaci Kosova i Metohije. Beograd: Inter-ju-pres.

***Contemporary Social
and Psychological
Research:
An approach from the Balkans***

**THE NATURE OF A DISTORTED REALITY CONCEPT REGARDING THE
INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS**

Prof.Dr. Liljana Siljanovska PhD and Stefani Stojchevska PhD
South East European University - Tetovo

Abstract:

The main purpose of this paper is to analyze the nature and role of a distorted reality concept while manifested in the displacement theory, regarding juvenile delinquents, as well as the main contributors to its development, being directly linked with the notion of adolescent egocentrism and its derived mental constructions. In other words, it is questioned how David Elkind's adolescent egocentrism distort the delinquent's concept of reality, by examining the imaginary audience and the personal fable scale, along with its two other subscales: 1) An Invulnerability subscale, and 2) The Unique Self subscale. Also, according to Freudian psychology, the displacement theory is considered as a defense mechanism. However, in the cases of juvenile delinquency, it can represent a manifestation of the locus of control playing a big role in determining the delinquent's original target to be nothing more than his egocentric self.

Key words: displacement, distortion, juvenile, delinquency, egocentrism

Introduction

The general concept of reality is presently manifested by our actions in the real world, and while it is expected of it to mainly depend upon social circumstances, as part of the objective reality, it is important to notice that the unconscious part of our psychological life plays a big role in its overall behavior. In other words, the concept of reality is also formed and shaped by psychological components. This indicates the fact that, although it may seem that we understand the objective reality of the outside world this is not an exact and valid image that we create of it – the unconscious part of our psychological life is what makes our cognitions to be biased. And since the unconscious is only a fragment of our subjective reality, the mental processes of acquiring knowledge can be very inaccurate.

Subjective reality, as represented by our conscious as well as our unconscious aspect, has its differences in the terms by which *“we think we know explicitly about reality and has been the focus of cognitive psychology”*¹⁵⁹

By this definition, if we focus on the unconscious aspect, human cognition, much as the overall concept of subjective reality indicates the possibility of change. While this is somewhat normal and not expressed in a dramatic manner for average people, however, when it comes to the intrapersonal role of the concept of reality regarding juvenile delinquents, certain mental conditions considered almost as abnormal, tend to give a juvenile delinquents concept of reality, a distorted nature, possibly explaining the intrapersonal reasons for the manifestation of his deviant behavior and unlawful, criminal actions upon people and objects in our society.

¹⁵⁹ Huitt, G.W (2018) Analyzing paradigms used in education and schooling. Educational Psychology Interactive. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University (n.d.) <http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/intro/paradigm.html> (visited on 18.11.2019)

This leads us to the assumption that juvenile delinquents tend to “understand” the outside world, or their immediate surroundings, more specifically, in a very self-centered manner, thus steering their behavior in a directions that is considered unacceptable to human society. It is also important to mention that the self does not have a constant state regarding troublesome minors, meaning that they are constantly obsessed with their overall personality and character, as well as techniques of manifesting it in public as a form of expressing themselves.

However the concept of reality conceived by the juvenile is very distorted and self-centered due to his developed egocentrism. The reason for this is the change and the constant transition from one's self to another self by the minor. What he cannot perceive on a rational level, is the correct response by society for his actions. To him, manifesting the change of his different selves might be a normal process, but that is not the case for the people in his immediate surroundings. This type of behavior is supported and strongly influenced by multiple factors, including certain mental constructions, all with the purpose of operating through the lenses of a distorted concept of reality.

Adolescent Egocentrism

One of the most common abovementioned mental aspects that juvenile delinquents experience along with having the ability to distort their concept of reality is the notion of adolescent egocentrism; *“Adolescent egocentrism is the name commonly given to a type of self-centering, often noted in individuals in the transition from childhood to adulthood”*¹⁶⁰

While it is relevant to understand the development of thinking regarding adolescents from a distinctive perspective, Jean Piaget, who was mainly focused on the meaning of egocentrism in children through the preoperational and operational stage of his Cognitive Development Theory, also states that *“many adults are still egocentric in their way of thinking”*¹⁶¹

The reasons why an egocentric personality is still present and manifested in the psychological life of an adult can be drawn from the possibility of the individual being uncertain about his true self. This means that egocentric juvenile delinquents have a tendency to insinuate between the real world, as an objective component without any real non biased observers, and an imaginary world of their own creation, as a subjective component which can in fact be observed by the minor himself, but also by other people in his surroundings. The interposing states of the juvenile delinquent only change in certain situations, most often when he breaks out of his imaginary world and harshly experiences the consequences of his unlawful actions that occur in the real world and are not in compliance with his set ideals and events.

Reactions can be extracted only for the minor’s imaginary world, and those reactions come from the juvenile delinquent himself on one hand, and the people living in minor’s immediate surroundings. Nevertheless, it is important to consider that these reactions differ in a very drastic way. The main difference between these two types of contradicting forms of perceptions is that while the minor has a justified attitude towards his unlawful actions and sees them as an expression of his current character, society has a judgmental attitude about his actions, seeing them as a violation of the social norms. While it is understandable as to why society holds such a judgmental

¹⁶⁰ Buis, M.J. Thompson, N.D. (1988) “A test of two theories: Elkind and lapsley on the imagonary audience and personal fable” in: Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, LA: ERIC database. p.1

¹⁶¹ Liberman, M. (1987).“Egocentrism and the problem of critical thought” in: Meeting of the Conference on Critical Thinking. Newport News, VA: ERIC database.p.5

outlook, being the establisher of the very same social norms which the juvenile delinquent breaks, it is engaging to analyze adolescent egocentrism and its influence upon the justified attitude that the juvenile delinquent develops about his crimes.

“Because of egocentrism, the adolescent is, either in actual or in fantasized social situations, anticipating the reaction of others. However, these reactions are based on a premise that others are as critical or admiring of them as they are of themselves”¹⁶²

Appropriate with the notion of juvenile delinquency, the occurrence of committing a crime may not necessarily be considered as a social situation, yet the nature of the unlawful situation is a combination of both actual and fantasized. Put in another way, the juvenile delinquents has previously imagined and wished for the crime to occur, and that fantasy is not derived from a rational concept of reality about the minor’s current and unfitting self. Deviant minors are more likely to commit their crimes in order to manifest their current, but not their true self to them and to other people. Expressing character is not always realistically correct. Due to the egocentric personality of the juvenile delinquent, he or she feels important or relevant enough to the majority in society in order to test if people have a tendency to admire their actions, as they do themselves. It is more likely to expect admiration, rather than critique, as that reaction seems to reciprocate with their mental perception of their actions. In other words, perhaps juvenile delinquents want to feel accepted in some sort of way, and in order to achieve that, they seek approval from society, being social creatures. Self-admiration is not enough to give them a guarantee of their changing self. Thus avoiding the ordinary rules of society, mainly because they perceive them as opposing to their view of society, or at least how should they behave in one. Their individual point of view is what makes them develop a distorted concept of reality, and with that an inaccurate idea of the real world. In fact, juvenile delinquents reduce every single aspect of their lives to an independent and discrete sentiment.

While juvenile delinquency represents a rather deviant behavior against social norms, adolescent egocentrism shapes the problematic minor not to be adapted regarding socially accepted norms and standards, consequently intensifying the imaginary, inner world that he lives in, accompanied by his distorted concept of reality.

Still, in compliance with the distortion of the concept of reality regarding juvenile delinquents, *“David Elkind (1967, 1978) conceived of adolescent egocentrism as having two aspects, constructs which he called the imaginary audience and the personal fable”¹⁶³*

In continuation, both mental constructions will be analyzed in compliance with the distortion of the concept of reality developed by juvenile delinquents, particularly categorized in the age group belonging to the formal operational stage in order to research their incompetence to differ their attitude about their committed crimes on one hand, and the consequences of their unlawful actions, as well as the unexpected twist in the already distorted concept of reality.

¹⁶² Coleman, C. J. Hendry, B. L. (1999) *The nature of adolescence*. New York, NY: Routledge

¹⁶³ Buis, M.J. Thompson, N.D. (1988) “A test of two theories: Elkind and lapsley on the imaginary audience and personal fable” in: *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*. New Orleans, LA: ERIC database. p.1

Imaginary Audience

According to the given definition that *“The imaginary audience phenomenon involves confusing your own thoughts with those of a hypnotized audience for your behavior”*¹⁶⁴, juvenile delinquents that have developed adolescent egocentrism tend to display ignorance towards society by creating their own reality in which their opinions and perceptions are mistaken as opinions and perceptions originating from the people in their immediate surroundings. Inspired by the subconscious need for them to be accepted in any way by society, the minor imagines an imaginary audience as a common consequence. However an imaginary audience created by a juvenile delinquent tends to differ from the average adolescent with no criminal manifestations. In other words, this new form of imaginary audience is developed, mainly divided by two crucial moments – before and after committing the crime.

One of the obvious traits of an ordinary imaginary audience is its unrealistic nature. Being described as a mental construction, the inability to differentiate between self and other, the juvenile delinquent is preoccupied with the thought of him and his unlawful actions being the main center of attention.

*“The adolescent need not conceptualize, take account of, or cognize the thoughts of others at all. So the differentiation failure associated with adolescent egocentrism is apparently not a result of undifferentiated perspective taking. Instead, all that is required is that the adolescent imagine the reaction of hypothetically created others to the self, in imaginative situations.”*¹⁶⁵

This is especially characteristic before the juvenile delinquent commits his crime, or to be more precise, he tends to imagine hypothetical scenarios of the crime along with society’s reaction. Taken in an interpretational manner the distorted concept of reality manifested by the juvenile delinquent, manages to create a false sense of realism. Also, the state of the audience is questionable for the juvenile delinquent as he is aware that the audience is real, but their reactions to his crimes are imaginary. However, he perceives their reactions as responding and complying as his own.

Before committing the crime, the imaginary audience is not strongly manifested in the mind of the juvenile delinquent because of the role of the self-conscious it plays without the support of society’s true reaction. Put in another way, the unrealistic expectations of reactions and thought are only one sided and not reciprocated by society. They only exist within the psychological life of the juvenile delinquent as he is preparing himself to be admired or criticized as the way that he expects. Namely, this may serve as one of the main motivators for the juvenile delinquent to actually commit a certain crime – the goal of receiving a faded appearance of “approval” from society to prove that his current self is the right one for him. By wanting for his imaginary responses to comply in reality, the juvenile delinquent creates a social situation in order for him to be in the center of attention, thus manifesting his deviant nature. With this, the juvenile delinquents distorted concept of reality views responds from society for his crime as a form of social acceptance, however not for him to be accepted by other people, but to assure himself that his current self is representing his true self that he wishes to maintain on a long term.

Although deviant crimes cannot be considered as actual social situations by themselves, or at least not according to juvenile delinquents, the notion of the particular juvenile delinquent being the

¹⁶⁴ Sigelman, C. Rider, E.(2009) Life-span human development. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning

¹⁶⁵ Lapsley, D (1985) “Elkind on egocentrism”. Developmental Review. Vol.3, No.5.p.231

focus of attention after the consequences of the committed crime definitely is – that is when the deviant minor receives the reaction from society regarding his unlawful action, and a moment of truth appears before him to show him if his egocentrism responds with the reality. This means that the imaginary audience intensifies after the crime has been committed due to the fact that the juvenile delinquent suddenly becomes the focus and center of attention among society.

Also, social roles are inclined to secondarily shape and subtly distort the juvenile delinquents concept of reality due to the fact that the same may not be in compliance with his currently changed or developed self. This becomes more defined during the adolescent period, as the social role given to the minor by society, is expected to be played by the juvenile delinquent.

We presume that *“since adolescence is a time when a good deal of consciousness is seeking of self identity occurs, consistency in behavior appears to increase sharply as the period of adolescence progresses”*¹⁶⁶

Even though social roles may not have a direct contribution in the distortion of the concept of reality, they still have a significant influence in changing the current self of the juvenile delinquent, which eventually turns out to manifest its deviant nature. The distorted concept of reality is not of the dominant factors on this situation because it is later manifested as a unity of multiple circumstances, whether they are internal or external. And one of those external factors is the pre-given social role that compliments society’s opinion of a certain individual. In this case, the juvenile delinquent being part of the society that he lives in is also given a certain social role that is not in compliance with his current self. Of course, this is not possible not achievable when the minor is undergoing adolescent egocentrism – due to the juvenile delinquent constantly changing his selves, his social role is contradicting that whole process.

Nevertheless, age and time influence the rejection of the social role that the juvenile delinquent has been given. The tendency to seek self identity makes the minor to rapidly manifest his deviant self. Regularity is especially characteristic in the juvenile delinquents consistent behavior, as it strays further from the social role which he has rejected.

