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RELATIONS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND SCIENTIFIC FIELDS

Željka Bojanić ¹

Abstract

The aim of the research was to establish a relationship between job satisfaction of scientific workers and scientific fields at the University of Novi Sad.

A method of variance analysis was used in order to obtain the difference in the attitudes of scientific workers concerning the job satisfaction in relation to the scientific field (social, natural sciences and mathematics, technical and technological, medical, and humanities).

The starting point of the research was a hypothesis that there were significant correlations between job satisfaction of scientific workers and scientific fields.

The sample consisted of 400 respondents, i.e. scientific workers from the University of Novi Sad, who filled in the on-line questionnaire based on the theoretical concepts of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation, in order to carry out the research related to the examination of the scientific workers' attitudes toward job satisfaction. When observing the scientific fields and job satisfaction of the scientific workers in the relation thereto, the obtained results indicate that there were differences in the expression of job satisfaction of the scientific workers in relation to the scientific field.

The differences found among the groups suggested that there were differences in salaries and benefits. Scientific workers in the field of humanities, social sciences and medicine, expressed a high level of dissatisfaction in terms of remuneration, in relation to two components: a financial rewarding (a salary), and rewarding with the social status (progress, advancement, recognition). Also, these groups of scientific workers were not satisfied with the established communication with their colleagues at other universities and state institutions in the field of education and science. Scientific workers in the field of sciences and mathematics, and technical and technological fields, expressed a higher level of job satisfaction on these aspects of work.

Key words: *job satisfaction, scientific fields, scientific workers, Herzberg's Theory of Motivation.*

JEL classification: J5, J2, J4

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RELACIJE ZADOVOLJSTVA POSLOM I NAUČNIH OBLASTI

Željka Bojanić¹

Sažetak

Cilj istraživanja predstavlja utvrđivanje veze između zadovoljstva poslom naučnih radnika i oblasti naučnog rada na Univerzitetu u Novom Sadu.

Za dobijanje razlika u stavovima naučnih radnika prema zadovoljstvu poslom u odnosu na naučne oblasti (društvene, prirodno matematičke, tehničko-tehnološke, medicinske u humanističke nauke) korišćena je metoda analize varijanse.

U istraživanju se polazi od očekivanja da postoje značajne veze između zadovoljstva poslom naučnih radnika i oblasti naučnog rada.

Na uzorku od 400 ispitanika, koji čine naučni radnici sa Univerziteta u Novom Sadu on lajn Upitnikom koji je baziran na teoretskim konceptima Herzbergove dvofaktorske teorije motivacije, sprovedeno je istraživanje koje se odnosi na ispitivanje stavova naučnih radnika prema zadovoljstvu poslom.

Kada se posmatraju naučne oblasti, i u odnosu na njih zadovoljstvo poslom naučnih radnika, dobijeni rezultati ukazuju da postoje razlike u izražavanju zadovoljstva poslom naučnih radnika u odnosu na oblast naučnog rada.

Pronađene razlike među pojedinim grupama ukazuju da postoje razlike u pogledu plata i beneficija. Naučni radnici iz oblasti društvenih, humanističkih i medicinskih nauka izrazili su visok stepen nezadovoljstva u pogledu nagrađivanja i to u odnosu na dve komponente: nagrađivanje kroz materijalni deo (plata) i nagrađivanje kroz socijalni status (napredak, usavršavanje, priznanje). Takođe, ove grupe naučnih radnika, nisu zadovoljne ostvarenom komunikacijom sa kolegama sa drugih fakulteta i državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke. Naučni radnici iz oblasti prirodno-matematičkih i tehničko-tehnoloških oblasti izrazili su viši stepen zadovoljstva poslom na ovim aspektima posla.

Ključne reči: zadovoljstvo poslom, naučne oblasti, naučni radnici, Herzbergova teorija motivacije

JEL klasifikacija: J5, J2, J4

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INTRODUCTION

A number of scientific papers have confirmed that job satisfaction is one of the most precise indicators of the work motivation. Job motivation is conditioned by a range of correlated factors of variable relevance, depending on a series of objective and subjective conditions. Job satisfaction is generally considered from two standpoints. There are attempts to determine the factors conditioning the satisfaction on the one, along with the consequences the job satisfaction/dissatisfaction has on other attitudes, productivity and various other forms of the work, on the other hand. In the beginning, the studies of factors that lead to job satisfaction implied that there is only one general factor. However, an indisputable fact was verified later on, stating that there are numerous factors influencing the job satisfaction. The factors are interactive and change depending on personal traits of employees, socio-demographic characteristics, jobs performed, work situations, characteristics of the organisation and the level of life satisfaction in general.

MOTIVATION TO WORK

If motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented human behaviour, a person's motivation is one of the most significant factors, able to a great extent, to organise, guide and influence the quality and intensity of employees in the work process. Work motivation is analysed on the basis of employees' satisfaction with particular job aspects, by studying the employees' attitudes towards individually analysed job segments.

In early 20th century, a dominant perception of an economic man referred to the idea that an employee was only motivated to work by earnings. An employee commences employment at a work organisation in order to earn the money he needs to satisfy his other needs, primarily basic, existential needs, such as the need for food, housing, clothing and so on. Satisfaction of other needs is accomplished outside the work organisation, i.e. in the employee's private sphere. Outside the work organisation the employee satisfies various social needs and needs of his ego, experiences love and friendship, demonstrates creativity in sports, arts and his social life. An employee modelled upon the economic man, satisfies, within the work organisation, his existential needs by ensuring earnings, but all his other needs are not satisfied there, as their satisfaction is postponed until the period other than working hours. In this manner the role of work is separated from a work-free life and is placed in the world of necessity, because "he works in one place to live in another one". The rational economic motivation of employees, if not combined with other motivational approaches, cannot be suffi-

UVOD

Veliki broj istraživačkih radova je potvrdio da je zadovoljstvo poslom jedan od najpreciznijih indikatora motivacije za rad. Zadovoljstvo poslom zavisi od niza povezanih faktora čiji je značaj promenljiv, a zavisi od niza objektivnih i subjektivnih uslova. Zadovoljstvo poslom se uglavnom posmatra sa dva aspekta. S jedne strane, nastoji se utvrditi koji faktori uslovljavaju zadovoljstvo, a s druge strane su posledice koje zadovoljstvo-nezadovoljstvo poslom ima na ostale stavove, produktivnost i razne druge oblike radnog ponašanja. U početku su istraživanja uzročnih faktora zadovoljstva poslom podrazumevala postojanje samo jednog opšteg faktora, ali kasnije se potvrdila nesporna činjenica da postoje mnogobrojni faktori koji utiču na zadovoljstvo poslom. Faktori deluju interaktivno i menjaju se zavisno od osobina ličnosti zaposlenih, socio - demografskih karakteristika, posla koji obavljaju, radne situacije, karakteristika organizacije i nivoa zadovoljstva životom uopšte.

MOTIVACIJA ZA RAD

Ako motivaciju definišemo kao proces pokretanja, usmeravanja i održavanja ljudskog ponašanja ka određenom cilju, onda je čovekova motivacija jedan od najznačajnijih faktora koji u velikoj meri može da organizuje, usmerava, utiče na kvalitet i intenzitet zaposlenih u radnom procesu. Motivacija za rad se posmatra kroz zadovoljstvo radnika pojedinim aspektima posla i to kroz stavove zaposlenih prema pojedinačno ispitivanim segmentima posla.

Početak prošlog veka, dominantno shvatanje o ekonomskom čoveku, odnosilo se na to da je radnik za obavljanje posla bio motivisan isključivo zaradom. Zaposleni čovek dolazi u radnu organizaciju da bi zaradio novac koji mu je potreban za zadovoljenje njegovih drugih potreba, najpre osnovnih, egzistencijalnih potreba. Potreba za hranom, stanovanjem, odevanje i slično. Zadovoljenje ostalih potreba ostvaruje se u van organizacijskom prostoru, dakle u radnikovoj privatnoj sferi. Van radne organizacije zaposleni čovek zadovoljava razne svoje socijalne i ego potrebe, doživljava ljubav i prijateljstvo, ispoljava kreativnost u sportu, umetnosti ili u svom društvenom životu. Radnik po modelu ekonomskog čoveka, u radnoj organizaciji zadovoljava svoje egzistencijalne potrebe obezbeđivanjem prihoda, ali tamo ne zadovoljava svoje ostale potrebe, odlaže njihovo zadovoljenje za period van radnog vremena. Na taj način se uloga rada odvaja od slobodnog života i smešta u svet nužnosti, jer on "radi na jednom mestu da bi živeo na drugom

cient² because, if it only stimulates the employees to come to work and carry out the tasks assigned by their superior, it may lead to working without enthusiasm and interest, resulting in the employees that are neither satisfied, nor efficient³

Previous studies have indicated that motivation and job satisfaction depend on the two sets of factors: general (pertaining to the socio-economic conditions, type of job, working conditions) and individual socio-psychological factors (such as position, social background, employee's qualification, personal traits and value systems determining the employees' behaviour).

In order to obtain answers to issues regarding motivation, a great number of theories may be classified into two groups: content theories and process theories.

Content theories of motivation

Content theories discuss the content and types of motives, i.e. all the things that motivate people. These theories are attempting to answer the question: Why do people work? If we had the answer to this question and if we knew what needs and motives drive people to work, we would be able to motivate the employees adequately and therefore stimulate the additional commitment to work. These theories are aimed to define the needs that drive people to behave in a particular way. A typical example of an approach to the problem in the content models of motivational theories may be found in the following quotation by Howell⁴: *"Find out a man's motives and you have made a great step in resolving the issue of different attitudes towards one's job and differences in behaviour. Think of the ways how to satisfy the relevant motives and get a recipe for organisational success"* [6]. Content theories of motivation include: Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's ERG model and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Process theories of motivation

Process theories contemplate the motivation process, i.e. how people get motivated. Process theories provide the answer to the question: How do people decide to work? They discover the process in which people get motivated to undertake certain activities. Process theories include the following: the Adams' equity theory or equality in social exchange, Vroom's expectancy theory and Porter-Lowler model of motivation.

2 (Steers, R.M. & Porter, L.W.: *Motivation and workbehavior*, Mc Graw-Hill, New York)

3 (Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L., 1966: *The social psychology of organizations*, Wiley, New York).

4 Howell's quotation has been translated from the Serbian language for the purposes of this paper.

mestu". Racionalno-ekonomsko motivisanje radnika, ako nije kombinovano sa drugim motivacionim pristupima, ne može biti dovoljno² (Steers, R.M. & Porter, L.W.), jer ako samo pokreće zaposlene da dolaze na posao i obavljaju zadatke koje dobijaju od svojih šefova, može se desiti da rade bez volje i zainteresovanosti, pa nisu ni zadovoljni, a nisu ni efikasni³ (Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L., 1966).

Dosadašnja istraživanja su ukazala da motivacija i zadovoljstvo poslom zavise od dve grupe faktora: opštih (koji se odnose na društveno ekonomsku klimu, vrstu posla, uslove rada) i pojedinačne socio-psihološke činioce (kao što su položaj, socijalno poreklo, obrazovanje radnika, osobine ličnosti i sistemi vrednosti koji određuju ponašanje zaposlenih).

U cilju dobijanja odgovora na pitanja motivacije, mnogobrojne teorije se svrstavaju u dve grupe: teorije sadržaja i teorije procesa.

Teorije sadržaja motivacije

Sadržajne teorije govore o sadržajima i vrstama motiva, tj. o tome šta sve motiviše čoveka. Ove teorije pokušavaju da daju odgovor na pitanje: zašto ljudi rade? Kada bismo znali odgovor na ovo pitanje i kada bismo znali koje su to potrebe i motivi koji pokreću ljude na rad, mogli bismo na adekvatan način motivisati zaposlene i na taj način ih podstaći na dodatno zalaganje na poslu. Ove teorije imaju za cilj da otkriju potrebe koje pokreću ljude da se ponašaju na određeni način. Kao tipičan primer pristupa problemu kod sadržajnih modela teorija motivacije može da posluži citat Hovela: "Otkrij koji su čovekovi motivi, i učinio si veliki korak prema rešavanju pitanja razlika u stavu prema poslu i razlika u ponašanju. Izmisli načine da zadovoljiš relevantne motive, i evo ti recepta za organizacijski uspeh"⁴. Teorije sadržaja motivacije su: Maslovljeva teorija hijerarhije potreba, Alderferov ERG-model i Hertzbergova dvofaktorska teorija.

Teorije procesa motivacije

Procesne teorije se bave procesom motivacije, tj. time kako se čovek motiviše. Procesne teorije daju odgovor na pitanje: kako ljudi donose odluke da rade? Otkrivaju proces putem kojeg se ljudi motivišu na preduzimanje određene aktivnosti. Procesne teorije su: Adamsova teorija pravednosti ili jednakosti u socijalnoj razmeni, Vrumova teorija očekivanja, i Porter-Lawler-ov model motivacije.

2 (Steers, R.M. & Porter, L.W.: *Motivation and workbehavior*, Mc Graw-Hill, New York)

3 (Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L., 1966: *The social psychology of organizations*, Wiley, New York).

4 (Howell, W.C., 1976: *Essentials of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*)

MOTIVATION – HYGIENE APPROACH TO MOTIVATION (THEORY BY F. HERZBERG)

In the list of books studying the job satisfaction, the most common starting point is the theory by F. Herzberg. Regardless of the fact that Herzberg established his theory in the late 50's of the previous century, when the positions on organisation management were much more different from the present day positions, a number of subsequent studies has been based on the fundamental principles of Herzberg's theory.

Until the emergence of Herzberg's theory, it was assumed that identical factors influence both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The novelty introduced by Herzberg in the theory of work motivation includes the perception that job satisfaction is a continuum influenced by one set of factors, while job dissatisfaction is another continuum influenced by another set of factors. The Herzberg's⁵ two-factor theory is based on the separation of factors of the intrinsic (inner) from factors of the extrinsic (outer) motivation. The survey which formulated this theory was carried out by studying 200 engineers and economists from nine companies, in an industrial environment, i.e. it involved the respondents from among experts. In the survey, the respondents "were required to specify the situations in which, in the course of their employment, they felt very well or very bad. The analysis of the content of 500 answers to that question indicated that the factors listed in these answers could be divided into a number of categories, but those listed for pleasant feelings differed from the factors associated with unpleasant feeling".

According to this theory, the intrinsic factors causing satisfaction are associated with the job content (job, recognition, advancement) and they satisfy the individuals' need to prove themselves (need for accomplishments, recognition, responsibilities, personal fulfillment through the job nature itself and need for personal development and advancement, for self-actualisation). They are able to motivate people to work, have motivating needs and are referred to as motivators or job content factors. These needs get satisfied only if a person holds a stimulating and challenging job position, engaging the person in an adequate manner. The absence of motivators still does not lead to dissatisfaction, only to the absence of satisfaction. Dissatisfaction is caused by another set of factors that do not arise from the very nature of work, but from characteristics of the environment in which the work is carried out, mainly referring to the physical conditions of the working environment, social conditions of the working environment (the management and administration system, interpersonal relations), safety at work, salary

⁵ Herzberg, F., 1968: *Work and Nature of Man*, New York, Crowel)

HERZBERGOVA DVOFAKTORSKA TEORIJA MOTIVACIJE

U literaturi u kojoj se izučava zadovoljstvo poslom, najčešće se polazi od teorije F. Herzberg-a. Bez obzira što je Herzberg svoju teoriju uspostavio kasnih 50-tih godina prošlog veka, kada su stavovi o upravljanju organizacijom bili značajno drugačiji od današnjih stavova, mnoga kasnija istraživanja počivaju na osnovim postulatima Herzbergove teorije.

Do pojave Herzbergove teorije smatralo se da isti faktori utiču i na zadovoljstvo i na nezadovoljstvo poslom. Novina koju je Herzberg uneo u teoriju motivacije za rad sastoji se u shvatanju da je zadovoljstvo poslom jedan kontinuum i na njega utiče jedna grupa faktora, dok je nezadovoljstvo drugi kontinuum i na njega utiče druga grupa faktora. Herzbergova ⁵ dvofaktorska teorija zasniva se na odvajanju faktora intrinzične (unutrašnje) i faktora ekstrinzične (spoljašnje) motivacije. Istraživanje kojim je uobličena ova teorija, sprovedeno je ispitivanjem 200 inženjera i ekonomista iz 9 preduzeća, u industrijskom ambijentu, na ispitanicima iz kategorije stručnjaka. U istraživanju od ispitanika su "tražili da navedu one situacije u kojima su se u toku svog radnog staža u vezi sa poslom osećali vrlo dobro, ili vrlo loše. Analiza sadržaja 5000 odgovora na to pitanje pokazala je da se u odgovorima navedeni faktori mogu podeliti u mnogo kategorija, ali da su oni različiti za prijatno osećanje od onih za neprijatno osećanje".

Prema ovoj teoriji, intrinzični faktori koji izazivaju zadovoljstvo odnose se na sadržaj posla (posao, priznanje, napredovanje) i oni zadovoljavaju potrebe pojedinca za sopstvenim dokazivanjem (potreba za dostignućima, priznanjima, odgovornostima, ispunjenjem ličnosti kroz prirodu samog rada i za ličnim razvojem i napredovanjem, za samoaktualizacijom). Oni mogu da motivišu na rad, imaju motivatorske potrebe i nazivaju se motivatori ili faktori sadržaja posla. Ove potrebe bivaju zadovoljene tek ako čovek radi na podsticajnom i izazovnom poslu koji ga na pravi način angažuje. Odsustvo motivatora još uvek ne izaziva nezadovoljstvo, već samo odsustvo zadovoljstva. Nezadovoljstvo zavisi od druge grupe faktora koje ne izvire iz prirode samog rada, već iz karakteristika sredine u kojoj se rad odvija, koji se uglavnom odnosi na fizičke uslove radne sredine, društvene uslove radne sredine (sistem upravljanja i rukovođenja, međuljudski odnosi), bezbednost na poslu, distribucija plata, poslovna politika i status u poslu. Ovi faktori se nazivaju kontekstualni faktori (faktori okruženja) ili higijenski jer deluju kao preventiva, sprečavaju nezadovoljstvo, ali nisu dovoljni da izazovu zadovoljstvo.

⁵ Herzberg, F., 1968: *Work and Nature of Man*, New York, Crowell

distribution, business policy and workplace status. These factors are called contextual factors (environmental factors) or hygiene factors, since they have preventive effect; they prevent dissatisfaction, but are not sufficient to cause satisfaction.

Table 1: Factors influencing motivation (F. Herzberg):

External factors (hygiene)	Internal factors (motivators)
Working conditions	Job purpose and content
Company's business policy	Achievement and success
Salary	Possibility of improvement and self-actualisation
Benefits	Advancement possibility
Management	Responsibility towards work
Interpersonal relations	Recognition

When studying the influence of these two sets of factors on job satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction, Herzberg concludes that the character of motivational quality of these two sets of factors is essentially different. This means that they represent two completely different sets of factors, one of which causes satisfaction, while the other one leads to dissatisfaction. The positive motivation and increased productivity may only be influenced by the first set of factors, whereas the control of the other set of factors may eliminate or reduce dissatisfaction, but not also increase satisfaction.⁶ Motivators lead to satisfaction and motivate persons to commit, while the hygiene factors only protect against dissatisfaction and do not lead to motivation. Results of subsequent studies have not verified such a clear distinction between motivators and hygiene factors, as demonstrated by the results of studies carried out by Herzberg and his associates.⁷ However, the lasting value of this model is in that it enables us to distinguish the motivational influence of the job content from the influence of the job context, or in other words, to distinguish intrinsic from extrinsic factors of motivation.

T. Watson⁸ criticised the motivation-hygiene theory, believing that Herzberg completely ignored the employees' participation in management, as one of significant factors of motivation, which, according to Watson, should be classified in the first set of factors, according to Herzberg's classification.

In 1966, Herzberg supplemented his theory with assumptions on the effects of the employees' inclusion in the decision making process on moti-

6 (Herzberg, F., Mausner, B. & Snyderman, B. B., 1959: *The motivation to work*, New York, Wiley)

7 Locke & Henne, 1986: *Work motivation theories*, International review of industrial and organizational psychology

8 (Watson, T. J., 1980: *Sociology, Work and industry*, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London)

Tabela br.1: Faktori koji utiču na motivaciju (F.Herzberg):

Spoljašni faktori (higijenski)	Unutrašnji faktori (motivatori)
Uslovi rada	Smisao i sadržaj posla
Poslovna politika kompanije	Postignuće i uspeh
Plata	Mogućnost rasta i samoaktualizacije
Beneficije	Mogućnost napredovanja
Rukovođenje	Odgovornost prema radu
Međuljudski odnosi	Priznanje

Kada se proučava uticaj ove dve grupe faktora na zadovoljstvo, odnosno nezadovoljstvo poslom, Herzberg zaključuje da je priroda motivacionih kvaliteta dve grupe faktora u suštini različita. To znači da se radi o dve potpuno različite grupe faktora, od kojih jedna izaziva zadovoljstvo, a druga grupa nezadovoljstvo. Na pozitivnu motivaciju i povećanje produktivnosti može da utiče samo prva grupa faktora, dok regulacijom druge grupe faktora može se eliminisati ili smanjiti nezadovoljstvo, ali se ne može povećati zadovoljstvo ⁶. Motivatori dovode do zadovoljstva i motivišu na zalaganje, dok higijenski faktori samo štite od nezadovoljstva ali ne motivišu. Rezultati kasnijih istraživanja nisu potvrdili tako jasno razgraničenje motivatora i higijenskih faktora kako što su pokazali rezultati istraživanja u radu Herzberga i saradnika ⁷. Međutim, trajna vrednost ovog modela je u tome što nas upućuje na razlikovanje motivacionog uticaja sadržaja posla od uticaja konteksta posla, ili drugim rečima na razlikovanje intrinzičnih od ekstrinzičnih činilaca motivacije.

T. Votson⁸ je kritikovao motivaciono-higijensku teoriju, smatrajući da je Herzberg potpuno zanemario participaciju zaposlenih u upravljanju kao jedan od važnih faktora motivacije, koji su u Herzbergovoj podeli, a prema Votsonu, spadali su u prvu grupu faktora

Herzberg je 1966. godine svoju teoriju dopunio pretpostavkama o uticaju uključivanja zaposlenih u proces odlučivanja na motivaciju. Međutim, ta dopuna se nije bazirala na konkretnim empirijskim istraživanjima, pa samim tim, i nije bila dovoljno ubedljiva.

Herzbergova teorija nije ni potvrđena ni odbačena. Brojna istraživanja koja su koristila istu metodologiju (metodologiju kritičnog događaja), dobila su slične rezultate. Međutim, istraživanja u kojima je primenjena drugačija metodologija, nisu dobila iste ili slične rezultate Herzbergovim. Primer, kada se od ljudi traži da opišu prijatne događaje, to na njih deluje sugestivno

6 (Hertzberg, F., Mausner, B. & Snyderman, B. B., 1959: The motivation to work, New York, Wiley)

7 Locke & Henne, 1986: Work motivation theories, International review of industrial and organizational psychology)

8 (Watson, T. J., 1980: Sociology, Work and industry, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London)

vation. However, that supplement was not based on concrete empirical research, and was, therefore, not sufficiently convincing.

Herzberg's theory has neither been verified nor rejected. Numerous studies that applied the same methodology (the critical incident methodology) had similar results. However, the studies in which different methodology was used did not have the same results or the ones similar to Herzberg's. For instance, when people are required to describe pleasant events, it has a connotative effect on them, so they are trying to describe in the most positive way. The same respondents behaved the opposite way when describing some unpleasant incidents. Based on that, the main objection to Herzberg's theory is the subjectivity of the obtained results. A positive side of this theory is the fact that, in addition to strictly psychological factors, Herzberg pointed to the relevance of more extensive physical and social conditions of the working environment as factors of work motivation.