Personal Fable (Scale)

Another mental construction derived from adolescent egocentrism is the personal fable present during the self identity seeking manifested in juvenile delinquents, which *“is the belief that they are incredibly unique and that no one, particularly an adult, can possibly understand them, and that they are indestructible, that nothing can happen to them”*¹⁶⁷

It is expected for a complex set of unrealistic beliefs to be developed, thus distorting the concept of reality, in order to manifest his egocentrism, as well as the false sense of importance to society.

¹⁶⁶ Medinnus, R. G. Johnson, C. R. (1969) Child and adolescent psychology behavior and development. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

¹⁶⁷ Whistler, S. J. (1990) “Young adolescent and middle level education: A review of current issues, concerns, and recommendations” in: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Washington, DC: ERIC database.p.9

Regarding his mental condition, he focuses on his own perceptions, rather than the perceptions of others, thus creating an illusion of a social role where he is above everyone and everything, including social norms and standards, disciplines, rules and even laws in the legal system. The reason why the juvenile delinquent evolves this illusion is because his distorted concept of reality understands that they apply to other people, and he sees himself as different from them and not as a part of society.

Again, this phenomenon can be linked with the social role, as the juvenile delinquent perceives the role that is given to him, as limiting to his belief of uniqueness and indestructibility. He believes that by manifesting his social role, he will become equal with everyone else and therefore cannot be able to express his current self which has a deviant nature and shares traits of fearlessly taking risks without a second thought about any possible consequences of those actions. Since he believes that he is above the laws and rules set in society, the likelihood of him being punished is nonexistent. Put in another way, the juvenile delinquent is so egocentrically focused on manifesting his deviant self through his unlawful actions, that he completely ignores the reactions of society to his crimes afterwards, meaning that *“adolescent Egocentrism also has been associated with involvement in risk behaviors. For instance, higher scores on assessments of the personal fable have been associated with greater risk taking”*¹⁶⁸

The deviant nature of his current self allows the juvenile delinquent to perceive crime in a different manner and its unrealistic outcomes. His twisted concept of reality perceives crime as a privilege, something that is only allowed to him. Therefore, he perceives the consequences of his unlawful actions in an unrealistic direction as well. He comes to the conclusion that if he is supposedly “allowed” to commit a crime, then he cannot be punished for it afterwards. What is really distorted about this concept is that the “right” of committing a crime in this case does not contain any indications that it is approved by society, but from the juvenile delinquent himself. Egocentrism has not need of any other origin of approval, but personal, derived from the distorted concept of reality manifested by the criminal activity that the juvenile delinquent commits without any effects upon him, as a general component of society.

In continuation we will further analyze two aspects that are derived from this mental construction, as it is known that the personal fable scale contains two major subscales: An Invulnerability subscale and The Unique Self subscale, regarding juvenile delinquents and their unrealistic psychological perception and he change and development of mental states that occurs before and after committing a certain crime;

Invulnerability subscale

Similarly to the given definition that *“an Invulnerability subscale (IS) refers to such behaviors as believing that one can take risks without getting hurt”*¹⁶⁹, the juvenile delinquent applies this subtype of mental construction by thinking that laws, rules as well as punishments do not apply to him. Egocentrism is preoccupying his concept of reality, thus distorting it in a way that it creates a special world for the juvenile delinquent to live in, where a false sense of fearlessness and

¹⁶⁸ Lerner, R. Steinberg, L. (2009). Handbook of adolescent psychology, Volume 1: Individual bases of adolescent development. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

¹⁶⁹ Buis, M.J. Thompson, N.D. (1988) “A test of two theories: Elkind and lapsley on the imaginary audience and personal fable” in: Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, LA: ERIC database. p.2

courage overwhelms him to the point of not being able to recognize morally right and wrong. This fabricated sense lingers until committing the crime, but it has a certain twist when his imaginary world suddenly collides with the real world.

If we assume the possibility of the juvenile delinquent being caught in the unlawful act and therefore sanctioned for his crime, egocentrism is still present in his psychological life, but with a different effect on him - he actually lived in his own reality, but after the juvenile was convicted and sanctioned for the crime, the real and objective reality suddenly appears before him and has a shocking acting upon him by the fact that his egocentric world that he created mentally breaks in front of his eyes.

Although the action of egocentrism is reduced, it still has a certain effect on the juvenile delinquent in terms of creating counterfeit scenarios, or counterfeiting thinking. This is similar to his own world in which he lived, but as a short version divided into sections. These parts or moments have different strengths on the brain and the thinking of the juvenile delinquent depending on how seriously he understands the consequences of his action.

There are two main factors that have an internal, psychological characteristic, depending on the level of egocentrism manifested by the juvenile delinquent that determine the strength of the counterfeit scenarios created by the juvenile delinquent after committing the crime, which leads to being caught and sanctioned: 1) mental age, and 2) feelings of guilt and regret;

Mental age, being directly linked with the juvenile delinquents intelligence is relevant depending on his developed level. Namely, if the juvenile delinquent manifests a lower mental age and a lower IQ, then the counterfeit scenarios will have very little strength, and even the possibility may not be created by the juvenile in general because of the inability to grasp the serious consequence of his action. However, if the minor manifests a greater mental age, as well as a higher IQ, in this case counterfeit scenarios will be particularly strong because the juvenile delinquent is nevertheless capable of grasping the significance of his crime as well as the intent.

On the other hand, counterfeit thoughts are equated with feelings of guilt and regret, but depending on the juvenile's level of developed egocentrism. If the egocentrism is lower, the juvenile delinquent really feels guilty of the damage he did, but if egocentrism is higher, the juvenile delinquent does not actually regret the damage and the possible victims of the offense, but the negative consequences of the sanction that he will acquire, here he tends to think in the way he thought in his imaginary reality - that he is special and that he will get away with the crime, while giving him the "power to rise above the rest of the people."

The reason why the juvenile begins to use counterfeit thinking is because of an attempt to mentally escape from the consequences of his action in reality. He realizes that the reality he is facing does not suit him, remembering that although it was an illusion, he was still much better in his imaginary world. But since that imaginary world is broken due to reality, a juvenile delinquent attempts to create pieces of that former world, imagining certain scenarios that are quite contrary to the truth which is mentally unwilling to accept and face it. These thoughts composed of subconscious questions: What if? If only I had? When I could?

Another important reason why the juvenile develops this kind of thinking, has a great connection with his subconscious mind. While he is trying to escape from reality, the very content of his thoughts encompasses a factual reality in which he never committed the crime. This is because he in his subconscious memorized and engraved that traumatic moment for him when the imaginary reality collided with the real reality and the consequence was destructive in the sense that there is only one truth, and in that truth things do not take place in benefit of the juvenile. In the

unconscious aspect of the brain he realizes that it is not possible to escape the real reality by realizing that he is already in it, as well as the fact that all his former beliefs were false.

Counterfeit thoughts always have a time frame that is going on in the past but are created in the present. And they could never have come true in the past because they have already been replaced by past actions in the true reality. The reality as a state of what actually exists, in contrast to an idealistic or imaginary idea of it includes what has existed, exists, or will exist. Many juveniles think that the mental state is different, but they cannot or do not want to understand that it is composed in the physical condition in which they are and have always existed.

These situations reveal the selfish nature of man, regardless of his age. A man will want to live in reality as long as he is satisfied with the statistical non-probability of events that completely or incompletely depend on him, and are in his favor. But the world does not function in that way - at the same moment when something that is not in favor of man happens, he will immediately express a desire and try to escape mentally from the reality in which he is.

Unique Self subscale

“The Unique Self subscale (US) measures the extent to which one feels different from others”¹⁷⁰, characterizing the fact that during the process that the juvenile delinquent goes through regarding his search for a self identity, as he changes the new features of opinions and characteristics, although they are of a deviant nature, he perceives them as unique, special and invincible from other people in his immediate surroundings. And seen from an average point of view, those characteristics and traits are uncommon, but in a very negative way by society’s rules and norms. We have a difference between the concept of reality manifested by the juvenile delinquent, and the concept of reality manifested by society - the distortion that makes the juvenile incompetent of differing right of wrong, or in the case of his deviant self identity, which personal characteristics are negative and positive. This is because he has developed a point of view dictated by his egocentrism and not by the common values of society in general.

Depending on the nature of the current self that the juvenile has adapted to him, it is possible precisely in this moment that they themselves include certain characteristics and ideas that associate with violence or some kind of criminal activity.

The reason why juvenile delinquents are not afraid of committing illegal acts is because they are under the false impression that they cannot be hurt by things that could damage a normal individual. This of course proves that the way of thinking of the juveniles is not related to the reality in which they live and act, that is, they perceive it in a very self-centered way that makes them unrealistic for them, and for juvenile delinquents their crimes are justified before and during the time of their execution.

This is known as a “unique motif” which leads to juvenile delinquency of the minor has the impression that he does not receive the special treatment he thinks he deserves, and when this “special treatment” does not occur, the minor decides to take matters into his own hands. These juvenile delinquents could be described as individuals who go to extensive measures to deviate from the norms and standards in society, to the point where they are assumed as separate persons and do not act in accordance with their true personality. When the juvenile delinquent has a public

¹⁷⁰ Buis, M.J. Thompson, N.D. (1988) “A test of two theories: Elkind and lapsley on the imaginary audience and personal fable” in: Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, LA: ERIC database. p.2

outburst manifested in committing a crime, it initiates that at some moments their sense of self-esteem increases considerably, to the extent that it shows it in a very attacking manner to those in the surrounding of that individual, or particularly, the juvenile delinquent.

Displacement Theory and the Locus of Control

According to Freudian Psychology, Displacement (German: *Verschiebung*, "shift, move") represents a defense mechanism derived from the unconscious aspect of the human mind. Its manifestation "*involves the transfer of a motivational cathexis from one object to another*"¹⁷¹

During the cases where we have a redirection of certain components that originate from the unconscious, impulses tend to be transferred to another person or object that is perceived or poses less threat, by the juvenile delinquent. However, the main question here is whether the displacement theory actually occurs as a defense mechanism, assuming that "*displacement refers to altering the target of an impulse*"¹⁷²

Also, it is essentially important to determine the reason if and why deviant and criminal activities would represent a "less threatening" target for juvenile delinquents and what was the original target, or what is its nature, derived from an internal or an external factor.

Maladjusted displacements tend to produce irritating situations in human society, usually achieved through their unlawful deeds. However, if it is presumed that certain objects, people or buildings are considered as safer targets for juvenile delinquents to alter their deviant impulses, then what would the original target be? Due to the irrationality of this presumption, it is safe to say that in case of committing crimes, the displacement theory does not necessarily serve as a defense mechanism for the juvenile delinquent, but a rather a manifestation of some other mental construction derived from a certain aspect. Although in theory it is clear that "*displacement would only qualify as a defense mechanism of the original, unacceptable impulse were prevented from causing some damage to self-esteem*"¹⁷³, since the juvenile delinquent has developed adolescent egocentrism, his crimes are not perceived by him as morally wrong and thus do no damage, but rather an unrealistic "benefit" to his self-esteem, further proving his distorted concept of reality that he is a unique and superior individual. Also, although in reality his deviant tendencies might be defined as impulses, the juvenile delinquent does not share that point of view – it represents a need which has self-positive traits.

However, in order to presume the nature of the "original target", before anything else we must determine the primary object of repression;

¹⁷¹ Sappenfield, R. B. (1954). *Personality Dynamics: An Integrative Psychology of Adjustment*. New York, NY: Knopf

¹⁷² Baumeister, R., Dale, K., Sommer, K. (1998) "Freudian defense mechanisms and empirical findings in modern social psychology: Reaction formation, projection, displacement, undoing, isolation, sublimation, and denial" in: *Journal of Personality*. Vol.66, No.6, p. 1093

¹⁷³ Baumeister, R., Dale, K., Sommer, K. (1998) "Freudian defense mechanisms and empirical findings in modern social psychology: Reaction formation, projection, displacement, undoing, isolation, sublimation, and denial" in: *Journal of Personality*. Vol.66, No.6, p.1095

Regarding juvenile delinquents, while altering the target of an impulse, *“the targets of the actual aggression would be related by meaningful associations to the target of the original, inhibited impulse.”*¹⁷⁴

Since in the cases of juvenile delinquency, the substitution targets are items, goods, buildings or people, where juvenile delinquents manifest their aggression and deviant nature, then the original target shares a certain similarity that is, however, associated with the so called locus of control;

*“Having an external locus of control can be implicated as an important factor in adolescent behaviors such as teen pregnancy and delinquency, and is negatively related to school achievement.”*¹⁷⁵, initiates the possibility of adolescents having an external locus of control, which can further lead to delinquency, does not necessarily or directly apply to juvenile delinquents which have developed a distorted concept of reality.