RESEARCH

The Research Objective

The research objective was to establish relations of job satisfaction of the scientific workers at the University of Novi Sad and the scientific fields.

Sample of respondents

The sample of respondents included the scientists employed at the University of Novi Sad, who entered all the data on their previous scientific results and personal and professional information in the scientific records, compiled in the electronic form in the database of the Provincial Secretariat for Science and Technological Development. The overall sample involved 400 respondents, 213 of whom were male and 184 female respondents.

Regarding the structure of the scientific fields, this research used the classification of the National Council for Higher Education, which divided the scientific fields into five groups: social, humanities, technical and technological, medical, sciences and mathematics. 60 respondents answered in the field of social sciences, 25 respondents answered in the field of humanities, 194 respondents answered in the field of technical and technological sciences, 54 of them answered in the field of medical science, and 67 respondents answered in the field of the sciences and mathematics.

tako da se trude da ih opišu što pozitivnije. Isti ispitanici su se obrnuto ponašali u opisivanju neprijatnih događaja. Na osnovu ovoga, osnovna primedba Herzbergovoj teoriji jeste subjektivnost dobijenih rezultata. Pozitivna strana ove teorije je što je Herzberg, pored čisto psiholoških faktora, ukazao i na značaj širih- fizičkih i društvenih uslova radne sredine kao faktora radne motivacije.

ISTRAŽIVANJE

Problem istraživanja

Problem istraživanja je utvrđivanje relacija zadovoljstva poslom naučnih radnika na Univerzitetu u Novom Sadu i naučnih oblasti.

Uzorak ispitanika

Uzorak ispitanika činili su naučni radnici Univerziteta u Novom Sadu, koji su svoje podatke o dosadašnjem naučnom učinku, kao i biografske podatke imali zabeležene u naučnim kartonima koji su sakupljeni u Pokrajinskom sekretarijatu za nauku i tehnološki razvoj, u bazi podataka u elektronskoj formi. Ukupan uzorak obuhvatao je 400 ispitanika.

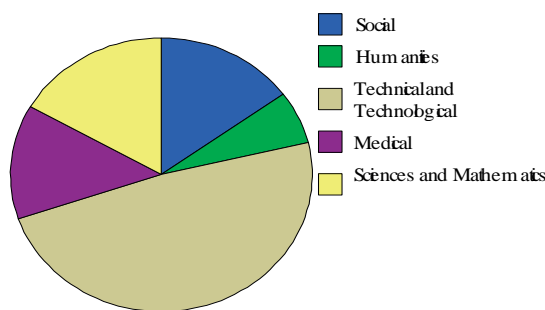
U pogledu strukture prema naučnim oblastima, u ovom istraživanju korišćena je klasifikacija Nacionalnog saveta za visoko obrazovanje u kojoj su naučne oblasti podeljene u pet grupa: društvene, humanističke, tehničko-tehnološke, medicinske i prirodno-matematičke. Iz oblasti društvenih nauka, 60 ispitanika je dalo odgovore, iz humanističkih nauka 25 ispitanika, iz tehničko-tehnoloških nauka 194 ispitanika, iz medicinskih nauka 54 ispitanika i iz prirodno-matematičkih nauka 67 ispitanika.

Tabela br.2: Prikaz zastupljenosti naučnih oblasti

	Naučne oblasti	Broj	Procenat	Validan Procenat	Kumulativan Procenat
Validan	Društvene	60	15.0	15.0	15.0
	humanističke	25	6.3	6.3	21.3
	tehničko-tehnološke	194	48.5	48.5	69.8
	medicinske	54	13.5	13.5	83.3
	prirodno-matematičke	67	16.8	16.8	100.0
	Ukupno	400	100.0	100.0	

Table no. 2: Review of the scientific field representation

Scientific fields		Number	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Social	60	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Humanities	25	6.3	6.3	21.3
	Technical and Technological	194	48.5	48.5	69.8
	Medical	54	13.5	13.5	83.3
	Science and Mathematics	67	16.8	16.8	100.0
	Total	400	100.0	100.0	

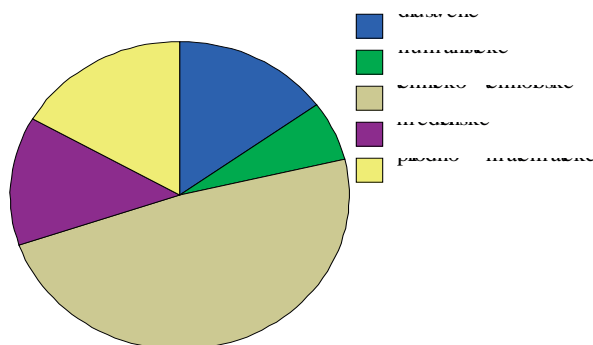


Instruments

A questionnaire designed by the author Željka Bojanić⁹ was used to measure job satisfaction. It was developed on the basis of theoretic postulates of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene approach to motivation (describing internal and external factors that influence one's job satisfaction). Several factors were selected according to which job satisfaction was measured. These included the following:

- internal (advancement, recognition, achievement and success, responsibility towards work and self-actualisation) and external (money, amount of salary, benefits, business policy, working conditions and interpersonal relations);
- willingness to accept changes (changes conditioned by the Bologna Declaration);
- evaluation and self-evaluation;
- organisational aspects of the University;
- business communication and exchange of information among scientists at the University of Novi Sad, as well as the exchange of information with

⁹ Bojanić, Ž., 2007: Subjektivni aspekti procene ljudskog kapitala na visokoobrazovnim institucijama, (Subjective aspects of estimation of human resources at high education institutions-doctoral thesis) Doktorska disertacija, Fakultet tehničkih nauka, Novi Sad



Slika br.1: Zastupljenost naučnih oblasti

Instrumenti

Za merenje zadovoljstva poslom korišćen je upitnik autora Željke Bojanić⁹ koji je konstruisan na osnovu teorijskih postavki Herzbergovog motivacijsko-higijenskog pristupa motivaciji (koji govori o unutrašnjim i spoljašnjim faktorima koji utiču na zadovoljstvo poslom). Odabrano je nekoliko faktora pomoću kojih je mereno zadovoljstvo poslom. To su sledeći faktori: unutrašnji (napredovanje, priznanje, postignuće i uspeh, odgovornost prema radu i samoaktualizacija) i spoljašnji (novac, visina plate, beneficije, poslovna politika, uslovi rada i međuljudski odnosi); spremnost na prihvatanje promena (promene uslovljene Bolonjskom deklaracijom); evaluacija i samoevaluacija; organizacijski aspekti Univerziteta; poslovna komunikacija i razmena informacija između samih naučnih radnika unutar Univerziteta u Novom Sadu, kao i razmena informacija sa drugim univerzitetima u zemlji i inostranstvu i drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke.

Ispitanici su odgovarali na pitanja iz upitnika na osnovu instrukcija navedenih na početku upitnika, tako što su birali jednu od ponuđenih pet alternativa duž sumacione skale stavova, skale Likertovog tipa, koja sadrži tvrdnje na koje ispitanici dajući odgovore izražavaju stepen saglasnosti, odnosno, nesaglasnosti. (Od 1 koje označava potpunu nesaglasnost sa sadržinom tvrdnje, do 5, koje označava potpunu saglasnost sa sadržinom tvrdnje.

Upitnik koji meri stavove naučnih radnika prema zadovoljstvu poslom distribuiran je elektronskom poštom. Upitnik je imao formu Web aplikacije, što je doprinelo da su se u kratkom vremenskom roku dobili odgovori na postavljena pitanja. Nakon popunjavanja upitnika izvršeno je automatsko ažuriranje baze podataka.

⁹ Bojanić, Ž., 2007: Subjektivni aspekti procene ljudskog kapitala na visokoobrazovnim institucijama, Doktorska disertacija, Fakultet tehničkih nauka, Novi Sad

other universities at the national and international level and other state institutions in the domain of education and science.

The respondents responded to questions from the questionnaire according to the instructions provided at the beginning of the questionnaire, by choosing one of the five alternatives provided along the summarised attitude scale. It is a Likert type of scale, which contains statements for which the respondents, by giving answers, express their degree of agreement and/or disagreement (starting from 1 which denotes a complete disagreement with the content of the statement, to 5, denoting a full agreement with the content of the statement).

The questionnaire that measures attitudes of scientists regarding their job satisfaction was distributed via electronic mail. It was presented in the form of a Web application, which contributed to the efficiency of responding, and answers were provided in a short period of time. Automatic update of database was carried out after completing the questionnaire.

Research Hypothesis

According to the research objective, the hypothesis was formulated as follows: "There is a difference in the expression of job satisfaction in scientific workers in relation to the scientific fields."

RESULTS

Applying the method of variance analysis with respect to the independent variable *the scientific field*, it has been found that there are differences in the attitudes of scientific workers towards job satisfaction. The further analysis presents results based on the respondents' answers to the questionnaire items.

- My job allows me professional advancement.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	4.47	0.043
HUMANITIES	4.20	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	4.38	
MEDICAL	3.94	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	4.18	

When asked "*My job allows me professional advancement*", the interviewed scientific workers in all of examined scientific fields exhibited a relatively high level of satisfaction with the possibility of professional advancement. Slightly lower level of satisfaction was observed only in the scientific workers in the field of medical sciences.

Hipoteze istraživanja

U skladu sa problemom istraživanja, formulisana je i hipoteza koja glasi: "Postoji razlika u izražavanju zadovoljstva poslom naučnih radnika u odnosu na naučne oblasti".

REZULTATI

Primenom metode analize varijanse u odnosu na nezavisnu varijablu – naučne oblasti, došlo se do rezultata koji ukazuju da postoje sledeće razlike u stavovima naučnih radnika prema zadovoljstvu poslom.

U daljoj analizi biće predstavljeni rezultati na osnovu odgovora ispitanika na pitanja iz upitnika.

-Posao mi omogućava stručno napredovanje

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	4.47	0.043
HUMANISTIČKE	4.20	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	4.38	
MEDICINSKE	3.94	
PRIR- MATEMATIČKE	4.18	

Na pitanje „*Posao mi omogućava stručno napredovanje*“, ispitanici naučni radnici iz svih ispitanih oblasti nauke ispoljili su relativno visok stepen zadovoljstva mogućnošću stručnog napredovanja. Nešto niži stepen zadovoljstva zapažen je jedino kod naučnih radnika iz oblasti medicinskih nauka.

-Smatram da sam adekvatno nagrađen za posao koji obavljam

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	3.35	0.000
HUMANISTIČKE	2.64	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.07	
MEDICINSKE	2.37	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	2.37	

Na pitanje „*Smatram da sam adekvatno nagrađen za posao koji obavljam*“, naučni radnici iz oblasti medicinskih nauka izrazili su najniži nivo zadovoljstva u odnosu na naučne radnike iz ostalih naučnih oblasti. Zatim slede naučni radnici iz oblasti humanističkih i prirodnih nauka. Naučni radnici iz oblasti društvenih nauka, izrazili su nešto viši stepen zadovoljstva.

- I think I am adequately rewarded for the work I do.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.35	0.000
HUMANITIES	2.64	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.07	
MEDICAL	2.37	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.37	

When asked “*I think I am adequately rewarded for the work I do*”, the scientific workers in the field of medical sciences exhibited the lowest level of satisfaction in comparison to the scientific workers in the other scientific fields. They were followed by the scientific workers in the field of humanities and natural sciences. The scientific workers in the field of social sciences expressed a higher level of satisfaction.

- When I do a good job, I get proper recognition.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.35	0.000
HUMANITIES	2.64	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.07	
MEDICAL	2.37	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.37	

When asked “*When I do a good job, I get proper recognition*”, there was noticed even lower level of satisfaction of the scientific workers. In this regard, the dissatisfaction is the most expressed in the scientific workers in the field of medical sciences, then in the humanities, and science and mathematics. The scientific workers in the field of technical-technological sciences expressed a higher level of satisfaction.