While deviant impulses cannot entirely be categorized as external targets for the juvenile delinquent, they can be displaced in the juveniles self as the primary object. Adolescent egocentrism, as being a developed characteristic of the self, can serve as an example where deviant impulses can be displaced. Therefore, juvenile delinquents manifest an internal locus of control, meaning that the degree to which they believe that they have control over the outcomes of their committed crimes is completely dependent from their exaggerated belief that they have total control over their lives, without any interference from outside factors, or to be more specific, society and its rules, norms and laws – which seems logical since it has been previously mentioned how and why they perceive themselves to be above everyone and everything.

The fact that the juvenile delinquents locus of control being internal, is directly linked or influenced with the unconscious aspect of their psychological life – the derived concept of reality which has an effect during the manifestation of the displacement theory.

Conclusion

Concerning juvenile delinquency, a distorted concept of reality can have a significant influence on how deviant minors think of themselves, the society they live in and the crimes they commit. By developing egocentrism, combined with their search of self identity, which by the way is not in compliance with the social role given to them by any means, the juvenile delinquent perceives himself and the world around him in an unrealistic manner, thus creating an imaginary world of his own and operating by his own self centered standards. Although Freud’s displacement theory is usually known as a defense mechanism among average people, that is not entirely the case with juvenile delinquents, as it is no longer considered as that since it is not creating any damage to the self esteem of the juvenile’s self, at least as stated by his own twisted perception. Instead, the locus of control plays a big role in the contrasting manifestation of the displacement theory, being concluded to have a rather internal nature and with that approaching to the assumption that the original target is nothing more than the egocentric self of the juvenile delinquent.

¹⁷⁴ Baumeister,R., Dale,K., Sommer,K. (1998) “Freudian defense mechanisms and empirical findings in modern social psychology: Reaction formation, projection, displacement, undoing, isolation, sublimation, and denial” in: Journal of Personality. Vol.66, No.6,p.1095

¹⁷⁵ Kopera-Frye, F. K., Saltz, E., Jones, D.P. Dixon, S. C.(1991) “Factors determining adolescent locus of control” in: Health Resources and Serviced Administration. Seattle, WA: ERIC database.p.3

Literature:

Baumeister, R., Dale, K., Sommer, K. (1998) "Freudian defense mechanisms and empirical findings in modern social psychology: Reaction formation, projection, displacement, undoing, isolation, sublimation, and denial" in: *Journal of Personality*. Vol.66, No.6

Buis, M.J. Thompson, N.D. (1988) "A test of two theories: Elkind and Lapsley on the imaginary audience and personal fable" in: *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*. New Orleans, LA: ERIC database

Coleman, C. J. Hendry, B. L.(1999). *The nature of adolescence*. New York, NY: Routledge

Huitt, G.W (2018) *Analyzing paradigms used in education and schooling*. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University (n.d.)
<http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/intro/paradigm.html> (visited on 18.11.2019)

Kopera-Frye, F. K., Saltz, E., Jones, D.P. Dixon, S. C.(1991) "Factors determining adolescent locus of control" in: *Health Resources and Services Administration*. Seattle, WA: ERIC database

Lapsley, D (1985) "Elkind on egocentrism". *Developmental Review*. Vol.3, No.5

Lerner, R & Steinberg, L. (2009). *Handbook of adolescent psychology, Volume 1: Individual bases of adolescent development*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

Lieberman, M. (1987). "Egocentrism and the problem of critical thought" in: *Meeting of the Conference on Critical Thinking*. Newports News, VA: ERIC database

Medinnus, R. G & Johnson, C. R. (1969). *Child and adolescent psychology behavior and development*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

Sappenfield, R. B. (1954). *Personality Dynamics: An Integrative Psychology of Adjustment*. New York, NY: Knopf

Sigelman, C. Rider, E.(2009) *Life-span human development*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning

Whistler, S. J. (1990) "Young adolescent and middle level education: A review of current issues, concerns, and recommendations" in: *Office of Educational Research and Improvement*. Washington, DC: ERIC database.

CORRUPTION, THE BIGGEST SOCIAL EVIL

Ass. Prof. Natasha Georgieva PhD

MIT University Skopje

Abstract

Corruption is a phenomenon which is associated with social development that took place in all social systems. It is a phenomenon which, according to the statements of eminent experts in nowadays circumstances, occupies a large dimension and occurs in all spheres of life.

Many authors prove that corruption is becoming a significant international problem such as terrorism and organized crime. Corruption as an old-new phenomenon produces huge negative consequences: it makes a successful crime, it hampers the legitimate investments, it slows the overall economic development, relentlessly draining public funds, and worse, corruption is the biggest enemy of democracy and of overall democratic process especially in developing countries such as the Republic of Macedonia. Bribery and corruption in big extent represent the death of the new democracies and are the biggest obstacle to their rapid economic development.

The largest number of discussions about the corruption are about how it is pinched to reveal and what to do with those who participate in it. For this purpose, many countries recently, at the highest level, define their strategies in the combat against the corruption. Moreover, it stems from the fact that the small number of identified crime cases does not show the real situation. It is assumed that this number is negligible because of the current methods with whom is difficult to detect and prove corruption activity, especially where there is the involvement of the government

Keywords: economic crime, corruption, crime, prevention, consequences.

Introduction

In many countries, there are researches and assessments of corruption as well as its negative aspects. Corruption in fact, is an abuse of trusted power for some material gain. Many authors emphasize that there is no society in which corruption is not present and therefore this criminal phenomenon is of great interest.

Many governments and relevant institutions and agencies are devoting significant resources and energy to the fight against corruption, but experience still suggests that there are still no clear indications of a reduction in the corruption rate. By taking an indirect approach and introducing the model that divides developing countries into three broad categories - high, medium and low corruption, the following conclusion can be drawn: countries with high corruption have low quality of governance; those with medium corruption have a solid level of governance and those with low corruption have good governance.

One of the main problems to face during the analysis of the problem of corruption is the difficulty of distinguishing a single definition of corruption that can be broadly interpretable and at the same time a single concept of corruption. The issue is obviously not just in terminology or formality, but involves a series of related consequences, starting from the possibility of establishing effective points in line with international standards in order to conclude and define by inserting a unanimous strategy for prevention and measures at the national level, by defining the fields of its application and the competence of the various normative instruments and the competent authorities involved. In fact, there is no single definition of corruption, fully and universally accepted, not only because of the motives associated with the diversity of legal interpretations but also because of the different

political, historical and social nature. As part of the relative question of individualizing corrupt behavior with punitive action and the consequent need to establish a common ground on the “minimum guaranteed” of a criminal case, there is even a need to overcome other characteristics, within the abstract interest in topics, related to the way of identification with the specific problem, taken into account in economic, social and political terms of symbolism.

Definition and concept of corruption

The first profile, referring to the definition of corruption in criminal activity, accurately states that the choice made in the framework of the Basic International Conventions related to the case (first of all, the UN Convention Against Corruption, on the role of the instrument within the international community), was the one to abandon the strategy of placing a single action under the terms of corruption, preferring the option of giving a whole list of actions that are considered forms of expression of corruption, and are in the scope of the definition of corrupt practices. Among them, next to the typical actions related to the actions of corruption, is the acceptance of a good/amount for the exchange of illegal goods identified as an advantage or benefit that has no legal basis (Zuccolotto, 2005).

Even in the economic sense of the word, the act of stealing public funds from someone's money for good, embezzlement, abuse of power, and illicit enrichment are included. In fact, based on the different complementarity of instruments, typical financial actions are set, primarily the return on circulation of funds/profits realized through illicit trade. It is a good idea first to consider that in order to be on the list of actions and definitions used for each type that is individually equivalent to different conventions (such as the Council of Europe Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination), the degree of treatment varies of the planned criminal activity, registering a different range of individualization of the “minimally guaranteed” from convention to convention, necessary due to the need to achieve different levels of agreement in that field (Игњатовиќ, 2010).

For example, the acceptance of the existence of criminal activities is recognized and set out within the framework of the UN Convention (such as “Trading in influence”), while precisely defined as mandatory it can be found within the Convention of Punishment by the Council of Europe; another profile reflects another characteristic regarding the topic of corruption that is indirectly consequential, even on the basis of the clear definition of the terms of corruption in relation to the acceptance of gifts after the commission of a corrupt act.

Such a situation, on the one hand, expresses the difficulty of defining the terms of corruption with certainty, and on the other hand notes the progressive growth of the problem imposed by the international community to promote the path to reach the problem by removing all unnecessary elements to identify the problem of corruption, until the moment of realization of possible actions against it. In this sense, in addition to all the different qualifications, there may be some basic characteristics of corruption: it implies a breach of the authority of the position in relation to a breach of duty under its own position (which does not have to be related to public administration, taking into account given the corruption in the private sector), presupposes a normative system (political, legal and economic), it is not always concretized in the execution of acts of non-judgmental nature (it is about the inappropriate or atypical corruption that implies the performance of an action that is not contrary to the work and official duties), while always taking into account the open options for additional benefit (which does not necessarily have to be of an economic nature) and the realization of actions of secret or discreet reserved way (Malem Sena, 2004).

There is no place in the world where the term corruption is not found. Corruption is one of the problems that the world cannot heal. As a problem, it is found in everyday life, but also in the highest state institutions. The cases in which we encounter this global problem are numerous, but the steps taken to remedy, correct, and solve this problem are few. In short, the steps taken and the initiatives to address this issue and fight it are not strong enough.

Corruption in healthcare is very common, for example if the patient is in critical condition, fighting for his life, and doctors do nothing to reduce his pain and save him from the current bad and critical condition he is in, but the staff is waiting for an offer from close relatives (Zuccolotto, 2005).

The staff complains to relatives that their income is low and they cannot intervene at the moment. So the closest relatives feel obliged to “help” in saving their loved ones.

Interesting is the difference in the number of convicts and criminals walking around causing problems to people in their daily lives. Why does that difference occur a little punished so much at liberty? Why don't the competent institutions take concrete measures? Because they are interconnected, the profits they make from cooperating with criminals may be very large, so they do not take into account that they are corrupting humanity. Instead of “healing” the world, they are increasingly spoiling and multiplying problems. They are unaware that they are ruining the future of everyone, even their offspring

(<http://www.civicamobilitas.org.mk/attachments/article/23/Korupcija%20ne%20poveke.MK.pdf>).

Namely, the word “corrupt” comes from the Middle-English language, more precisely from the Latin word “corruptus”. When used as an adjective, it literally means “extremely corrupt”, while in modern English, the words corrupt and corrupted have many meanings (Игњатовиќ, 2010):

Political corruption is the use of legal powers by government officials for illicit private gain. The abuse of power for other purposes, such as repression of political opponents and general police brutality, is not considered as political corruption. Nor are they illegal acts by private individuals or companies that are not directly involved in government. An illegal act from the office of the bearer of political corruption is only if the crime is directly related to their official duties. Forms of corruption vary but include bribery, extortion, protectionism, nepotism, patronage, bribery, and embezzlement. However, corruption can be facilitated by criminal activity, such as drug trafficking, money laundering and human trafficking, which is not limited to these activities. Activities that make up corruption vary illegally depending on the country or jurisdiction. For example, certain politically funded practices that are legal in one place may be illegal in another. In some cases, government officials have broad or poorly defined powers that make it difficult to distinguish between legal and illegal actions. Worldwide, the bribe itself is estimated to include over \$ 1,000,000,000,000 per year. And the backdrop to political corruption is known as kleptocracy, which literally means “rule of thieves” (Finckenauer, 2005).

Corruption is one of the most severe and widespread forms of modern society, and unfortunately some forms of corruption have become a daily concern in the country. Corruption, as a criminal act, cannot be identified with organized crime, but it acts in close cooperation with it, both through open agreements and through mutual benefits, and especially in the organized protection of criminal activity. This social danger is also the reason why corruption and the fight against it are often treated in the world in the same way as the fight against organized crime, considering it as one of its main contents (Игњатовиќ, 2010).

Corruption has become a serious threat to society that threatens to consolidate the rule of law and democracy.

The international aspect of organized crime, the increase in illicit drug trafficking, weapons, trafficking in human beings, especially children and women for prostitution, money laundering, conditioned and entangled with corruption, increase the need for bilateral and multilateral cooperation, exchange of countries experiences and information, cooperation between police authorities and other state bodies. Of course, all this should be treated scientifically by adjusting the fight against corruption in practice (Finckenauer, 2005).

Lately, the word corruption, although it is an older term, has become a modern term, spoken everywhere, assessing it as a first-degree problem and the most dangerous form of dishonesty, which today has taken on the dimension of a social disaster.