- I believe that those who are doing their job well have a better opportunity to be promoted.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	2.70	0.000
HUMANITIES	2.60	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.07	
MEDICAL	2.24	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.61	

-Kada dobro uradim posao, dobijam odgovarajuće priznanje

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	2.70	0.000
HUMANISTIČKE	2.60	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.07	
MEDICINSKE	2.24	
PRIR- MATEMATIČKE	2.61	

Na pitanje „Kada dobro uradim posao, dobijam odgovarajuće priznanje“, uočava se još niži stepen zadovoljstva naučnih radnika. I u ovom pogledu je nezadovoljstvo najizrazitije kod naučnih radnika iz oblasti medicinskih nauka, a potom iz humanističkih i prirodno-matematičkih. Naučni radnici iz oblasti tehničko-tehnoloških nauka, izrazili su nešto viši stepen zadovoljstva.

-Smatram da oni koji dobro rade svoj posao imaju bolju mogućnost da budu promovisani

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	3.10	0.002
HUMANISTIČKE	2.60	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.35	
MEDICINSKE	2.67	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	3.06	

Na pitanje „Smatram da oni koji dobro rade svoj posao imaju bolju mogućnost da budu promovisani“, dobijeni su odgovori u kojima se zadovoljstvo kreće od srednje do relativno niskog. Najniži stepen zadovoljstva je kod ispitanih naučnih radnika iz oblasti humanističkih i medicinskih nauka. Kod naučnih radnika iz oblasti humanističkih nauka nizak stepen zadovoljstva bio je očekivan, s obzirom na tradicionalno društveno vrednovanje ove grupe intelektualnih radnika, dok je kod medicinskih radnika nizak stepen zadovoljstva rezultat razlike između samopercepcije visokog statusa vlastite profesije i realnih nagrada od strane društva.

-Fakultet mi omogućava da svoje znanje predstavim u inostranstvu

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	3.02	0.001
HUMANISTIČKE	2.52	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.13	
MEDICINSKE	2.41	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	3.36	

When asked “***I believe that those who are doing their job well have a better opportunity to be promoted***”, there were obtained responses in which the level of satisfaction ranges from medium to rather low. The lowest level of satisfaction among the examined scientific workers was in the field of humanities and medical sciences. The scientific workers in the field of humanities were expected to express the low level of satisfaction, due to the traditional social evaluation of this group of intellectual workers, while the low level of satisfaction in the medical workers was a result of differences between the self-perception of a high status of the profession, and a real reward provided by the society.

- *Higher education allows me to present my knowledge abroad.*

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.10	0.002
HUMANITIES	2.60	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.35	
MEDICAL	2.67	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	3.06	

When asked “***Higher education allows me to present my knowledge abroad***”, the lowest satisfaction was expressed in the field of medical sciences and humanities, although it was not high in the other fields as well.

-*I think that the Bologna Declaration enables me to better present my knowledge.*

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.02	0.001
HUMANITIES	2.52	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.13	
MEDICAL	2.41	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	3.36	

When asked “***I think that the Bologna Declaration enables me to better present my knowledge***”, the scientific workers exhibited a medium level of satisfaction. The highest level of satisfaction was expressed by the scientific workers in the field of social and medical sciences. Interestingly, the least satisfied were the scientific workers in the field of technical and technological sciences, and natural sciences and mathematics. This finding is interesting for further research, which would more accurately determine the factors of observed differences.

Na pitanje „*Fakultet mi omogućava da svoje znanje predstavim u inostranstvu*“, najniže zadovoljstvo je u oblasti medicinskih i humanističkih nauka, premda i u drugim oblastima nije visoko.

-Smatram da Bolonjska deklaracija daje mogućnosti da bolje predstavim svoje znanje

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	3.40	0.008
HUMANISTIČKE	3.08	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	2.81	
MEDICINSKE	3.20	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	2.90	

Na pitanje „*Smatram da Bolonjska deklaracija daje mogućnosti da bolje predstavim svoje znanje*“, naučni radnici su izrazili srednji stepen zadovoljstva. Najveće zadovoljstvo pokazali su naučni radnici u oblasti društvenih i medicinskih nauka. Interesantno je da su najmanje zadovoljni naučnici iz oblasti tehničko-tehnoloških i prirodno-matematičkih nauka. Ovaj nalaz je interesantan za dalja istraživanja, u kojima bi bili na precizniji način utvrđeni faktori uočenih razlika.

-Smatram da će mi Bolonjska deklaracija pružiti više mogućnosti za napredovanje

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	2.88	0.031
HUMANISTIČKE	3.04	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	2.73	
MEDICINSKE	3.13	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	2.49	

Kao i u slučaju prethodne varijable, i kod stepena zadovoljstva uticaja Bolonjske deklaracije na povećanje mogućnosti za bolje predstavljanje vlastitog znanja, naučni radnici u oblasti prirodno-matematičkih i tehničko-tehnoloških oblasti su najmanje zadovoljni. U ovom istraživanju nisu prikupljeni podaci kojima bismo objasnili faktore koji su determinisali ispoljeno nezadovoljstvo.

-I believe that the Bologna Declaration will provide more opportunities for my advancement.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.40	0.008
HUMANITIES	3.08	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	2.81	
MEDICAL	3.20	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.90	

As in the case of the previous variable, the scientific workers in the field of natural sciences and mathematics, and technical and technological field, are the least satisfied, concerning the level of satisfaction with the impact of the Bologna Declaration on the increased opportunities for a better representation of their own knowledge. This research did not collect data that would explain the factors which determined manifested dissatisfaction.

-Due to the importance of collecting points, I rather choose the papers that are higher graded instead of those which I would like to be published.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	2.88	0.031
HUMANITIES	3.04	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	2.73	
MEDICAL	3.13	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.49	

When asked "***Due to the importance of collecting points, I rather choose the papers that are higher graded instead of those which I would like to be published***", the scientific workers expressed an medium level of satisfaction. Interestingly, the scientists in the field of humanities exhibited the lowest level of interest in the publication of such papers, unlike the scientists in the field of medical sciences, who expressed the highest level of interest.

-Students are not competent to evaluate my work.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	3.13	0.002
HUMANITIES	2.36	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.31	
MEDICAL	3.50	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	3.48	

-Zbog važnosti skupljanja bodova, odlučujem se za one radove koji su više bodovani a ne za one koje želim.

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	3.13	0.002
HUMANISTIČKE	2.36	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.31	
MEDICINSKE	3.50	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	3.48	

Na pitanje „Zbog važnosti skupljanja bodova, odlučujem se za one radove koji su više bodovani a ne za one koje želim“, naučni radnici ispoljili su srednji stepen zadovoljstva. Interesantno je da su naučnici u oblasti humanističkih nauka ispoljili najniži stepen zainteresovanosti za objavljivanje ovakvih radova, a naučnici iz medicinskih nauka najviši stepen.

-Studenti nisu kompetentni da ocenjuju moj rad

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	2.87	0.013
HUMANISTIČKE	2.60	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	2.51	
MEDICINSKE	3.09	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	2.37	

Na pitanje „Studenti nisu kompetentni da ocenjuju moj rad“, naučni radnici iz svih naučnih oblasti smatraju da studenti nisu kompetentni da ocenjuju njihov rad. Interesantno je da su naučni radnici iz oblasti medicinskih nauka, pokazali nešto veću spremnost za ocenjivanje njihovog rada od strane studenata, a naučni radnici iz prirodno-matematičke oblasti najmanju spremnost.

-Smatram da znanje koje prenosim ima praktičnu vrednost

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	4.42	0.000
HUMANISTIČKE	4.28	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	4.53	
MEDICINSKE	4.50	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	3.94	

Na pitanje „Smatram da znanje koje prenosim ima praktičnu vrednost“, naučni radnici u visokom stepenu procenjuju da znanja koja oni prenose

When asked “***Students are not competent to evaluate my work***”, scientific workers in all the scientific fields considered that students were not competent to evaluate their work. Interestingly, the scientific workers in the field of medical sciences showed a slightly greater readiness for the evaluation of their work by students, unlike the scientific workers in the field of natural sciences and mathematic, who showed the least readiness.

-I believe that the knowledge I convey has a practical value.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	2.87	0.013
HUMANITIES	2.60	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	2.51	
MEDICAL	3.09	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	2.37	

When asked “***I believe that the knowledge I convey has a practical value***”, the scientific workers assessed to a high degree that knowledge which they conveyed had a practical value. The exception was somewhat lower evaluation of this variable in the scientific workers in the field of natural sciences and mathematics.

-I think that the communication among colleagues from different faculties is good.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	4.42	0.000
HUMANITIES	4.28	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	4.53	
MEDICAL	4.50	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	3.94	

When asked “***I think that the communication among colleagues from different faculties is good***”, the scientific workers evaluated the low possibility of communication with colleagues from different faculties. The scientific workers in the field of humanities were particularly dissatisfied in this respect, probably because they still do not have sufficiently developed interdisciplinary teamwork.

imaju praktičnu vrednost. Izuzetak je nešto niže vrednovanje ove varijable kod naučnih radnika iz oblasti prirodno-matematičkih nauka.

-Smatram da je komunikacija među kolegama sa različitih fakulteta dobra

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	2.85	0.000
HUMANISTIČKE	2.00	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.45	
MEDICINSKE	2.98	
PRIR - .MATEMATIČKE	3.31	

Na pitanje „*Smatram da je komunikacija među kolegama sa različitih fakulteta dobra*“, naučni radnici su nisko vrednovali mogućnost komunikacije sa kolegama sa različitih fakulteta. Naročito su u tom pogledu nezadovoljni naučnici iz oblasti humanističkih nauka, verovatno zbog toga što kod njih još uvek nije u dovoljnoj meri razvijen interdisciplinarni timski rad.

-Smatram da je komunikacija naučnih radnika sa drugim državnim institucijama dobra

NAUČNE OBLASTI	Aritmetička sredina (\bar{x})	ANOVA
DRUŠTVENE	2.77	0.000
HUMANISTIČKE	2.24	
TEH.-TEHNOLOŠKE	3.15	
MEDICINSKE	2.48	
PRIR - MATEMATIČKE	3.07	

Na pitanje „*Smatram da je komunikacija naučnih radnika sa drugim državnim institucijama dobra*“, naučni radnici iz svih naučnih oblasti pokazuju nizak stepen zadovoljstva. Najniži stepen zadovoljstva je kod naučnih radnika iz oblasti humanističkih nauka. Komunikacija naučnih radnika sa drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke nije organizovana na način koji olakšava i dinamizuje saradnju, što je iskazano kroz nizak stepen zadovoljstva ispitane grupe naučnih radnika.

ZAKLJUČAK

Analizirajući prethodno izložene rezultate možemo doći do zaključka da postoje razlike u izražavanju zadovoljstva poslom kod naučnih radnika iz različitih naučnih oblasti, na nekim aspektima posla.

Naučni radnici iz oblasti društvenih nauka zadovoljni su u pogledu stručnog napredovanja i socijalnog statusa (usavršavanje, dobijanje priznanja, promovisanost). Međutim, nisu u potpunosti zadovoljni materijalnim na-

-I think that communication of the scientific workers with the other state institutions is good.

SCIENTIFIC FIELDS	Arithmetic mean (\bar{x})	ANOVA
SOCIAL	2.85	0.000
HUMANITIES	2.00	
TECHNICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL	3.45	
MEDICAL	2.98	
SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS	3.31	

When asked "***I think that communication of the scientific workers with the other state institutions is good***", the scientific workers in all the scientific fields exhibited a low level of satisfaction. The scientific workers in the field of humanities had the lowest level of satisfaction in this regard. Communication of the scientific workers with the other state institutions dealing with education was organized in a way which cooperation easier and more dynamic, what was expressed in the low level of satisfaction of the interviewed group of scientific workers.

CONCLUSION

Analyzing the previously presented results, it can be concluded that there are differences in the expression of job satisfaction among the scientific workers in different scientific fields, within some aspects of their work.

The scientific workers in the field of social sciences are satisfied in terms of professional advancement and social status (advanced training, recognition, promotion). However, they are not completely satisfied with material rewards for their work. Also, they are not satisfied with the opportunities provided by the faculty to present their knowledge abroad. They believe that the processes of the Bologna Declaration will help them to present their knowledge in a better way, but they do not expect to have more opportunities for promotion. They think that the knowledge which they convey has a practical value. They find that students are not competent to evaluate their work. Due to the nature of (individual) work, the scientific workers in these fields are not exclusively oriented to the papers that enable the collection of points according to the Bologna Declaration. These scientific workers have demonstrated a low level of satisfaction with the established communication with colleagues from other faculties and other state institutions in the field of education and science.

The scientific workers in the field of humanities have expressed a high level of dissatisfaction both in terms of remuneration and opportunities for obtaining recognition and promotion, and in terms of conditions for presentation of their knowledge. Also, they do not believe that they could be promoted if they do a good job. They assess that the knowledge which they convey to students

gradama za svoj rad. Takođe nisu zadovoljni mogućnostima koje im fakultet pruža da svoje znanje predstave u inostranstvu. Veruju da će im procesi Bolonjske deklaracije pomoći da bolje predstave svoje znanje, ali ne očekuju da će imati više mogućnosti za napredovanje. Ocenjuju da znanje koje prenose studentima ima praktičnu vrednost. Smatraju da studenti nisu kompetentni da ocenjuju njihov rad. Zbog karaktera (individualnog) rada naučni radnici iz ovih oblasti nisu isključivo orjentisani na radove koji omogućuju skupljanje bodova po Bolonjskoj deklaraciji. Ovi naučni radnici su pokazali nizak stepen zadovoljstva ostvarenom komunikacijom sa kolegama sa drugih fakulteta i drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke

Naučni radnici u oblasti humanističkih nauka iskazali su visok stepen nezadovoljstva u pogledu nagrađivanja i dobijanja mogućnosti za priznanja i napredovanja, i u pogledu uslova da svoje znanje predstave. Takođe ne veruju, da ako budu dobro radili svoj posao, mogu biti promovisani. Procenjuju da znanje koje prenose studentima ima praktičnu vrednost. Naučni radnici su nezadovoljni komunikacijom sa kolegama sa drugih fakulteta u zemlji i inostranstvu, naravno i sa drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke. Pokazuju srednji stepen zadovoljstva procesima Bolonjske deklaracije i u njima vide mogućnost za napredovanje i bolje predstavljanje svog znanja. Ne vrednuju visoko kompetentnost studenata da ocenjuju njihov rad.

U ovom istraživanju, naučni radnici iz oblasti tehničko-tehnoloških nauka iskazali su visok stepen zadovoljstva mogućnostima stručnog napredovanja u poslu i smatraju da znanje koje prenose studentima ima praktičnu vrednost, što ukazuje da ovi naučni radnici imaju visok nivo samoaktualizacije ili samoostvarenja. Prihvataju sebe kao jedinstvene ličnosti i usklađuju egzistenciju sa datom realnošću. Otuda proizilazi njihovo relativno zadovoljstvo u pogledu materijalnih nagrada i priznanja za dobro obavljen posao, predstavljanja sopstvenog znanja u inostranstvu, komunikacijom sa kolegama i sa drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke. Ono što se posebno izdvojilo je negativan stav naučnih radnika prema procesima Bolonjske deklaracije. Sumnjaju da će im ovi procesi doprineti da bolje predstave svoje znanje. Nisu spremni da studenti ocenjuju njihov rad, jer smatraju da studenti nisu kompetentni za to.

Naučni radnici iz oblasti medicinskih nauka su iskazali visoko negativne stavove prema zadovoljstvu u poslu u odnosu na naučne radnike iz drugih naučnih oblasti. Ovi naučni radnici su izrazili visoki stepen nezadovoljstva organizacijskom strukturom fakulteta, nisu zadovoljni nagrađivanjem i to u odnosu na dve komponente - nagrađivanje kroz materijalni deo (plata) i nagrađivanje kroz socijalni status (napredak, usavršavanje, priznanje, moć).

has a practical value. The scientific workers are satisfied neither with communication with their colleagues from the other faculties in the country and abroad, nor with the other state institutions in the field of education and science. They express a medium level of satisfaction with the processes of the Bologna Declaration, seeing in them an opportunity for advancement and better presentation of their knowledge. They do not highly value the competence of students to evaluate their work.

In this research, the scientific workers in the field of technical and technological sciences have expressed a high level of satisfaction with the opportunities for professional advancement in their work. They think that the knowledge which they convey to students has a practical value, which indicates that these scientific workers have a high level of self-actualization or self-realization. They accept themselves as unique personalities aligning their existence with the given reality. Hence there arises their relative level of satisfaction with material rewards and recognitions for a well-done job, presentations of their own knowledge abroad, communication with colleagues and other state institutions in the field of education and science. What is particularly noticed as a negative attitude of the scientific workers is an attitude towards the processes of the Bologna Declaration. They suspect that these processes will contribute to a better presentation of their knowledge. They are not ready for students to evaluate their work, because they believe that students are not competent for that.

The scientific workers in the field of medical sciences express highly negative attitudes towards job satisfaction in relation to the scientific workers in other scientific fields. These scientific workers have expressed a high level of dissatisfaction with the organizational structure of the faculty, they are not satisfied with rewarding concerning the two components - rewarding through financing (wages), and rewarding through the social status (progress, advancement, recognition, power). They are not satisfied with their communication with colleagues from the other faculties both in the country and abroad, and they have poor communication with the other state institutions in the field of education and science. They see an opportunity to improve their position, and thus have a higher level of job satisfaction, in the implementation processes of the Bologna Declaration. Due to the importance of counting points, they are ready to opt for the papers that are scored more. They believe that the knowledge which they convey has a practical value, and that the processes of the Bologna Declaration will allow them to better present their knowledge, what will facilitate them to have more opportunities for promotion. They are ready for students to evaluate their work, and they believe that the students are competent to do so.

The scientific workers in the field of sciences and mathematics have expressed a high level of satisfaction with opportunities for professional advancement.

Nisu zadovoljni komunikacijom sa kolegama sa drugih fakulteta kako u zemlji tako i u inostranstvu, i imaju lošu komunikaciju sa drugim državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke. Mogućnost za poboljšanje svog položaja, i time veći stepen zadovoljstva poslom, vide u procesima primene Bolonjske deklaracije. Spremni su da se zbog važnosti skupljanja bodova odlučuju za one radove koji su više bodovani. Veruju da znanje koje prenose ima praktičnu vrednost i da će im procesi Bolonjske deklaracije omogućiti da bolje predstave svoje znanje i da će time imati više mogućnosti za napredovanje. Spremni su da studenti ocenjuju njihov rad i veruju da su studenti kompetentni za to.

Naučni radnici iz oblasti prirodno-matematičkih nauka iskazali su visok stepen zadovoljstva mogućnostima stručnog napredovanja i procenjuju da znanja koja prenose imaju visok stepen praktične primenljivosti. U pogledu mogućnosti koje im fakultet pruža da predstave svoje znanje u inostranstvu, saradnje i komunikacije sa kolegama sa drugih fakulteta, kako u zemlji tako i u inostranstvu, kao i saradnje sa državnim institucijama u okviru obrazovanja i nauke, ispoljili su srednji stepen zadovoljstva. Zajedno sa naučnim radnicima iz oblasti tehničko-tehnoloških nauka, ova grupa naučnih radnika je pokazala najmanji stepen zadovoljstva procesima Bolonjske deklaracije i procenjuju da neće imati veće mogućnosti za napredovanje i predstavljanje svog znanja kroz te procese. Takođe je njihova procena kompetentnosti studenata da ocenjuju njihov rad najniža u poređenju sa naučnim radnicima iz drugih oblasti nauka.

Jedno od objašnjenja za dobijene razlike u stepenu zadovoljstva poslom kod naučnih radnika iz različitih naučnih oblasti na aspektu zadovoljstva platom i beneficijama jeste neravnomerna raspodela sopstvenih sredstava koja se razlikuje od fakulteta do fakulteta. Neki fakulteti imaju mogućnost da ostvare sopstvena sredstva kroz posao sa institucijama izvan univerziteta i mogu samostalno da ih raspoređuju, dok neki drugi fakulteti nemaju tu mogućnost. Ta nejednakost je izvor dugotrajnih tenzija između fakulteta.

They assess that the knowledge which they convey has a high level of practical applicability. In terms of the opportunities offered by the faculty to present their knowledge abroad, cooperate and communicate with colleagues from the other faculties, both in the country and abroad, as well as to cooperate with the state institutions in the field of education and science, they have expressed a medium level of satisfaction. Together with the scientific workers in the field of technical and technological sciences, this group of scientific workers has expressed the lowest level of satisfaction with the processes of the Bologna Declaration, estimating that they would not have more opportunities for promotion and presentation of their knowledge through these processes. Their assessment of the students' competence to evaluate their work was the lowest in comparison to the scientific workers in the other scientific fields.

A justification for the obtained differences in the level of job satisfaction among the scientific workers in different scientific fields, including the aspect of satisfaction with the salary and benefits, is an uneven distribution of their own funds, which varies from faculty to faculty. Some faculties have the opportunity to obtain their own funds by working with institutions outside the university, and distribute them independently, while some other faculties do not have this option. The inequality is a source of long-standing tensions among the faculties.

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THE EUROPEAN UNION'S TRADE DEFENSE INSTRUMENTS¹

Vanja Šušnjar Čanković²

Abstract

According to the World Trade Organization, all its members, including the EU, have the right in some well-defined situations to impose additional duties, or, in some cases, price or quantitative limitations on imported products to prevent damage to their domestic industry. There are three principal trade defense instruments: (1) anti-dumping measures against dumped imports that cause or threaten to cause material injury to the domestic industry, (2) anti-subsidy measures – also known as countervailing duties – against subsidized imports, and (3) safeguard measures against sudden and unforeseen import increases. The official aim of trade defense proceedings is to protect EU producers of competing goods from injury or a threat of injury from imports by temporary protective tariffs on imports. However, the literature suggests that these measures could not only harm European consumers, but also European enterprises. The main objective of this paper is to elaborate on the effectiveness of trade defense instruments addressing unfair practices occurring in international trade. Since the EU trade policy has gone through various stages, some more defensive than others, it will, also, cover a major concern expressed by several authors about the EU's retreat into protectionism in the range of trade-related economic policies.

Key words: protectionism, trade defense, anti-dumping measures, countervailing duties, safeguards

JEL classification: F4, F5

INTRODUCTION

According to the World Trade Organization, all its members, including the EU, have the right in some well-defined situations to impose additional duties, or, in some cases, price or quantitative limitations on imported products to prevent damage to their domestic industry. There are three principal trade defense instruments: (1) anti-dumping measures against dumped

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Sažetak

Sve članice Svjetske trgovinske organizacije, samim tim i Evropska unija, imaju pravo da, u određenim, jasno definisanim situacijama, nametnu dodatne obaveze, ili, u nekim slučajevima, cjenovna i kvantitativna ograničenja, na uvoz proizvoda kako bi spriječile štetu po domaću industriju. Tri osnovna instrumenta trgovinske zaštite su: (1) antidampinške mjere protiv robe uvezene po dampinškim cijenama koje prouzrokuju ili prijete da prouzrokuju materijalnu štetu domaćoj industriji, (2) antisubvencijske, takođe poznate i kao kompenzatorne mjere, protiv subvencionisanog uvoza, i (3) mjere zaštite od iznenadnog i nepredvidivog prekomjernog uvoza. Zvanični cilj primjene zaštitnih mjera u trgovini, privremenim zaštitnim carinama na uvoz, je zaštita proizvođača konkurentne robe iz EU od povrede ili same prijetnje povredom iz uvoza. Ipak, literatura sugeriše da ove mjere mogu naškoditi ne samo evropskim potrošačima, nego i evropskim preduzećima. Glavni zadatak ovog rada je da obradi efikasnost instrumenata zaštite trgovine usmjerene ka nefer praksama koje se dešavaju u međunarodnoj trgovini. Kako je trgovinska politika EU prošla razne faze, neke više zaštitničke od drugih, rad će, takođe, pokriti i pitanje zabrinutosti pojedinih autora o pribjegavanju Evropske unije protekcionizmu u nizu trgovinom povezanih ekonomskih politika.