Corruption as an economic crime

Economic crime is a view of forms and crimes committed in the economy. Therefore, due to the inability to accurately define economic crime, many authors tend to describe the more common and risky forms of this crime. In this way, the dominant forms presented by many authors are: crimes of large cartels, acts of fraud and abuse of the economic situation of multinational companies, fraud and abuse of international trade and business permits, fictitious in the operation of enterprises and various companies, falsification of business books, unfair competition, favoring companies, taking provisions for tenders, misuse of funds and donations, circulation of money and securities, bank crimes and prohibited transactions on stock, bribery, evasion of taxes and customs and other duties provided by law, corruption, and other forms of criminal behavior (Finckenauer, 2005).

The main forms of economic crime appear in the field of flow of goods, where negative phenomena are expressed in monopolization, in the violation of the single market, in unfair competition, etc. All forms of economic crime can be grouped into 7 categories (Ангелески, 1993):

1. appropriation of unregistered surpluses, caused by the average estimate of permissible losses in norms and production;
2. appropriation of unregistered surpluses, caused by consumer fraud;
3. appropriation of unregistered surpluses, created by business for personal accounts and personal purposes;
4. appropriation resulting in deficit and concealment of deficiencies by falsification of documents and other methods and techniques;
5. corruption and abuse;
6. useful embezzlement; and
7. irresponsible business.

Corruption is a phenomenon associated with the development of society that has taken place in all social systems. It is a phenomenon that, according to the statements of eminent experts, in today's conditions, takes on great proportions and appears in all spheres of life. Many authors argue that corruption is becoming a major international problem, such as terrorism and organized crime. Corruption as an old-new phenomenon produces offshore negative consequences: it makes crime more successful, complicates legal investment, slows overall economic development, ruthlessly drains state money, and worst of all, corruption is the biggest enemy of total democracy processes, especially in developing countries, such as the Republic of North Macedonia.

Bribery and corruption on a large scale are deadly to the new democracies and the biggest obstacle to their faster economic development. Most of the controversy over corruption is about how serious it is, how to detect it, and what to do with those who are involved. To this end, many countries have recently, at the highest state level, defined their strategy in the fight against corruption. Thereby, it starts from the fact that the small number of detected crimes does not show the real situation. It is rightly assumed that this number is insignificant because with the current methods it is difficult to detect and prove corruption activity, especially where government officials are involved.

Forms of corruption

The diversity of forms of corruption, further, underscores the need to implement different strategies, which largely deal with different aspects of the phenomenon.

It is not at all a question that the action of imposing anti-corruption measures on the subject of major corruption, even if understood with great determination, can result in complete inefficiency or indifference to small corruption, especially if it is seen as significantly increased based on attitude of pacifist cohabitation or less tolerance by a large number of entities united in the division of power. This means that as much as an undefined action specifically aimed at corruption of a broken or disintegrated type can achieve effective results, it is capable of individualizing the individual corrupting actions of the related entities on which it is based. Corruption of the integrative type requires a necessary turn towards structural rather than episodic factors that manage to upset the balance in a significant sense in terms of the balance of the system in which there is corruption, otherwise it will gain momentum with accelerating speed of occupation of new aspects, entering in an easy way in individual different positions (Ангелески, 1993).

Given the various forms of the phenomenon and areas of possible interest, it is useful to conclude that the only effective strategy is one that provides an effective combination of prevention and action measures that can be used in relation to the fields of explanation and clarification according to coordination and integration policies.

Types and characteristics of corruption

Experience has shown that even positive results related to conducting the same research in the judicial sense are absolutely instantaneous and in some sense short-lived, if not accompanied by an adequate protection and prevention policy that seeks to change the framework of the review that allows corruption behavior. And what is most characteristic, as stated above, is that we are facing a corrupt phenomenon that has a systemic character. Hence the need to conceive of various initiatives that consist of approaching effective actions, but often not with lasting action, as far as investigations and judicial measures are concerned, structural interventions with long-term action, such as those marked as promoting staff formation and integrity. In this regard, entities of intermediate nature are encouraged and continue the efficiency resulting from the legal actions aimed at quickly accepting the consequent measures of an administrative and disciplinary nature, with the enormous power of the not always effective punishment strategy.

Establishing anti-corruption strategies requires, to a large extent, elaboration of a real national program, idealized and supported by all major actors in the system, to include entities in terms of capabilities, even aimed at constituting roundtable discussions or organizing periodic meetings at

a high level in order to concentrate on the strategy and monitoring of the practice for implementation of the planned measures (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015). The types of corruption are usually classified according to the degree of social danger, ie the damage they cause to society as a whole. Such a classification can be ungrateful because the social damage caused by corruption cannot be measured only by the measurable indicators of lost state revenues, unrealized national incomes, missed foreign investments, etc. (Finckenauer, 2005). The damage done by corruption by degenerating the morale and awareness of the citizens, who have far-reaching consequences, which for a long time cannot be repaired, is also huge.

From this point of view, the division of high, medium and low levels of corruption can only be conditionally accepted, without underestimating the lower types of corruption. However, their differentiation is necessary given the fact that despite the difference in material value of the damage they cause, there is a difference in the motives, as well as the multiplication of the effects of each of these types of corruption.

As a rule, the high type of corruption occurs in the highest authorities, who have the discretion to decide on major government project programs and the possibility of influencing on decision-making. It excludes the possibility of obtaining grand contracts for public procurement and granting government concessions, not only to domestic private companies, but also to large multinational corporations, by making decisions and senior government officials, reducing decision-making to the highest state and business level “in four eyes” (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015).

The middle type of corruption is located in the second, third or fourth echelon in the state hierarchy. In the Republic of North Macedonia there is a wide range of officials, both central and local, who have an independent scope of discretionary decision (by issuing import permits, contracts, public procurement, concessions, customs documents, licenses, the right to disability pensions, etc.). The motives are exclusively of a material nature, and if we take into account the frequency of occurrence, which in these structures is routine and with well-known rules of the game, the damage of this type of corruption is more than serious. In addition to low salaries and poor control mechanisms in the administration, this type of corruption is a result of the effects of respect and prestige, which result from the high type of corruption (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015).

The low-level type of corruption takes place between the lower strata of the administration, such as public servants, police officers, counter workers, and so on. This type of corruption is mostly social in nature, although other motives are not excluded. It is a consequence of total social erosion and moral degeneration in society is bribed by officials for 100 g. coffee, a bottle of whiskey, a pack of cigarettes or 20 Euros (Ангелески, 1999).

The representation of certain types of corruption, such as “state capture” and administrative corruption, also depends on the degree of economic and social development. If the seizure of a state is a condition that affects the actions of individuals, groups, companies, which by corruption affect the adoption of certain laws, decisions, court judgments, mismanagement of bank funds, etc., in order to achieve personal or benefit for party, we can say with certainty that in the Republic of North Macedonia there is this kind of corruption. We could also identify this situation in empirical examples when political leaders shape the legal framework of “reforms” in the function of their private and political party interests by providing control over key legal, economic-financial

and natural resources; or, the situation when an influential financial-industrial group buys the votes of MPs in order to remove obstacles to entry into a particular sector. This situation actually anticipates the fusion of theoretically incompatible antidotes expressed in the “legal crime” phrase (Ангелески, 1993).

Unlike “seizure of state”, “administrative corruption” refers to the intentional violation of existing, positive laws and other regulations in order to gain illegal and undeserved use, through corruption, bribery of public servants and officials. This phenomenon is more recognizable because, as a classic variant of bribery, it is widespread for achieving various economic, social and other goals. The Republic of North Macedonia does not have a rich democratic and political tradition, primarily due to the fact that it exists as an independent and sovereign state in which a pluralistic political system of parliamentary democracy is being built, only ten years. The absence of one's own statehood and the long-lasting feeling of subjugation and servility (as a *modus vivendi* for survival) to foreign hegemons have also contributed to the lack of a sense of the primacy of state interest over personal and partisan interests, especially among those politically motivated and administrative functions, most drastically through the concept of the state as a profitable company. In the political climate of the Republic of North Macedonia, in addition to the absence of a high degree of political culture, there is also legal awareness and culture. In a country where the laws are not respected, the situation is the same as if they did not exist. Political factors are primarily concentrated on the uncontrolled and unlimited executive power, as an environment in which the performance of public office comes down to its party and personal privatization. This is due to the factors of non-existence of democratic institutions, relations and awareness, mutual control of the various holders of power in the system of separation of powers and political and other irresponsibility of holders of public office (Ангелески, 1993).

If we add to that the deep erosion with corrupt elements of the electoral process, which in any society is a normal way to “ventilate” the system and punish corrupt structures and choose others with real legitimacy, the circle of corruption is closed and the state of corruption in society it can get worse.

Prevention and fight against corruption

Prevention, in fact, requires the development of systemic initiatives in risk-assessed sectors, according to a plan aimed at either, it is a perspective for a longer period of time and leads to raising the level of complexity and transparency, trust, efficiency of system integration (Finckenauer, 2005). What is evident is the need for cooperation of all entities institutionally involved, aimed at caring for the sector of interest (public functions, cost control, education, etc.) because the specific effect of anti-corruption symbolism intervention is effectively promoted and considered significant.

Therefore, it is necessary for anti-corruption strategies to be implemented among the priorities of the political agenda, because political will is a reliable factor of importance and a decisive factor in implementing national measures for anti-corruption views bureaucratic level and provides, therefore, general, systematic interventions.

Furthermore, entrepreneurial activity, which can be registered between different factors for a complex and effective strategy - to the extent that the progress of a specific area cannot be achieved until all elements reach the level of operability - requires active involvement not only of all institutional components but also those of the social (eg the private sector, media, human society),

in order to maintain and encourage the policy of introducing anti-corruption measures, on the one hand, and to find effective a strategy for activating the program, referring specifically to the progressive advancement and growth effects (Finckenauer, 2005).

Coordinated action means not only achieving significant results, but also developing reciprocal control mechanisms that make the process of concealing corrupt practices more difficult, which is typical of an environment that is conducive to corrupt practices.

Consequences of corruption

Corruption is extremely harmful, as it causes negative consequences for virtually every segment of society and the state, and so great efforts are being made to prevent it nationally and internationally.

Corruption has negative effects on all areas of life, it is harmful to the economy, democracy, the state and the administrative apparatus, as well as society and citizens (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015).

In economics, it undermines the free market and competition, as the basis for any good development of the economy, increases the cost of business because in the price of products and services, the cost includes bribes. It slows down economic development and is a major enemy of a free market economy as it creates a layer of privileged companies that have an unjustified privileged market position. In short, corruption is hampering and destroying a country's economy. It is also harmful to democracy because it violates the basic right of citizens to equality before the institutions of the system, because it puts in a privileged position those citizens and entities who are ready and can afford to pay to exercise their right.

It negatively affects both the state and the administrative apparatus, because it disrupts the proper development of the institutions of the system, their efficient and legal functioning, reduces budget revenues, contributes to its irrational and unproductive use and causes preferential treatment of certain categories of citizens and subjects (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015). In the end, the price of corruption is mostly paid by citizens who receive less so-called public goods by central and local government, because the higher the corruption is, there are less opportunities to improve the quality of life (State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015).

When it comes to the consequences of corruption, it should be noted that what is particularly characteristic, unlike other types of crime, is: mediation and multiplication effect. For example, in classic crimes such as murder, the consequence is a direct result of the act of execution, while bribery as the most classic variant of corruption is not committed as an end in itself, but allows for the smooth execution of another type of crime. As for multiplication as a consequence of corruption, the most important moment is the fact that the consequences of corruption in the political and economic sphere continue to be the cause (generators) of many other consequences in all spheres of social life. As a result of corruption, entire empires and kingdoms have collapsed, and today governments are collapsing, scandals are erupting, and politicians in some countries are failing to realize that corruption is the greatest threat to society as a whole.

From an economic point of view, the negative consequences are seen with its devastating effect, especially in underdeveloped and transitional societies. corruption, which prevents economic development and destroys the necessary foreign investment (Finckenauer, 2005).

From a political point of view, corruption delegitimizes the representatives of political institutions, thus losing trust in the political system and democracy as a modern method of decision-making. From a legal point of view, corruption loses the legal certainty of the citizens and in general of all domestic and foreign legal entities. Awareness in the proceedings before the courts and the competent authorities of the state administration. From a social point of view, the following arise here: poverty and inequality of people before the law. Tolerating corruption, even for certain functional purposes in the tax sphere, would be a “double standard” and an open threat to the spread of corruption in all other social disputes. The basic form of the fight against corruption in the first place is its detection, then criminal prosecution and finally adequate sanctioning.

There are three different approaches to combating corruption in legal science. The first is a repressive form, which is the opposite of what has happened and is having negative consequences. The second form is prevention which aims to prevent the very occurrence of corruption and the third form is mixed, ie it consists of the previous two in cohesion. This form is the most popular and most practical.