Ključne riječi: *protekcijonizam, zaštita trgovine, antidampinške mjere, kompenzatorne mjere, mjere zaštite od prekomjernog uvoza*

JEL klasifikacija: F4, F5

UVOD

Sve članice Svjetske trgovinske organizacije, samim tim i Evropska unija, imaju pravo da, u određenim, jasno definisanim situacijama, nametnu dodatne obaveze, ili, u nekim slučajevima, cjenovna i kvantitativna ograničenja, na uvoz proizvoda kako bi spriječile štetu po domaću industriju. Tri osnovna instrumenta trgovinske zaštite su: (1) antidampinške mjere protiv robe

1 Rad dostavljen za Međunarodnu naučnu konferenciju 'Evropska unija – izazovi proširenja i Zapadni Balkan' 29. maj 2014, Banja Luka College

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imports that cause or threaten to cause material injury to the domestic industry, (2) anti-subsidy measures – also known as countervailing duties – against subsidized imports, and (3) safeguard measures against sudden and unforeseen import increases. The official aim of trade defense proceedings is to protect EU producers of competing goods from injury or a threat of injury from imports by temporary protective tariffs on imports. However, the literature suggests that these measures could not only harm European consumers, but also European enterprises.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TRADE FOR THE EUROPEAN UNION'S ECONOMY

The European Union remains the largest economy in the world with a GDP per head of €25,000. The development of trade is an opportunity for economic growth but also the very core of international relations of the European Union. Making 1/5 of world trade (precisely, together, its 28 members account for 19% of world imports and exports), the European Union represents one of the biggest players on the global trading scene as well as the leading force in the World Trade Organization because it has the weight to shape the entire system of international trade. As the world's largest single market with more than 500 million consumers, the EU is itself the biggest export market for more than 80, if not 100 countries³. By comparison, the USA is the top trading partner for a little over 20 countries.

Chart 1. EU-28 as a trading power⁴

15% of world trade in goods in 2012
Largest importer € 1,792 bn in 2012
First exporter € 1,686 bn in 2012
EU-27 received € 241.7 bn in FDI 2011

Furthermore, the EU has a secure legal investment framework that is amongst the most open in the world, so, consequently, it ranks first in both inbound and outbound international investments. Also, although many authors remind us that the European Union does not have a clear, and certainly not a favorable stance towards developing countries, official statistics do not lie when it reveals that the EU is, in fact, the most open to developing countries. Fuels excluded, the EU imports more from developing countries than the USA, Canada, Japan and China put together. When it comes to the

³ Official statistics vary.

⁴ European Commission, *DG Trade Statistical Pocket Guide*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, 2013.

uvezene po dampinškim cijenama koje prouzrokuju ili prijete da prouzrokuju materijalnu štetu domaćoj industriji, (2) antisubvencijske, takođe poznate i kao kompenzatorne mjere, protiv subvencionisanog uvoza, i (3) mjere zaštite od iznenadnog i nepredvidivog prekomjernog uvoza. Zvanični cilj primjene zaštitnih mjera u trgovini, privremenim zaštitnim carinama na uvoz, je zaštita proizvođača konkurentne robe iz EU od povrede ili same prijetnje povredom iz uvoza. Ipak, literatura sugerise da ove mjere mogu naškoditi ne samo evropskim potrošačima, nego i evropskim preduzećima.

ZNAČAJ TRGOVINE ZA EVROPSKU UNIJU

Evropska unija je najveća svjetska privreda sa BDP po glavi stanovnika od 25.000 evra. Razvoj trgovine čini osnovu ekonomskog razvoja, ali i srce međunarodnih odnosa Evropske unije. Čineći 1/5 svjetske trgovine (preciznije, njenih 28 zemalja članica čini 19% svjetskog uvoza i izvoza), Evropska unija predstavlja jednog od najvećih igrača na globalnoj trgovinskoj sceni, ali i vodeću snagu u Svjetskoj trgovinskoj organizaciji, jer ima težinu da oblikuje cjelokupan sistem međunarodne razmjene. Kao najveće svjetsko jedinstveno tržište sa više od 500 miliona potrošača, Evropska unija je ujedno i najveće izvozno tržište za više od 80, ako ne i 100 zemalja³. Poređenja radi, Sjedinjene Američke Države su glavni trgovinski partner sa nešto više od 20 zemalja.

Slika 1. EU-28 kao trgovinska sila⁴

15% svjetske trgovine robom 2012. godine
Najveći uvoznik (1.792 milijardi evra) 2012. godine
Najveći izvoznik (1.686 milijardi evra) 2012. godine
EU-27 primila 241,7 milijardi evra u SDI 2011. godine

Nadalje, EU ima jedan od najotvorenijih investicionih režima u svijetu, te je, samim tim, prva po broju (i ulaznih i izlaznih) međunarodnih ulaganja. Takođe, iako mnogi autori podsjećaju da Evropska unija nema jasan, a pogotovo ne povoljan stav prema zemljama u razvoju, zvanična statistika ne laže kada kaže da je EU, zapravo, najotvorenija za zemlje u razvoju (ne računajući gorivo, EU uvozi više iz zemalja u razvoju nego SAD, Kina, Japan i Kanada zajedno). Kada je u pitanju položaj EU na globalnom tržištu, važno je, još, napomenuti da je Unija najveći svjetski trgovac industrijskim proizvodima i uslugama, da su njena tržišta usluga, takođe, dosta otvorena, te

³ Zvanična statistika se razlikuje.

⁴ European Commission, *DG Trade Statistical Pocket Guide*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, 2013.

EU position in global markets, it is also important to mention that the Union is the world's largest trader of manufactured goods and services, her services markets are highly open and the average applied tariff for goods imported into the EU is very low. As a matter of fact, more than 70% of imports enter the EU at zero or reduced tariffs.

BENEFITS OF TRADE

External trade and investment have played a significant role in boosting EU economic growth for many decades. Once current plans are completed, the prediction is that trade policy will add around €150bn to the EU economy. Gains from trade are great. For example, more trade means more economic growth which can help overcome the economic crisis. Trade means more jobs. More than 36 million jobs in Europe depend, directly or indirectly, on EU ability to trade with the rest of the world. Trade also leads to higher salaries and improved living standards. Increased trade offers a great variety of goods, at lower prices, to consumers. The gains for the average consumer are in the range of €600 per year. Trade allows countries to procure the best products and services for its citizens internationally. This means government and local authorities can spend less public money on the products and services they purchase. Furthermore, trade and investment flows spread new ideas and innovation, new technologies and the best research, leading to improvements in the products and services that people use. Trade brings people together. It develops and secures economic ties between nations and contributes to political stability. Trade in the 1950s was one of the initial drivers which helped create the peaceful Europe we have today. Trade and investment boost competition as well as competitiveness. It allows EU businesses to access inputs at the lowest prices, allowing them to compete within Europe and abroad. Trade agreements can make it easier to do business. For example, encouraging the use of international standards for industrial products reduces the costs of doing business and promotes international trade. At last, trade and trade policy reinforce the EU's international influence.

TRADE DEFENSE INSTRUMENTS

The EU common trade policy depends on a number of internal factors, including the common agricultural policy, customs union, free trade areas, the functioning of the single market, competitiveness and special interests of the EU, but also on various external factors, among which WTO provisions, global competition and special contracts and agreements are standing out. A group of the most important instruments that shape the external

da ima jako niske carinske stope. Naime, više od 70% uvoza odvija se po 0 ili sniženim carinskim stopama.

KORISTI OD TRGOVINE

Spoljna trgovina i investicije već decenijama igraju značajnu ulogu u povećanju privrednog rasta EU. Predviđa se da će po realizaciji aktuelnih planova, trgovinska politika dodati 150 milijardi evra privredi EU. Koristi od trgovine su višestruke. Naime, više trgovine podrazumijeva veći ekonomski rast što može pomoći prevazilaženju ekonomske krize. Trgovina znači i više radnih mjesta. Više od 36 miliona radnih mjesta u Evropi, posredno ili neposredno, zavisi od sposobnosti trgovine EU sa ostatkom svijeta. Trgovina, još, dovodi do većih primanja i poboljšanja životnog standarda. Povećana trgovina unapređuje ponudu potrošačima, po znatno nižim cijenama. Dobici prosječnog potrošača su u rasponu od 600 evra godišnje. Nadalje, trgovina omogućava državama da nabave najbolje svjetske proizvode i usluge za svoje građane, odnosno vlada i lokalne vlasti mogu da troše manje javnih finansija za državnu kupovinu. Trgovinski i investicioni tokovi šire nove ideje i inovacije, nove tehnologije i najbolja istraživanja, što dovodi do poboljšanja kvaliteta proizvoda i usluga koje ljudi koriste. Trgovina zbližava ljude. Ona razvija i obezbijeduje ekonomske veze između naroda i doprinosi političkoj stabilnosti. Trgovina 50-ih je predstavljala jedan od početnih pogona koji je pomogao stvaranje mirne Evrope kakvu imamo danas. Trgovina i investicije pojačavaju konkurenciju, ali i konkurentnost. One omogućavaju evropskim preduzećima pristup sirovinama po najnižim cijenama, pružajući im priliku da se takmiče u Evropi i inostranstvu. Trgovinski sporazumi olakšavaju poslovanje. Na primjer, podsticanje korišćenja međunarodnih standarda za industrijske proizvode smanjuje troškove poslovanja i promoviše međunarodnu trgovinu. Konačno, trgovina i trgovinska politika jačaju međunarodni uticaj Evropske unije.

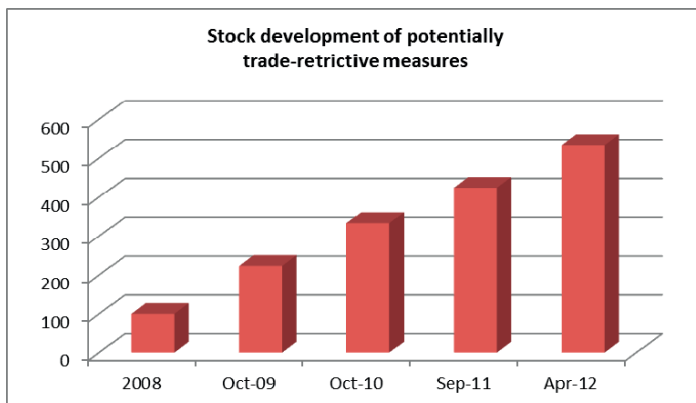
MEHANIZMI ZAŠTITE TRGOVINE

Zajednička spoljnotrgovinska politika Evropske unije zavisi od niza unutrašnjih faktora među kojima su najznačajniji Zajednička poljoprivredna politika, carinske unije, zone slobodne trgovine, funkcionisanje jedinstvenog tržišta, konkurentnost Unije i posebni interesi, ali i od uticaja različitih spoljnih faktora od kojih se ističu odredbe Svjetske trgovinske organizacije, globalna konkurencija, te posebni ugovori i sporazumi. Grupu najznačajnijih instrumenata kojima se oblikuje spoljnotrgovinska politika EU čine oruđa trgovinske politike u koje spadaju carine, dobrovoljno ograničenje izvoza,

trade policy of the EU are the tools of trade policy, which include customs, voluntary export restraints, trade defense mechanisms, rules of origin, technical standards. The second group of instruments consists of trade agreements.

It should be emphasized that trade defense instruments are legally justified if the relevant rules have been respected and should in this case not be considered a protectionist measure as such. Although European countries were among the founding members of the modern international system of trade rules and even though they work on a day to day basis to remove obstacles encountered by exporters, trying to open up new opportunities for European investment and to reduce counterfeiting and piracy of European goods, a number of new trade barriers is still being adopted (stock of potentially trade-restrictive measures adopted since the beginning of the crisis was 534⁵).

Chart 2. Potentially trade-restrictive measures⁶



Anti-dumping

Dumping occurs when manufacturers from a non-EU country sell goods in the EU below the sales prices in their domestic market or below the cost of production. If it is established that this is the case and that exports cause or may cause injury to the industry, temporary tariffs may be imposed. They usually take the form of an ad valorem duty, but could also be specific duties or price undertakings. Measures are generally imposed for 5 years. Exporting producers may offer “undertakings”, i.e. they may agree to sell at a minimum price, which is, in terms of general welfare, a worse solution than import tariffs because there is no collection and payment of budget revenue.

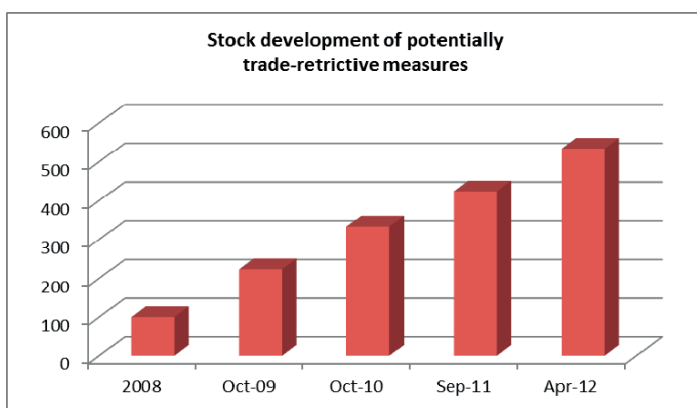
⁵ European Commission, *Ninth Report on Potentially Trade Restrictive Measures, identified in the context of the financial and economic crisis*, September 2011 – May 2012, p. 2.

⁶ Ibidem. Figures based on EU reports on potential trade restrictive measures.

mehanizmi zaštite trgovine, pravila porijekla, tehnički standardi,.. U drugu grupu instrumenata spadaju trgovinski sporazumi.

Treba naglasiti da su instrumenti zaštite trgovine zakonski opravdani ukoliko se ispoštuju relevantna pravila, te se u tom slučaju ne smatraju protekcionističkim mjerama. Iako su evropske zemlje među osnivačima savremenog međunarodnog sistema trgovinskih pravila, te svakodnevno rade na uklanjanju prepreka sa kojima se suočavaju izvoznici, nastojeći da otvore nove mogućnosti za evropska ulaganja, te smanje falsifikovanje i pirateriju evropske robe, mnogobrojne trgovinske barijere i dalje ostaju na snazi, ali se dodaju i nove (od početka krize potencijalno restriktivnih trgovinskih mjera bilo je 534⁵).

Slika 2. Potencijalno restriktivne trgovinske mjere⁶



Antidamping

Damping se javlja kada proizvođači iz zemlje koja nije članica EU prodaju robu na tržištu Evropske unije ispod cijene prodaje na domaćem tržištu ili po cijeni nižoj od troškova proizvodnje. Ukoliko se utvrdi da je došlo do dampinga i da bi takvo stanje moglo da prouzrokuje materijalne štete za evropske proizvođače, mogu se nametnuti privremene carine, ad valorem ili specifične, najčešće za period od 5 godina. U izvjesnim slučajevima vode se pregovori o utvrđivanju minimalnih uvoznih cijena sa trgovinskim partnerima što, s aspekta opšteg blagostanja predstavlja goru soluciju od uvoznih carina jer ne dolazi do prikupljanja i naplate budžetskih prihoda. Carine vezane za damping, poput ostalih carina, direktno pogoduju proizvođačima, ali ne i potrošačima i preduzećima koja kupuju dobra jer poskupljuju proi-

⁵ European Commission, *Ninth Report on Potentially Trade Restrictive Measures, identified in the context of the financial and economic crisis*, September 2011 – May 2012, str. 2.

⁶ Ibidem. Adaptirano prema izvještajima EU o potencijalno restriktivnim trgovinskim mjerama.

es. Anti-dumping tariffs, like other tariffs, are in direct favor of producers, but not consumers and companies that buy goods, because they raise the price of products. Therefore, the imposition of anti-dumping measures should not be against the interest of the EU as a whole.

The most common reason for imposing anti-dumping measures is to counter unfair competition. The purpose of anti-dumping measures was originally similar to the competition law, i.e. to prevent that kind of predatory pricing whereby a company tries to outcompete its competitors with low prices and then, when it has achieved a monopoly in the market, raises prices for user industries and consumers. However, the concept of unfair competition is not mentioned in the EU anti-dumping regulation and, accordingly, never considered or analyzed in any anti-dumping investigation.

Anti-subsidy

It is interesting that the EU defends itself from subsidized products from other countries by imposing countervailing tariffs while it alone intensively uses production and export subsidies to benefit its agricultural production. Financial contributions granted to companies that produce certain types of goods improve “artificially” their competitive position. Anti-subsidy policy bans predatory practices, i.e. subsidizing some products to help them better position on the EU market, at the lower price, and it is designed to protect against subsidized imports. From the point of unemployment in the European Union subsidized products pose a particular problem because they are considered to jeopardize the jobs in some industries. In order to impose countervailing duties, the following requirements are necessary:

1. subsidies are granted to a specific firm, industry or group of firms or industries,
2. there is injury suffered by the EU industry and there is a causal link between the injury and the subsidized imports, and
3. the imposition of measures is not against the Community interest.

The countermeasures are duties on imports of the subsidized products. They can be a percentage of the price of the goods, a fixed amount per unit or a minimum import price as the goods enter the EU. Measures are usually imposed for 5 years.

Since the solution for dumping and subsidies is a tariff, most economic analyses that study effects of tariffs are relevant. Just like decrease in tariffs increases the overall national welfare, allowing access to imported goods at a price lower than the costs of production of that very same product at home, increase in tariffs raises the price of imported goods while, at the same time, economic welfare falls.

zvođe. Stoga se antidamping mjere uvode samo u onim slučajevima kada se vjeruje da su usklađene sa širim interesima EU.

Najčešći razlog za primjenu antidampinških mjera je suprotstavljanje nepravednoj konkurenciji, odnosno prvobitna svrha ovih mjera je slična pravu konkurencije/takmičenja, odnosno sprečavanju te vrste predatorskih cijena kojima kompanija nastoji da izbací svoje konkurente a potom, nakon što ostvari monopol na tržištu, podiže cijene korisnicima industrije i potrošačima. Ipak, koncept nelojalne konkurencije ne pominje se u antidampinškoj regulativi EU i, shodno tome, nikada se nije razmatrao ili analizirao tokom antidampinške istrage.

Antisubvencijske mjere

Zanimljivo je da se od subvencionisanih proizvoda drugih država EU brani primjenom kompenzatornih carina dok ona sama intenzivno koristi proizvodne i izvozne subvencije za premiranje svoje poljoprivredne proizvodnje. Finansijskim dotacijama koje se upućuju preduzećima koja proizvode određenu vrstu robe „vještački“ se pospješuje konkurentska pozicija. Politika protiv subvencija obuhvata zabranu predatorske prakse, tj. subvencionisanje nekih proizvoda kako bi se oni što bolje i po što nižoj cijeni plasirali na tržište EU, odnosno namijenjena je zaštiti od subvencionisanog uvoza. S aspekta nezaposlenosti u Evropskoj uniji, subvencionisani proizvodi predstavljaju poseban problem jer se smatra da ugrožavaju radna mjesta u nekim privrednim granama. Za pokretanje ovih mjera zaštite trgovine, neophodno je da budu ispunjeni sljedeći uslovi:

1. da su posebne subvencije dodijeljene preduzeću, privrednoj grani ili grupi preduzeća i privrednih grana,
2. da je, na taj način, nanesena direktna šteta evropskoj privredi koja se ogleda u gubitku tržišnog učešća evropskih proizvođača, smanjenju proizvodnje i prometa, pa samim tim, i u gubitku profita i
3. da takve mjere ne nanose štetu interesima Zajednice, u smislu da troškovi njihovog preduzimanja moraju da budu srazmjerni koristima od postignutih efekata.

Antisubvencijske ili kompenzatorne mjere protiv subvencionisanih proizvoda mogu biti fiksne, varijabilne ili ad valorem, a najčešće traju 5 godina.

Budući da je rješenje za damping i subvencije carina, većina ekonomskih analiza koja se bavi efektima carina je relevantna. Baš kao što smanjenje carina povećava ekonomsko blagostanje omogućavajući privredi pristup uvezenim proizvodima po cijeni nižoj od one koja bi bila potrebna da se taj proizvod proizvede kod kuće, tako i povećanje carina povećava cijenu uvezene robe i samim tim smanjuje ekonomsko blagostanje.

Safeguards

Unlike subsidies and dumping, safeguard measures are not taken to address unfair trade practices, but they are rather concerned with imports of a certain product that increase so sudden and sharply so that EU producers cannot reasonably be expected to adapt immediately to the changed situation. In such cases, WTO and EU rules allow for short-term measures to regulate the imports, giving EU companies temporary relief and time to adapt to this unforeseen surge. Such measures usually apply to imports of the product from all non-EU countries. In return, the affected EU industry is required to restructure. Provisional safeguard measures may last up to 200 days and definite measures up to 4 years. Where they exceed 3 years, they must be reviewed at mid-term and can be extended for up to 8 years in total. Safeguards are the most restrictive trade defense instruments because they do not require the establishment of any unfair element. In addition, safeguard measures are imposed against all countries, including those that do not individually cause any injury to the domestic industry. Although this kind of instrument should be used with extreme caution, unfortunately, it seems this was not always the case⁷.

Chart 3. Motives for imposing Trade Defense Instruments⁸

Counterbalance to the reduction in tariffs
Analogue for domestic competition policy
Protection against predatory practices and unfair competition
Retaliatory mechanism to protect EU exporter interests
Insurance against excessive trade pressures
Macroeconomic buffer
Tool of industrial policy
Protection for vulnerable communities from disruptive change emanating from the trading system

EU regulations contain clauses that prevent exporters to circumvent measures. The Commission regularly monitors the effectiveness of measures in force. Anti-dumping, countervailing and safeguard measures are considered the partial counterweight to the liberalization of tariff rates. Also, some authors state that their use has increased at the global level since the economic crisis. Moreover, trade defense has often been considered an expedient strategy to help selectively embraced sectors to fight off foreign competition, at least for a while. The question is whether the EU also (unju-

⁷ Adapted from European Commission, *Ninth Report on Potentially Trade Restrictive Measures identified in the context of the financial and economic crisis*, September 2011 – May 2012, p. 22.

⁸ BKP Development Research & Consulting, *Evaluation of the European Union's Trade Defence Instruments*, Final Evaluation Study, Vol. 1: Main Report, Munich, Germany, 2012, p. 44.

Zaštitne mjere

Za razliku od dampinga, zaštitne mjere se ne koriste zbog nefer trgovinske prakse, već se odnose na uvoz određenog proizvoda koji se naglo i neočekivano povećava tako da se evropski proizvođači ne mogu odjednom prilagoditi novonastaloj situaciji. U ovakvim slučajevima, pravila STO i EU odobravaju kratkoročne mjere da se reguliše uvoz, dajući evropskim preduzećima privremeni predah i vrijeme da se prilagode ovom nepredvidljivom talasu. Ove mjere se obično primjenjuju na uvoz proizvoda iz svih neevropskih zemalja. Zauzvrat, pogođena evropska industrija se mora oporaviti, odnosno restrukturisati. Privremene zaštitne mjere mogu trajati do 200 dana, a trajne do 4 godine. Po isteku tri godine i revizije, mogu se produžiti do najviše 8 godina sveukupno. Inače, zaštitne mjere su najrestriktivnije mjere zaštite trgovine, jer ne zahtijevaju utvrđivanje prisustva nefer elementa. Pored toga, ove mjere se nameću svim zemljama, uključujući one koje ne stvaraju povrede domaćoj industriji. Iako se ova vrsta instrumenata treba koristiti sa velikim oprezom, nažalost, izgleda da to nije uvijek slučaj⁷.