The crime can only be committed with intent. In today's age where we are thirsty when even the basic values lose their meaning, the awareness of the damages, ie the consequences that can occur when committing the crime of corruption is less and less present in our society. Accepting the principle that everything will be easier if someone bribes themselves, results in a change in the already existing customary norms. The very word “reputation” loses its meaning and becomes euphemism for bribery. Realizing the real situation and revealing all kinds of corruption and their connection to the authorities is the first step that needs to be taken. The second step is the uninterrupted connection of law and morality (Камбовски, 1996).

That coexistence between these two terms must exist in order to regulate human behavior in a decent way. Nowadays, as never before, money plays a role as a measure of value and enters every segment of our lives. Every conformism and inconsistency in the fight against corruption creates numerous problems in society.

Special characteristics and features of corruption

In the following, we will highlight some basic characteristics of corruption, with its actors as well as the ways and methods to prevent it. Although it is difficult to give accurate practical forms, I will mention some of them, such as: counterfeiting, theft, misappropriation of funds, abuse of office, bribery, gifts, corrupt elections, stolen votes, tax evasion, extreme gains, receiving gifts, cash, misuse of official seals, sending for study abroad in well-known schools, etc.

Today, corruption is one of the most widespread forms of corruption in the prosecution process. According to Donald Stromboom, the former head of the World Bank, public works construction projects are the largest corruption cases in the world. Also, the use of foreign consultants and contacts with foreign sources of services are a new opportunity for corruption. The question arises - what are the factors that influence the increase of this very worrying phenomenon for the society in which we live or, what should we do to reduce corruption.

As the factors that allow and influence the occurrence of corruption, they are the most common (Ashworth, 2010):

- ✓ Lack of a strong legal basis
- ✓ Non-application of existing laws
- ✓ Lack of experience and professional ability to fight corruption

✓ Administrative reforms, etc.

Corruption is not a simple crime, where we will drive crime and criminal groups out into the streets. Corruption according to the nature of things appears and is realized through the government, regardless of which side the initiative starts, while the high type of corruption, according to its etiology and its legal tendency is “Eo Ipso and Ipso Facto” (Finckenauer, 2005).

The data of the Ministry of Interior show that North Macedonia is a country covered by corruption. According to this ministry, in 2017, 631 cases appeared with 504 committed crimes, while in 2018, 1,130 cases with 854 committed crimes (Ministry of Interior, Report for 2018).

The International Crisis Group (ICG) has repeatedly spoken out against the spread of corruption in the country. In its reports, the customs, tax services, healthcare and administration were highlighted as the most corrupt institutions in the country.

Recent observations by foreign agencies staying in North Macedonia show that the country is one of the countries with the highest level of corruption, and is among the 15 (fifteen) most corrupt countries in the world. According to Transparency International, North Macedonia is a highly corrupt country with only a few South American and African countries ahead.

One of the necessary conditions after the series of obligations that North Macedonia has for fulfillment for the purpose of joining the European Union, is rightly the request for putting corruption under control. Therefore, in order to fulfill this obligation in the country, reforms should be made in the field of administration, customs, financial system and beyond in order to overcome the shortcomings in the governing state institutions. It is also necessary to train the team of the Customs Administration, and constantly, as well as to move the customs staff in short periods of not more than 5 years in one place. With the professionalism of the customs team in cooperation with other state bodies, corruption can be reduced and prevented (Камбовски, 2002).

Corruption reports are rising every day, and this clearly suggests that despite efforts in most countries around the world to prevent corruption, they are insufficient. Corruption is currently on the rise, which shows that it is not something exclusive, but a problem for the development of countries.

Preventing corruption is not an end in itself, nor is it a solution to all the world's mistakes. More than the fight against the illegal behavior of those in power, it is part of a broader effort to create more effective, honorable and more efficient governance.

Conclusion

Corruption is one of the greatest challenges of our time - a challenge we must face with. Corruption is a worrying phenomenon for the whole society, so the society should oppose it in various ways to prevent it.

Corruption, as a complex problem, requires taking not only measures to detect and prosecute crimes that constitute corruption, but also to take measures with a disruptive-propagandistic or isolating character that will cover all sectors that are threatened creating a contributing legislative-administrative system, and only in this way the anti-corruption plan can be conceived and implemented.

The phenomenon of corruption is as old as the state itself, it has been known since the earliest times of human society.

Corruption, in the focus of history, represents the masked side of human history as an immoral and secret act, and as a continuation it is less exposed, but the special facts and events that speak of it have survived in time and have survived to the present day. In modern literature, the chronological description of the history of corruption from the moment it was born to the present day is a laborious task, because as with other phenomena in history and corruption, there are dark stages and places.

The issue of corruption, which has been associated with man since its inception, is solved not only through positive legal regulation, but also through moral categories, which means that primarily in one's own internal perception, because all people are special and unique as individuals. Free individuals who can, in the first place, develop and change themselves, in a positive or negative direction.

From a theoretical point of view, approaches to defining corruption are very different. Namely, the definition given by Vito Tanchi can be considered as the most meaningful. According to this definition, corruption exists if there is a deliberate violation of the principle of impartiality in decision-making in order to appropriate certain benefits.

The World Bank definition is also very common. Here, corruption is presented as an abuse of public authority for the benefit of the private. This way of defining corruption is linked to public authority, so that corruption is linked to the state, its affairs, state market intervention, and the existence of the public sector.

Although the first definition of corruption is more superior, the World Bank's definition allows for a better understanding of public sector corruption, which is an extremely important element of the state apparatus.

Literature

Andrew, A., *Sentencing and Criminal Justice*, 5th edn, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2010.

Ангелески, М., *Криминалистика*, НИО „Студенски збор“ Скопје, 1993.

Ангелески, М., *Криминалистичка Тактика*, Универзитет „Св. Кирил и Методиј“, Скопје, 1999.

Игњатовиќ, Ѓ., Секулиќ, М., *Организовани криминалитет*, Правни факултет Универзитета у Београду, Београд, 2010.

Jorge, F., *Malem Sena: Глобализација, Меѓународна трговија и корупција*, 2004.

James O. Finckenauer, *Problems of definition: what is organized crime?*, in *Trends in Organized Crime*, Vol. 8, No. 3, 2005.

Камбовски, В., *Правната држава и организираниот криминалитет*, „Св. Кирил и Методиј“ научен проект Конститутирањето на Република Македонија како модерна држава, тема Правната држава и организираниот криминалитет, Скопје, 1996.

Камбовски, В., Организиран криминал, 2-ри Август С, Штип, 2005.

Камбовски, В., Наумов, П., Корупцијата - најголемо зло и закана за правната држава, Скопје, 2002.

Manual for Prevention of Corruption and Conflict of Interest, Zoran Jacev, State Commission for Prevention of Corruption, 2015.

Zuccolotto, Steafania. Public procurement in Europe. Public Procurement Network Roma: Istituto Poligrafico e Zecca dello Stato, 2005.

<http://www.civicamobilitas.org.mk/attachments/article/23/Korupcija%20ne%20poveke.MK.pdf>

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF EXISTENTIAL DEATH ANXIETY AMONG ASTRONAUTS
DURING LONG-TERM SPACE MISSIONS AND ITS IDENTIFICATION AS A
PSYCHIATRIC STRESS IN OUTER SPACE**

Prof.Dr. Liljana Siljanovska PhD and Stefani Stojchevska PhD
South East European University - Tetovo

Abstract

Considering the ambition of space agencies and private space companies to further explore outer space and push the boundaries of extraterrestrial travel, we can also obtain the logical presumption of one of the results of those ambitions, that is, longer and consequentially more hazardous human space missions. While the notion of outer space may appear awe-inspiring for astronauts, it is important to equally consider the negative perceptions of its existence and components, as well as possible psychological and psychiatric effects that may develop among astronauts. Since it would become unavoidable in the future of space exploration for astronauts to examine the serious and realistic potential of the increasing chances of dying in outer space during a space mission, it is necessary for space psychology and psychiatry to take existential death anxiety as a serious consideration in order for it to be identified as a type of psychiatric stress for astronauts particularly during long-term missions, primarily through the previous development of irrational constructions of reality regarding outer space and its life and health-threatening characteristics as a result of a cognitive distortion, as well as actual death cases which should simultaneously be recognized as its psychological and interpersonal stressors.

Keywords: psychology, space, mortality, stress, distortion

Introduction

By sending space objects containing human crew, it was established that outer space represents a dangerous environment since we have not evolved for a self-sustaining life in it without the necessary utilization of proper technology and equipment. Besides physiological consequences and damages, they also face various psychological and psychiatric issues which, unfortunately, were not researched enough by the field of space psychology and psychiatry. In fact, space psychology was not valued as relevant enough and seriously taken in consideration ever since the beginning of the development of the first space programs.

“In the early 90’s, outgoing flight surgeon and psychiatrist Patricia Santy concluded that despite an initial flurry of interest, behavioral research all but disappeared from NASA. For years, she wrote, psychology played a minimal role in astronaut selection, and because the assessment of individual astronaut performance was prohibited, it was not possible to collect normative data for test validation and other purposes”¹⁷⁶

This indicates that performance ability based on possessing intellectual knowledge and experience in certain scientific subjects played a vital role concerning the astronaut’s selection for a certain

¹⁷⁶ Vakoch, D. (2012) On orbit and beyond: Psychological perspectives on human spaceflight. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

human space mission, while the structure of his psychological self, along with coping mechanisms, control of emotions, was neglected by the presumption that space psychology does not contribute enough to eventual risks. The quality of life in outer space cannot be compared with the quality of life on Earth, being limiting from the aspect of livability in compliance with our habitat. An extraterrestrial environment cannot be associated to an adequate level of psychological and psychical wellbeing, since astronauts face lack of privacy, cramped spaces, long list of daily obligations, physical reactions to zero gravity, etc. Although astronauts experience many positive psychological outcomes during space missions, it is a known fact that ever since the early efforts of human space exploration it was unknown whether the people sent into space would ever return back on planet Earth alive.

“We’ve lost only 18 people in space – including 14 NASA astronauts – since humankind first took to strapping ourselves to rockets”¹⁷⁷

Unfortunately, there is no rational probability of this number remaining a constant in the future development of space exploration due to the high ambitions of space agencies and private space companies which will result with more losses of human crewmembers. However, their occurrences were mainly determined by external factors. This fact gives plenty of time to presume the inevitable chance of an astronaut developing existential death anxiety caused by a psychiatric origin, as well as human crew to eventually face a death-related situation. While there is a difference between being trained to deal with hypothetical death-threatening scenarios in space, the reaction to realistic death-related scenarios, whether they are a product of reality or imagination, is not always easily predictable.

The development of an existential death anxiety represents a negative effect of human spaceflight associated with long-term space missions. Although temporal durations are not precise guarantees of malfunction or cognitive distortion regarding the perception of outer space, the extended exposure to possible dangers, whether they are rational or irrational, increases the chances of the development of existential death anxiety. The development of existential death anxiety can be inspired by multiple determinants of an external origin with the psychological twist of being interpreted in a rather distorted manner. Dual perception of outer space causes completely different effects due to their opposing nature. One of those effects is paranoia mainly influenced by existential anxiety and an irrational fear of outer space which may further result in the manifestation of delusions and a possible symptom to psychosis.

Identifying the binary perception of outer space

“The wonderful and rapid progress in the exploration of our own atmosphere and further parts of space which we witness daily, has led mankind to take a much greater interest than ever before in all celestial events and phenomena”¹⁷⁸

The first mind-step required towards the conquest of space was to conceive it as a realistic place to travel to, but more importantly, a realistic place to die or at least perceive it in a pathological manner. Prolongation of temporal human spaceflight mission increases the likelihood of the

¹⁷⁷ Shannon S (2017) “What happens to your body when you die in space?”. Popular Science. The 20th of January 2017th <https://www.popsci.com/what-happens-to-your-body-when-you-die-in-space/> (visited on 18.11.2019)

¹⁷⁸ Abetti, G. (1968) The exploration of the universe. London, England: Faber and Faber

development of irrationally perceiving outer space as a life-threatening environment. Irrationality as a cognition may be expressed through an exaggerated expression of mental expectations and unrealistic scenarios. However, the roots of this abnormal behavior originate from the distortion of reality which may develop as a combination of unstable personality characteristics such as inadequate coping mechanisms and awareness of outer space being the last place before dying. Distorted perception of outer space are determined by various emotional reactions of a cognitive shift that simultaneously manifests the difficulty of understanding that extraterrestrial life causes serious psychiatric states resulting in an unsuccessful space mission, damaged mental and physical health.

The awe-inspiring perception by astronauts of outer space results in creating the psychological phenomena known as the Overview Effect and is considered as one of the most positive psychological impacts for humans that originate from human spaceflight missions.

“It refers to the experience of seeing firsthand the reality of the Earth in space which is immediately understood to be a tiny, fragile ball of life, hanging in the void, shielded and nourished by a paper-thin atmosphere”¹⁷⁹

Before flying into space, astronauts have created an “inner” perception of our planet, as being a small part of a system. However, seeing planet Earth as a whole changes the previous impression and new processed cognition in mind, astronauts replace it with an “outer” perception. This experience causes a cognitive shift between the way of how the astronaut’s conscious and unconscious mind communicate with each other, all while opening an emotional specter which allows the undergoing of various feelings. Although in such an emotional specter during a cognitive shift, some feelings such as euphoria, may originate from the astronaut’s conscious mind, while other feelings such as panic, may originate from the astronaut’s unconscious mind. The difference lies in the rationality, or the lack of rationality that is manifested along them. Regarding pre-human spaceflight missions, *“the emphasis was on selecting-out those candidates whose psychological structure would be detrimental in a space environment”¹⁸⁰*

Psychiatric conditions contribute to the appearance of effects from objective aspects relating to mission failure, and subjective aspects relating to flight hazards. While most evaluations of psychiatric conditions cover various disabling phobias associated to flying, neuroses or personality disorders, cognitive distortion concerning death-related thoughts that result in irrational existential death anxiety cannot necessarily be considered as a psychiatric condition that can be immediately detected through evaluation. The cognitive distortion of outer space as a place is required to occur under near-death situations or relatively long human spaceflight missions which increases the anxiety and chance of dying in space. Therefore, the once awe-inspiring perception of space turns into an exaggerated thought pattern, representing a basis for possible psychiatric issues that are the complete opposite and therefore contradict the previously mentioned optimistic and beneficial effect should not be ignored. Still, it is necessary to analyze the development of an existential death anxiety through the cognitive distortion concerning the concept of outer space, as a dysfunctional transmission between the conscious mind and the unconscious mind.

¹⁷⁹ White, F. (1987). *The overview effect: Space exploration and human evolution*. Reston, VA: American Institute of Aeronautics & Astronautics

¹⁸⁰ Vakoch, D. (2012) *On orbit and beyond: Psychological perspectives on human spaceflight*. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

Development of an existential death anxiety among astronauts

Humans, as rational creatures, hold beliefs about their existence and lifespan in a very relevant manner, and such beliefs further contribute to the awareness of their own death, a fate that they share with every other living being on planet Earth. *“However, death awareness did not occur in a vacuum, but rather alongside many otherwise highly adaptive cognitive capacities”*¹⁸¹

Humans construct their own individual reality and views concerning reality by abstracting possible scenarios. A flaw in this factuality applies to the inability to perform a structure of mental separation, meaning that we cannot separate the mental images we have created by observing reality, and reality itself. This only occurs when we distort reality, but not when we construct it. Attempts to grasp reality and place it in our limited minds cannot define how to defend our psychological wellbeing if certain rooted constructions are aroused. The human brain opposes our unsettling emotions and thoughts, as a coping mechanism. Consequentially, the construction of death as part of a potential reality is unavoidable and is manifested through a mental image. It should not be disregarded of our presumptions that our subjective construction of reality may intertwine with the objective world. Our existential death anxiety is increased due to our knowledge about its characteristics that make it impossible for humans to independently survive. Operating in space can cause ostensible death-related thought among astronauts. Keeping this in mind, we ask ourselves is it possible for astronauts to construct death and if so, how do they do that?

*“After an individual has developed awareness of the certainty of death, it can never be erased, and while most people only rarely consciously think about this fact, the information remains inseparable from oneself”*¹⁸²

Astronauts are very aware of all the dangers they are exposed to in space and they also understand that death may occur in their extraterrestrial environment, although they do not, at least intentionally draw any particular attention to those possibilities. While they consciously focus on their tasks, the unconscious aspect of their awareness is always fixated. It surfaces to the conscious mind as an internal cognition while caused by an external stimulation or an internal stimulation that is resuscitated either by an external perception. Due to an improper communication between the conscious mind and the unconscious mind, a cognitive distortion may occur, all while being associated with the inaccurate perception of outer space. Namely the conscious mind projects awareness of an astronaut’s awareness for outer space and planet Earth as an observer. The previously mentioned external perception can either be drawn from an actual view or from a mental image that is equally realistic;

The first external perception is achieved by stimuli that originate from the external organism, which are obtained through exteroceptors placed outside the body. More specifically, the rational

¹⁸¹ Harwell, L., Nisbett, G. (2016) Denying death: An interdisciplinary approach to Terror Management Theory. New York, NY: Routledge

¹⁸² Harwell, L., Nisbett, G. (2016) Denying death: An interdisciplinary approach to Terror Management Theory. New York, NY: Routledge

aspect of awareness is caused by visual sensations formed when a visual stimuli acts upon the sense of sight through the appearance of a light wave of different wavelengths upon the human sight sense that represent only a small fragment of the solar spectrum, those whose wavelength is between 39 and 800 millimicrons. Although this aspect has a biological foundation, death-related thoughts can be originally perceived rationally and to be corresponded with rational psychological defenses;

The second internal stimulation is only occasionally resuscitated by external. Mental images serve as a replacement stimulator for the transition of existential death anxiety from the unconscious mind to the astronaut's conscious awareness.

*"Because of our limits we cannot observe all of reality, but we know it's out there and here's the most reassuring part – reality stays real no matter how much or how little we understand it"*¹⁸³

The psychological reality of space contains specific elements related to mortality and health damaging. For instance, mortality is associated with the incompetence of humans to survive without oxygen and unbearably low temperatures. On the other hand, health damaging is associated to physical effects that astronauts undergo in space. However, correlating many versions constructed must be in compliance with the factual reality in order to avoid circumstances of irrational endangerment dictated by psychological inadequacy. Astronauts are aware of their immediate surroundings and it does not necessarily represent the source of perception of space, but rather its characteristics that causes certain emotions among them. An astronaut's perception of space cannot be objective due to the influence of various factors. Subjective perceptions that originate from the unconscious mind are often unreliable, biased and above all, irrational. Deprivation of rationality and logic is what characterizes psychological defenses, often accompanied by a cognitive distortion manifested by catastrophizing death-related thoughts and simultaneously surfacing existential death anxiety.

*"People manage their potential for terror without having to actually experience that terror"*¹⁸⁴

Although astronauts may not be actually experiencing death-threatening situations, the subconscious mind is aware of the potential dangers of outer space. Death-related thoughts that appear both in the conscious mind and unconscious mind of astronauts differ in the applied defense mechanisms and rationality or the lack of rationality. Also, cognitive distortion only comes into view concerning the perception originating from the unconscious mind. Still, it is undeniable that an impression of control lingers at the back of the human mind. Put in another way, *"the notion that each one of us participates in the construction of reality is both alarming and liberating"*¹⁸⁵

Blurring the lines between conscious and unconscious reality cannot be liberating by any means regarding existential death anxiety among astronauts. The participation in the construction of a death-related reality is often characterized as frightening particularly when astronauts engage in

¹⁸³ Kastenbaum, R. (1972). *The psychology of death* (3rd ed.) New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc

¹⁸⁴ Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S. (1999) "A dual-process model of defense against conscious and unconscious death-related thoughts: An Extension of terror management theory" in: *Psychological review*, Vol.106, No.4.p.3

¹⁸⁵ Kastenbaum, R. (1972). *The psychology of death* (3rd ed.) New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc

their first spaceflight mission, or when they are introduced to a unique situation. From a psychological perspective, the mental construction of death in space has an external characteristic, meaning that it is being observed as a hazardous environment. However, death anxiety can be perceived in a direct and indirect manner, thus creating two constructions of perception regarding outer space:

[1] Overall view of outer space as a hostile environment;

[2] Severe health threats originating from outer space;

Mutual attributes regarding the abovementioned irrational constructions of reality feature an inadequate coping mechanism regarding mental and emotional stress, which are inseparable and/or encountering unique circumstances. States of mental tension distort cognitive thinking and have a destructive effect upon the individual. Manifestations of irrational constructs of reality are not constant, but rather continuously, accompanied by stress as a mental phase where astronauts fear of losing their life or health. Built-up pressure in these situations cannot be easily released due to the fact that the supposed astronaut is experiencing an unrealistic construction of reality for which there is no solution, since the mental state itself is irrational in the first place. This can be associated as a gap between exaggerated expectations and the reality outer space itself along with its characteristics. When such exaggerated expectations of mortality are higher, naturally, the gap is wider and therefore the manifested stress, and vice versa. Representation of mortality and health damage concerning outer space in an excessive manner tends to be influenced by the cognition of distance and viewing planet Earth as an “outer perception” concerning both constructions of reality – when astronauts simultaneously view planet Earth from the spacecraft that they operate and estimate the distance between their position in a certain orbit in space and planet Earth, all while experiencing existential death anxiety, they perceive their isolation from home as a helpless situation which further intensifies their exaggerated belief that their mortality is guaranteed and rapidly approaching.

Overall view of outer space as a hostile environment

Before flying into space, astronauts acknowledge space as a general notion and study its characteristic theoretically. They only develop an “inner” and theoretical perception of outer space as an environment. This changes when astronauts fly into space and develop an “outer” perception of outer space. Based on previous theoretical knowledge, astronauts are aware that outer space can be an extremely hostile environment, having that imprinted in their subconscious mind. Therefore, part of their “outer” perception includes the mental process of catastrophization and although it may be perceived as irrational, it actually represents a direct way in which evolution and the concept of survival of the fittest has enhanced astronauts to demonstrate their ability to survive such a hostile environment. However, the ability to assess certain threats in this case cannot be perceived as precise. This originates from a poorly constructed mental representation of reality in which astronauts ruminate about their own mortality regarding nonsensical perils, where astronauts cannot tell their own unrealistic observations apart from the objective reality.

Severe health threats originating from outer space

While the perception of outer space as a hostile environment is associated with catastrophization, astronauts are subconsciously aware of the various health threats which they are constantly exposed to. These space-related threats may be invisible to the naked eye, but they are

knowledgeable to astronauts, again implying that only a theoretical awareness is existent in the subconscious mind before flying into orbit. Consequentially, the previous “inner” perception is replaced with an “outer” perception by acknowledging the fact that astronauts are experiencing severe health threats during their mission, which during the manifestation of existential death anxiety includes the mental distortion of alarmism, which in this case represents the exaggeration of real and serious space-related health threats. Particularly the exposure to galactic cosmic radiation increases the mortality of astronauts caused from cancer, since it “*can cause the ionization of atoms as they pass through matter and can pass practically unimpeded through a typical spacecraft of the skin of an astronaut*”¹⁸⁶

Astronauts by directing alarmism in this scenario are subject to the cognitive distortion of catastrophizing, however, what is unique about this unrealistic construction of reality is that it does not necessarily require any visual stimulus by external receptors, but rather uses rational cognitions that gravitate from the subconscious mind towards the conscious mind. Viewing outer space associates astronauts to remind subconsciously that space-related health threats are present and have a severe effect around them.

Defense mechanisms

People are always subconsciously aware that death is inevitable, and most of the time it is considered normal behavior not to be preoccupied with such thoughts. However, human mortality as a notion represents an existential anxiety that is deeply rooted and psychological protection is a necessity. Death-related thoughts are part of a rational construction of reality. Furthermore, they are more difficult in order for individuals to develop psychological defense mechanisms against irrational death anxieties, since they come from the unconscious mind but still perceive the aspect of death and mortality in a problematic manner. In other words, there is no relation to logic and rationality while experiencing unconscious death anxiety as conscious. Astronauts do not have to necessarily experience existent life-threatening situations in order to develop psychological defense mechanisms. This appears to be very logical since in irrational constructions of reality, death threats are nonexistent in reality, but are perceived as realistic, often accompanied by the cognitive distortion of catastrophization during existential death anxiety. Comprehending mortality regarding astronauts is stimulated by the actual or mental image of outer space that serves as a reminder that they are currently present in a harsh and hostile environment. In addition, two types of defense mechanisms will be further analyzed regarding their background manifested in the conscious mind and the unconscious mind, as well as determining exactly how and why catastrophizing death-related thoughts as a form of cognitive distortion appears in outer space based perceptions.

Proximal defenses

*“Proximal defenses entail attempts to defuse a threat at roughly the same level of abstraction at which it is construed”*¹⁸⁷

¹⁸⁶ Lloyd, C.W. (2007) Space Radiation iBook. Houston, Texas: NASA Human Research Program Engagement and Communications

¹⁸⁷ Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S. (1999) “A dual-process model of defense against conscious and unconscious death-related thoughts: An Extension of terror management theory” in: Psychological review, Vol.106, No.4.p.5

Behavioral psychology which responds to emotional reactions regarding an astronaut's mortality while operating in outer space has a direct effect. Although this defense mechanism is more pronounced when astronauts are actually exposed to near-death experiences, it is important to analyze whether it will also apply to imaginary death-thoughts that are irrational. Mortality salience is linked to the individual's ability or lack of ability to control their existential anxiety. An astronaut's attitude that he will die in outer space has an increased logical bearing due to his knowledge of the possible risks and characteristics concerning the extraterrestrial environment in which he operates. Still, when it comes to this coping mechanism, control is maintained since the acknowledgment of death-related scenarios is not derived from the unconscious mind, but rather from the conscious mind, where existential death anxiety is not present. The acknowledgment is theoretical and always present because of its necessity for functional operations. Simultaneously, irrational death-related thought are very brief and easily ignored with the manipulation of the unpleasant mental image, mainly achieved through the manipulation of mortality salience where it is recognized that the projection of "awareness" is false, but also depending on the level of self-esteem possessed by the individual astronaut – higher self-esteem allows easier psychological coping skills that perceive the imaginary death-related threat as irrational, while lower self-esteem allows more difficult psychological coping skills that perceive the imaginary death-related threat as a possibility.

Considering psychological effects upon astronauts, during the manifestation of this defense mechanism, death reminders do not play a relevant role in control management. The problem of death, although imaginary, is dealt by pushing death-related thought from the conscious mind. Typically, current attention is focused on suppressing existential death anxiety in the mental conflict between the irrational perception of a death-related hazard placed in the unconscious mind and the previously obtained theoretical knowledge places in the conscious mind.

Distal defenses

“Distal defenses entail attempts to defuse a threat by attacking it at a level of abstraction different from the level at which the threat is construed”¹⁸⁸

One of the various cognitive distortions that astronauts use is the mental process of irrational catastrophization, which mainly occurs during the experience of constructions of reality that include death-related thoughts and hazards, all while lacking logical elements. Mortality salience for astronauts rapidly increases due to its transfer from the unconscious mind to the conscious mind, along with the originating perception. By accepting their vulnerability, astronauts manifest a strong emotional reaction to the hypothetical possibility of death in space, mainly terror and fear in order to avoid the reproduced reality construction that they are living in. Abstraction in these cases is manifested as a coping mechanism interpreted as a psychological response to an unrealistic perception of a near-death experience that severely disrupts the quality of performance regarding astronauts. By defending one's self from a distortion of cognition such as death in outer space, astronauts focus all of their energy, physical and mental, in order to avoid their hypothetical or

¹⁸⁸ Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S. (1999) “A dual-process model of defense against conscious and unconscious death-related thoughts: An Extension of terror management theory” in: Psychological review, Vol.106, No.4.p.6

imaginary death. The lack of quality characterizing this irrational abstraction bypasses the notion to circumvent the opposed conscious awareness while confronting the “hazard” in such a manner that is also dependent on its duration, which is not brief. Consequentially, the individual astronaut cannot be fully aware of the interconnection of the constructed death-threatening situation and his harmful manifested behavior being driven by the fear of death.

Death reminders play a major role in manifesting this defense mechanism, and the determining factor is their intensity, particularly when they are edging between consciousness and unconsciousness. Stronger and weaker death reminders have an independent influence upon the defense effect. In order to identify the death reminders that contribute for astronauts to create distorted reality constructions where they perceive the confrontation of near-death experiences, we can take the universal perception of outer space as a hazardous environment, and the severe space-related health threats in an overall consideration;

Death reminders do not have to be actually perceived by astronauts, as a mental image is enough to cause existential death anxiety based on an irrational construct of reality, however, there are no logical relations connected to them. They have different sources but that does not necessarily influence their intensity, but rather their nature and severity. For instance, an astronaut perceiving outer space as a dangerous environment to be in, even though he is protected in the spacecraft, produces stronger manifestations of distal defenses because death is abruptly imagined. On the other hand, space-related health threats which are not visible ordinarily produce weaker manifestations of distal defenses because a shorter life span is perceived instead of an immediately perceived occurrence of death. In summary, distal defenses are triggered by an irrational near-death awareness which remains accessible for a longer period of time.

Defining death cases in outer space as a conscious stimulus

Despite everything that was previously analyzed in this paper, it is especially important to acknowledge that *“as far as space being one is concerned, there are as many space perspectives psychologically as there are individual consciousnesses”*¹⁸⁹

Rational and irrational perceptions regarding constructions of reality as a product of cognitive distortion mainly depend on the personality characteristics that astronauts possess, such as failure to learn adequate coping mechanisms. Existential death anxiety could appear among surviving astronauts if the worst case scenario happens during a space mission. Potential death cases are imprinted in the unconscious aspect of the human mind, meaning that they are not the primary focus when astronauts consciously operate in outer space. Although astronauts often do not like to talk about it, they are aware about the possibility of dying in space because they have already perceived it as an eligible location, whether it will take place inside the spacecraft, or outside, possibly during a spacewalk. Still, this will not necessarily mean that astronauts are not psychologically prepared for death-related situations before the departure for their mission into

¹⁸⁹ Boodin, J. (1906) “Space and reality” in: *The Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods*. Vol.3, No.20.p.534

space. On the contrary, *“all international partners who train for missions to the ISS (including JAXA and ESA) do in fact prepare for the death of a crewmember”*¹⁹⁰

An astronaut's death could represent a powerful stimulus for unconscious death-related thought begin to surface to the conscious aspect of astronaut's minds, where the psychological coping mechanism of handling a dead body in space does not often comply with rational actions, especially if certain emotional responses are present. As previously mentioned, the preparations include so called “death simulations” where such hypothetical contingency plans for a sudden death are discussed. However, *“no analog or simulation environment can completely reproduce the environment of space”*¹⁹¹

Simulations do not have potential to accurately represent real death cases, since astronauts are subconsciously aware that the death case of their colleague is hypothetical and therefore precise results from a psychological aspect cannot be obtained. Chances are that some astronauts momentarily will not know how to react properly and rationally during actual death cases, particularly from a psychological aspect. Although they can remember their simulated training, inadequate coping mechanisms may severely affect their abilities to effectively deal with the corpse in a rapid manner due to health and sanitary purposes. This irrational reaction manifested by certain astronauts can additionally be stimulated due to their emotional connection with the eventually deceased astronaut.

*“Suedfeld [1991] has argued that it is not the physical environment per se that is important but the psychological meaning that a space analog or simulation environment holds for the individuals involved”*¹⁹²

Knowledge obtained from death simulations is accumulated in the conscious aspect of the astronaut's minds for future usage however it is mainly focused towards the physical environment, such as storing the astronaut's dead body at a certain chamber regarding the spacecraft or other appropriate and rational methods. Consequentially, it is the psychological aspect that is often neglected, along with the possibility of the development of death anxiety among surviving astronauts. Also, not only do surviving astronauts direct death-related thoughts towards their deceased colleague, but themselves as well. Perceiving such an actual death case affects contributes for death anxiety to shift to existential death anxiety, furthermore causing a cognitive distortion of the extraterrestrial environment where the surviving astronauts perceive their presence in outer space as salient in regards to their own mortality.

Identifying existential death anxiety as a psychiatric stress

Up until now, astronauts have experienced and tolerated various psychological and interpersonal circumstances in their extraterrestrial environment, both positive and negative. However, in order to determine certain circumstances as a stressor, primarily, we must be introduced with the proper

¹⁹⁰ Shannon S (2017) “What happens to your body when you die in space?”. Popular Science. The 20th of January 2017th <https://www.popsci.com/what-happens-to-your-body-when-you-die-in-space/> (visited on 18.11.2019)

¹⁹¹ Kanas, N., Manzey, D. (2003) Space psychology and psychiatry. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

¹⁹² Kanas, N., Manzey, D. (2003) Space psychology and psychiatry. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

definition – “*A stressor is a stimulus or feature of the environment that affects someone, usually in a negative, arousing manner*”¹⁹³

As space exploration further develops, astronauts are aware of committing themselves to longer space missions associated with serious potential of perceiving outer space and its hazardous health effects as life-threatening on one hand, and actual death cases of astronauts, on the other. Both of them cause death-related thoughts, even though the difference between them is the element of actuality or lack of actuality manifested by irrational actions. In fact, the actual occurrence of death cases is when the unrealistic construction of reality complies with physical existence of the factuality, giving the cognitive distortion the characteristic of confirmation, which severely increases its intensity among the surviving astronauts. Therefore, it is necessary to determine in which category death-related thought and actual death cases of astronauts belong to, being defined stressors. Regarding space psychology and psychiatry, so far, four types of stressors have been identified: physical, habitability, psychological and interpersonal;

Given that death-related thought originate from the unconscious mind, one would consider that, as stressors, they are of psychological nature. Still, it is paradoxical whether death cases by themselves should be considered as psychological stressors as well. Since death cases are related to astronauts, it is logical to presume that death cases should be considered as interpersonal stressors. Death-related thought, as psychological stressors have one thing in common – they contribute to the development of existential death anxiety which can be identified as a psychiatric stress, regarding astronauts.

Regarding space psychology, four types of stresses have been identified: physiological, performance, interpersonal, and psychiatric; But in order to ultimately define existential death anxiety as a type of psychiatric stress, we must acknowledge the definition of stress – “*A stress pertains to the reaction produced in someone by one or more stressors*”¹⁹⁴

Existential death anxiety originates from imaginary death-related thoughts as part of an irrational constriction of reality as a result of a cognitive distortion, as well as actual death cases of astronauts aboard a spacecraft, being the result of inadequate coping mechanisms as an uncooperative personality characteristic. Consequentially, existential death anxiety originates from two different types of stressors, which under certain circumstances, might have a simultaneous contribution – irrational death-related thoughts as psychological stressors on one hand, and death cases of astronauts, on the other; The appropriate psychiatric reaction to these circumstances and events, which simultaneously holds a strong emotional component, whether directed towards the astronauts himself, or his deceased colleague, has the potential to produce negative and arousing effects upon astronauts.

Conclusion

Taking in consideration the factuality of space exploration in the future of humanity becoming more developed as a reflection of the high ambitions of space agencies and private space companies, it would become unavoidable for astronauts to consider the possibility to develop a destructive perception of outer space as a hazardous environment. Therefore, besides the

¹⁹³ Kanas, N., Manzey, D. (2003) Space psychology and psychiatry. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

¹⁹⁴ Kanas, N., Manzey, D. (2003) Space psychology and psychiatry. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

accustomed view of outer space as awe-inspiring, long-term space missions containing a human crew, contribute for astronauts to develop irrational death-related thoughts regarding their life and health, along with certain defense mechanisms that more or less, lack the crucial elements of logic and rationality. Although they can primarily represent irrational constructions of reality as a result of a cognitive distortion, actual death cases aboard a spacecraft or station can also cause the appearance of death-related thoughts. In fact, death cases should also be considered as a specific potential characteristic for ambitious extraterrestrial exploration, as it allows for astronauts to experience new and unique circumstances and events, ones which cannot easily be dealt with, especially with pre-flight psychological examination. Regardless, it is more important to acknowledge the effects caused by death related thought, no matter if they originate from a psychological or a physical background, and recognize them as future stressors in space, along with their contribution in the development of existential death anxiety, further identified as a severe psychiatric stress to which astronauts might be vulnerable, simultaneously affecting their performance during the space mission.

Literature:

Abetti, G. (1968) *The exploration of the universe*. London, England: Faber and Faber

Boodin, J. (1906) "Space and reality" in: *The Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods*. Vol.3, No.20.p. 534

Harwell, L., Nisbett, G. (2016) *Denying death: An interdisciplinary approach to Terror Management Theory*. New York, NY: Routledge

Kanas, N., Manzey, D. (2003) *Space psychology and psychiatry*. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

Kastenbaum, R. (1972). *The psychology of death* (3rd ed.) New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc

Lloyd, C.W. (2007) *Space Radiation* iBook. Houston, Texas: NASA Human Research Program Engagement and Communications

Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S. (1999) "A dual-process model of defense against conscious and unconscious death-related thoughts: An Extension of terror management theory" in: *Psychological review*, Vol.106, No.4.pp. 3,5, 6.

Shannon S (2017) "What happens to your body when you die in space?". *Popular Science*. The 20th of January 2017th <https://www.popsci.com/what-happens-to-your-body-when-you-die-in-space/> (visited on 18.11.2019)

Vakoch, D. (2011). *Psychology of space exploration: Contemporary research in historical perspective*. Washington, DC: National Aeronautics and Space Administration Government Printing Office

Vakoch, D. (2012) On orbit and beyond: Psychological perspectives on human spaceflight. Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany: Springer

White, F. (1987). The overview effect: Space exploration and human evolution. Reston, VA: American Institute of Aeronautics & Astronautics

***This Issue's Special:
Modern Balkan
Approach to the
Bio-Natural Science***

CONTENT OF VITAMIN “C” IN CAULIFLOWER (BRASSICA OLERACA VAR. BOTRYTIS) AND BROCCOLI (BRASSICA OLERACA VAR. ITALICA) GROWN USING MICROBIAL FERTILIZERS

Daniela Dimovska

University Goce Delcev-Stip

Petar Petrov

MIT University Skopje

Igor Iljovski

University St. Kiril and Methody, Skopje, Faculty of agriculture science and food

Abstract

The experiment was conducted in order to determine the influence of the microbiological fertilizer Slavol on vitamin C in broccoli and cauliflower that were produced at the open field.

It was used the cauliflower Barcelona F1 and broccoli variety Verdija F1, which was grown in the Skopje region for three years (2011, 2012, 2013). The treatments were as follows: Ø control - without the use of microbiological fertilizer, T-1 - foliar treatment every 7 days with 0,1% solution of Slavol and T-2 - drip irrigation treatment every 2 days with 0,1% solution of Slavol. Was follow level on vitamin C in cauliflower and broccoli.

According to the obtained results it can be established that with the use of microbiological fertilizer Slavol the higher level on vitamin C in cauliflower was in treatment T-1 was 56.16 mg/100g , but in broccoli was higher level on vitamin C in the treatment T-2, or 43,6 mg/100g.

A statistically significant difference in $p < 0.05$ levels was found only in broccoli between treatment 2 and the highest mean value of 43.63 of vitamin C in mg / 100 g and T-1 treatment.

Keywords: cauliflower, broccoli, microbiological fertilizer, vitamin C.

Introduction

Vitamins are organic compounds with a diverse structure and chemical properties that are essential in human nutrition. Fresh fruits and vegetables are a rich source of vitamins. Vitamin C is one of the main antioxidants, and its function is to release molecules of free radicals and microbes from the body. It has a significant role in the development and regeneration of tissues, blood vessels, bones, as well as improving immunity, resistance to viruses and bacteria, allergies, airway diseases, etc. Ascorbic acid is a ketolactone with six carbon atoms that according to the structure is very similar to glucose. It is easily soluble in water and alcohol, and practically insoluble in chloroform and ether, it is unstable and easily loses its storage and packaging properties. It is subjected to oxidation by alkalis, iron and copper.

Cauliflower (*Brassica oleraca* var. *Botrytis*) and broccoli (*Brassica oleraca* var. *Italica*.) Belong to the group of leafy green vegetables from the cabbage family BrassicaceaeL. Which are characterized by high nutritional value and medicinal properties due to their chemical composition. vitamins, minerals, proteins, carbohydrates and fats. They are also rich in amino acids (arginine, histidine, methionine, tryptophan, lysine, etc.) that help the kidneys work, secrete gastric juices, and thus digest food. Some plant derivatives that contain cabbage crops (cabbage, cauliflower, broccoli, kale) prevent the development of tumors, so science calls them anticancer substances. According to Alajaykov (1966), the content of vitamin C in cauliflower ranges from 59.6-69.4 mg / 100 g, and according to data provided by Červenski and Gvozdenović (2007), broccoli contains the highest amount of vitamin C of all cabbage. cultures, the content of vitamin C according to

them is 89.2 mg / 100 g. In addition, cauliflower and broccoli have a pleasant and refreshing taste, can be consumed prepared in different ways and in a processed state, which is why raw materials are valued in households and industry throughout the year.

The aim of our study was to determine the effect of Slavol microbiological fertilizer on the content of vitamin C in cauliflower and broccoli. Worthington (2001) found that organically produced vegetables have higher levels of vitamin C, iron, magnesium and phosphorus, and less nitrates and lower amounts of some heavy metals.

Material and method of work

The experiment was conducted in the vicinity of Skopje, Jurumleri, on soil type alluvium, during the vegetation years 2011, 2012 and 2013.

The subject of the examination is two cultures:

- Cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. botrytis), Barcelona F1 variety;
- Broccoli (*Brassica oleracea* L. var italica), variety Verdija F1.

Cauliflower and broccoli were grown by producing seedlings in cold beds, from where the seedlings were planted in the field, ie outdoors.

Table 1. Time of sowing and transplanting of cauliflower and broccoli sowing seeds

Variety	Year	Sowing	Sprouting 50 %	Transplanting
Cauliflower				
Barcelona F1	2011	20.05	27.05	16.07
	2012	20.05	26.05	16.07
	2013	25.05	01.06	17.07
Broccoli				
Verdija F1	2011	20.05	27.05	16.07
	2012	20.05.	26.05	16.07
	2013	25.05	01.06	17.07

Seedlings in the three years of examination were produced by sowing in seedlings intended for seedling production. During 2011 and 2012 the sowing was done on May 20, while in 2013 the sowing was done on May 25.

50% seed germination is observed in the period from 5 to 7 days after sowing.

Prior to the installation of the Polish experiments, standard agro-technical measures preceded: plowing, fertilizing with burnt manure, plowing and plowing to prepare the soil for planting broccoli and cauliflower seedlings in a permanent place.

Both crops are planted on experimental plots, arranged in a random block system (Fisher method) in three variants, with four repetitions each. The plants are planted at a distance of 0.5 m in a row and 0.8 m between rows.

The treatments are based on the time and method of treatment with the Slavole microbiological fertilizer, which combines 6 bacteria belonging to the group of free azotobacter chroococcum (108 cfu / ml) *Azotobacter vinelandii* (108 cfu / ml), 108 cfu / ml) and phosphomineralizers (*Bacillus licheniformis* (109 cfu / ml), *Bacillus subtilis* (109 cfu / ml), *Bacillus megaterium* (109 cfu / ml), a product of Agrounik, R. Serbia. For this purpose, three variants were placed:

1. Ø control - without the application of microbial fertilizer;

2. Treatment 1 (T-1) - treatment of seedlings by immersion in a solution of 5 l of water and 50 ml Blade and treatment during vegetation through the leaves with a back spray every 7 days with a solution of 2 ml of mortar dissolved in 2 l water and

3. Treatment 2 (T-2) - treatment of the seedling by immersion in a solution of 5l water and 50 ml Slavool and treatment during vegetation through a drip system (spaghetti type) with a solution of 150 ml Slavo, dissolved in 150 l water with a flood rate of 2 L / m² per capita, every two days

The irrigation rate in all examination treatments is equal, with a drip system.

Table 2. Foliar treatments

Year	July			August					September			
2011	19	26		2	9	16	23		6	13		
2012	21	28		4	11	18	25		1	8	15	22
2013	20	27		3	10	17	24	31	7	14	21	

Table 3. Drip treatment system

Year	July				August					September				
2011	25	27	29	31	2	4	6	8	10	1	3	5	7	9
					12	14	16	18	20	11	13	15	17	
					22	24	26	28	30					
2012	18	20	22	24	1	3	5	7	9	2	4	6	8	10
	26	28	30		11	13	15	17	19	12	14			
					21	23	25	27	29					
					31									
2013	21	23	25	27	2	4	6	8	10	1	3	5	7	9
	29	31			12	14	16	18	20	11	13	15	17	
					22	24	26	28	30					

Results and discussion

The average vitamin C content in cauliflower inflorescences, according to Lešič et al. (2002), ranges from 35 to 87 mg / 100 g, while Vanderslicei et al. (1990), found vitamin C content in cauliflower 62.7 mg / 100 g.

Lee and Kader (2000) suggest that the content of vitamin C in vegetables is influenced by a number of factors such as: differences in genotype, climatic conditions during production, application of agrotechnical measures, maturity during harvest, harvesting and whiter practices. During vegetation, the increased intensity of light affects the increase of vitamin C in plant tissues, while the increased intake of nitrogen fertilizers in most vegetable species results in a decrease in the content of this vitamin. In many species, the content of vitamin C may increase if irrigation is less frequent.

Table 4 shows the data from the measured values for the average content of vitamin C in cauliflower by years, as well as the average values for the three years of examination in each of the treatments.

Table 4. Content of Vitamin C content in cauliflower mg / 100 g

Year	Ø	T-1	T-2
2011	54,86	62,18	50,96
2012	38,69	47,22	42,48
2013	59,86	59,09	65,42
Average	51,14	56,16	52,95
VC	21,6	14,1	21,9
LSD 0,05	10,53		
0,01	17,47		

A high variation coefficient was found in the control and treatment of T2, ranging from 14.1 to 21.9%. The analysis of variance and LSD test did not affect any level of probability between control and treatment, as well as between treatments themselves.

Based on the average values for the content of vitamin C in cauliflower, according to the three-year average, we can conclude that most vitamin C contains cauliflower inflorescences in T-1, and the least contains control. The amount of vitamin C obtained is within the limits of scientifically proven values for the presence of this vitamin in cauliflower inflorescences.

According to research by Khuranai et al. (2009), on the effect of cauliflower seedling inoculation with biofertilizers on vitamin C content, found that it has an effect and the content of this vitamin has improved. The application of *Azospirillum* and *Azotobacter* in combination with the recommended doses of mineral fertilizers, resulted in a significant improvement in the content of vitamin C, with a content of 87.57 and 87.20 mg / 100 g.

According to the data provided by Červenski and Gvozdenovići (2007), broccoli contains the highest amount of vitamin C of all cabbage crops, the content of vitamin C according to them is 89.2 mg / 100 g, while according to Le Čič, the content of vitamin C in broccoli ranges from 83 to 125 mg / 100 g.

Vanderslicei cop. (1990) found that vitamin C content of 96.7 mg / 100 g was fresh in broccoli inflorescences, while thermally processed inflorescences contained 39.6 mg / 100 g.

The data obtained, shown in Table 5, indicate that in our studies the content of vitamin C ranged from 30.98 mg / 100 g in T-1, to 48, 21 mg / 100 g in T-2.

Table 5. Content of Vitamin C content in broccoli mg / 100 g

Year	Ø	T-1	T-2
2011	42,86	37,93	42,72
2012	37,71	30,98	39,97
2013	40,43	38,88	48,21
Average	40,33	35,93	43,63*
VC	6,4	12,0	9,6
LSD 0,05	5,05		
0,01	8,38		

The highest varicocle coefficient in the three years of research was determined by the T-1 treatment 12%, and the lowest in the control (6.4%). Analysis of variance and LSD test showed no effect on any level of probability between control and treatment. The only probability of a p < 0.05 level was found between treatment 2 and the highest mean value of 43.63 of vitamin C in

mg / 100 g and T-1 treatment. Three years of research on broccoli has shown that the use of 1% solution of microbial fertilizer Slavolvo quantity applied with a drip system (spaghetti type) every 7 days showed statistically significant differences with the application of microbial fertilizer water 2 foliar fertilizer with solution 2 every 7 days.

Based on the results obtained for the average content of vitamin C, it indicates that the highest content of vitamin C is in T-2 or 43.63 mg / 100 g, while the lowest of 35.93 mg / 100 g is in T-1.

Conclusion

Based on the research, we can conclude that the average content of Vitamin C in the three years of cauliflower testing has the highest value in T-1 in the treatment where microbial fertilizer is applied foliarly, while in cauliflower T-2 in the treatment where microbial fertilizer is applied with drip system.

From what we have learned, we can conclude that the content of Vitamin C in cauliflower and broccoli not only affects the application of microbial fertilizers, but also the method of application of fertilizers.

Three years of research on broccoli has shown that the use of 1% solution of microbial fertilizer Slavol in an amount applied with a drip system (spaghetti type) every 7 days showed statistically significant differences with the application of microbial fertilizer foliar fertilizer with a solution of 2 ml Slavol, 2 l of water every 7 days.

References

Алаџајков Л., (1966), Специјално градинарство, Универзитет во Скопје

Vanderslice J.T, Higgs D.J., Hayes J.M., Block G.(1990). Ascorbic acid and dehydroascorbic acid content of foods – as eaten. J.Food Compost. Anal.3,105-118.

Khurana D.S., Mutheja N., Gangwar M., Kulbir S., (2009), Influence of biofertilizers on growth, yield and quality of late cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea* var. botrytis), Haryana J. hortic. Sci., 38: 147-149

Lee K.S., Kader A.A.,(2000). Preharvest and postharvest factors influencing vitamin C content of horticultural crops. Postharvest Biology and Tehnology 20 (2000). 207-220

LešićR., Borošić J., Buturac I., Ćustić M., Poljak M., Romić D. (2002).Povrčarstvo. Čakovec
Červenski J., Gvozdrenović Đ., (2007), Karfiol i brokola, Beograd

Worthington, V. (2001). Nutritional quality of organic versus conventional fruits, vegetables and grains. The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine 7(2): 161 – 173



EUROPEAN
&
BALKAN
PERSPECTIVES