Slika 3. Motivi korišćenja instrumenata zaštite trgovine⁸

Protivteža smanjenju carinskih stopa
Analogija domaćoj antimonopolskoj politici
Borba protiv predatorske prakse i neobjavljene konkurencije
Protivteža interesima evropskih izvoznika
Osiguranje od prekomjernih trgovinskih pritisaka
Makroekonomski motivi
Instrument industrijske politike
Zaštita ranjivih zajednica od poremećaja koji proizlaze iz trgovinskog sistema

Pravila EU sadrže i klauzule koje sprečavaju izvoznike da zaobiđu mjere. Komisija redovno prati efikasnost mjera na snazi. Antidampinške, kompenzatorne i zaštitne mjere se smatraju djelimičnom protivtežom liberalizaciji carinskih stopa. Takođe, pojedini autori navode da se njihova upotreba povećala od ekonomske krize i to na globalnom nivou. Nadalje, vjeruje se da zaštita trgovine predstavlja lukavu strategiju pomoći odabranim sektorima da se suprotstave inostranoj konkurenciji, pa makar i na kratko. Postavlja se pitanje da li je EU takođe (neopravdano) pojačala svoje mehanizme zaštite trgovine kako bi zaštitila domaća preduzeća od strane konkurencije. Osim toga, utvrđeno je da mnogim istragama za zaštitu trgovine nedostaje

⁷ European Commission, *Ninth Report on Potentially Trade Restrictive Measures, identified in the context of the financial and economic crisis*, September 2011 – May 2012, str. 22.

⁸ Adaptirano prema BKP Development Research & Consulting, *Evaluation of the European Union's Trade Defence Instruments*, Final Evaluation Study, Vol. 1: Main Report, Munich, Germany, 2012, str. 44.

stifiably) increased its trade defense mechanisms to protect domestic companies from foreign competition? Furthermore, it was also found that too many trade defense investigations were lacking transparency. In certain circumstances it is not always possible to assess whether measures are legally justified or not, in which case, they could in fact be considered as protectionist measures. Yet the broader concern is that such an approach turns trade defense policy into a tool of managed trade, the derided school of thought that targets market shares and empowers government to intervene in trade to achieve political aims.

EFFICIENCY OF DEFENSE INSTRUMENTS

The European Union is generally considered to be one of the main – traditional users of TDI, along with the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Still, the European Union is a moderate user of these measures. For example, at the end of 2012, the EU had 102 anti-dumping (AD) and 10 anti-subsidy (AS) measures in force and an additional 19 AD and 6 AS ongoing investigations initiated during the year. In comparison, according to the first-half 2012 data submitted to the WTO, the US have 232 AD and 50 AS measures in force, India – 222 AD measures, China – 110 AD and 4 AS,.. However, during the recent global recession, the EU like other major economies expanded its use of TDI only marginally (Bown, 2010). While the EU is the third most frequent user of TDI after India and the USA, its use of TDI is moderate in relation to its share in world trade: the EU accounted for 17.8% of world imports (excluding intra-EU trade) during the evaluation period, but only for 10.7% of all TD investigations and 9.4% of all measures imposed. The amount of EU imports affected is also quite small: in-force measures affect about 0.6% of EU imports (WTO, 2011). TD measures were taken in a wide range of agricultural and industrial sectors. However, there was a heavy concentration of cases in the chemicals and metal products sectors, with lesser spikes in the plastics and machinery and equipment sectors. In terms of exporting countries, 130 countries were named in the new 78 investigations; most of these were developing economies, with China accounting for over one-third of all individual investigations.

The observed effect of TD measures is to raise the price and reduce the volume of imports of the subject goods. This is simply the effect of tariffs and thus indistinguishable from ordinary trade protection: domestic producers benefit but consumers or downstream industries are negatively affected. Since standard economic analysis indicates that the costs to consumers or downstream industries of the higher prices induced by tariffs are normally larger than the benefits to domestic producers, the economic rationale for TD depends

transparentnost. Naime, u određenim okolnostima nije uvijek moguće procijeniti da li su mjere zakonski opravdane ili ne, zbog čega se one, ipak, mogu smatrati protekcionističkim mjerama. Ipak, više brine da li ovakav pristup pretvara politiku zaštite trgovine u sredstvo vođene trgovine usmjerene ka tržišnim udjelima, koja omogućava vladama da se miješaju u trgovinu kako bi ostvarile političke ciljeve.

EFIKASNOST INSTRUMENATA ZAŠTITE

Evropska unija se smatra jednim od glavnih – tradicionalnih korisnika instrumenata zaštite trgovine, zajedno sa SAD, Kanadom, Australijom i Novim Zelandom. Inače, Evropska unija je umjeren korisnik ovih mjera. Na primjer, na kraju 2012. godine, EU je imala 102 antidampinške (AD) mjere i 10 antisubvencijskih (AS) mjera na snazi i dodatnih 19 AD i 6 AS istraga (u toku) pokrenutih tokom godine. Poređenja radi, prema podacima Svjetske trgovinske organizacije za prvu polovinu 2012. godine SAD su imale 232 AD i 50 AS mjera na snazi, Indija – 222 AD mjere, Kina – 110 AS i 4 AS,.. Ipak, tokom nedavne globalne recesije, EU je, baš kao i druge velike ekonomije, povećala upotrebu ovih mjera, doduše, prema mišljenju nekih autora (Bown, 2010), samo marginalno. I dok je EU treći najveći korisnik instrumenata zaštite trgovine, poslije Indije i SAD, njena upotreba ovih mjera je umjerena u odnosu na njen udio u svjetskoj trgovini: EU je obuhvatala 17,8% svjetskog uvoza (isključujući trgovinu unutar EU) tokom posmatranog perioda, 10,7% od svih istraga i 9,4% svih nametnutih mjera. Količina pogođenog uvoza EU je takođe prilično mala: mjere na snazi utiču na oko 0,6% evropskog uvoza. Mjere zaštite trgovine preduzimane su najčešće u poljoprivrednom i industrijskom sektoru. Velik broj slučajeva je, takođe, koncentrisan u hemijskom i sektoru metalne proizvodnje, te manji broj u oblasti plastike, opreme i mašina. Kada su u pitanju izvozne zemlje, u novih 78 istraga imenovano je 130 zemalja; većina su zemlje u razvoju, dok Kina čini jednu trećinu svih pojedinačnih istraga.

Uočen učinak mjera zaštite trgovine je da podižu cijene i smanjuju obim uvoza predmetne robe. To je jednostavno efekat carina zbog čega se ne može razlikovati od obične zaštite tržišta: domaći proizvođači imaju koristi dok su potrošači i prerađivačke industrije negativno pogođeni. Budući da uobičajena ekonomska analiza ukazuje na to da su troškovi za potrošače i prerađivačku industriju izazvani carinama obično veći od koristi za domaće proizvođače, ekonomska opravdanost trgovinske zaštite zavisi prvenstveno od toga da li su mjere zaštite trgovine usmjerene protiv konkurencije ili

crucially on whether the practices addressed by trade defense measures are anti-competitive or market-distorting, or entail excessive adjustment costs by the EU industry. Furthermore, the study⁹ finds that the EU TD system is comparatively slow and somewhat costly for industry to use: on average, it takes almost 2.5 years from the onset of injury to the implementation of measures. The cost to a complainant of participating in an investigation is typically around EUR 200,000 but can be as high as EUR 1 million. In international comparison, the EU system fares worse in terms of duration of investigations (several peer countries take considerably less time to complete investigations) but better on costs: in the USA, the typical cost for a complainant may easily exceed EUR 700,000 to EUR 1.1 million. While the relatively lengthy process and the associated costs serve as a discipline against overuse, for small and medium-sized enterprises, this compounds the problems of obtaining TDI relief where it might be warranted. It should be mentioned that the EU's trade defense instruments have remained largely unchanged for more than 15 years. Thus, the Commission has taken the initiative to modernize the current instruments to improve their efficiency and effectiveness.

Calculations from the National Board of Trade¹⁰ show that exporters from third countries that are not facing anti-dumping measures are those who benefit to the largest extent from the measures. According to the calculations, companies in countries that are targeted with anti-dumping measures lose on average 9 percentage points of the EU market share while exporters in third countries that are not subject to anti-dumping measures, on average, gain 8 percentage points of the EU market share. The market share of the EU producers only increase with 1 percentage point. This indicates that the EU industry is not competitive at an international level.

Costs of protection

Each 1 euro gained by the protected EU industry implies an extra cost of 4.5 euro for importers, user industry and consumers in the EU.

Furthermore, the anti-dumping protection comes at a rather high price. With every 1 euro gained in the protected sector, user industry and consumers pay, on average, 4.5 euro in higher prices and tariffs, according to the calculations by the National Board of Trade. Two third of all anti-dumping measures are targeting intermediate goods. The anti-dumping measures, accordingly, increase costs for companies with globalized production chains. The result of anti-dumping measures is that the competitiveness of EU in-

9 BKP Development Research & Consulting, *Evaluation of the European Union's Trade Defence Instruments*, Final Evaluation Study, Vol. 1: Main Report, Munich, Germany, 2012.

10 <http://www.kommers.se/In-English/Trade-defence-instruments-/Review-of-EU-Trade-Defence-Instruments-in-Brief/> accessed on 14. 4. 2014.

distorzija tržišta, ili uključuju prevelike troškove prilagođavanja od strane industrije EU. Nadalje, studija⁹ pokazuje da je sistem zaštite trgovine Evropske unije relativno spor i donekle skup za industriju: u prosjeku, potrebno je skoro 2,5 godine od početka povrede do sprovođenja mjera. Troškovi podnosioca žalbe za učešće u istrazi su obično oko 200.000 evra, ali mogu ići i do milion evra. U međunarodnom kontekstu, ovakav sistem Evropske unije je lošiji u pogledu trajanja istrage (nekim zemljama potrebno je daleko manje vremena da okončaju istrage), ali bolji kada su u pitanju troškovi: u SAD, uobičajena cijena koju snosi podnosilac žalbe može lako preći 700.000 do 1,1 milion evra. Dok relativno dugotrajan proces i prateći troškovi omogućavaju određenu disciplinu protiv pretjerane upotrebe, za mala i srednja preduzeća ovo predstavlja problem sticanja olakšanja u opravdanim situacijama. Treba podsjetiti da se mehanizmi zaštite trgovine EU nisu mijenjali više od 15 godina, zbog čega je Komisija inicirala modernizaciju trenutnih instrumenata kako bi se poboljšala njihova efikasnost i efektivnost.

Proračuni Nacionalnog odbora za trgovinu¹⁰ pokazuju da izvoznici iz trećih zemalja koji se ne suočavaju sa antidampinškim mjerama imaju najviše koristi od ovih mjera, više nego sami evropski proizvođači koji su tražili zaštitu. Prema procjenama, kompanije u zemljama u kojima se primjenjuju antidampinške mjere gube u prosjeku i do 9 procenata tržišnog udjela EU, dok izvoznici iz trećih zemalja koji nisu predmet antidampinških mjera, u prosjeku, ostvaruju povećanje i do 8 procenata udjela na tržištu EU. Tržišno učešće evropskih proizvođača se povećava tek za 1%. Ovo ukazuje na to da industrija Evropske unije nije konkurentna na međunarodnom nivou.

Visoka cijena zaštite

Svaki 1 evro koji stiže zaštićena industrija EU uključuje dodatnih 4,5 evra troškova za uvoznike, korisnike industrije i potrošače u EU.

Nadalje, čini se da troškovi zaštite premašuju koristi. Naime, za svaki 1 evro koji zaradi zaštićeni sektor, korisnici industrije i potrošači plaćaju, u prosjeku, 4,5 evra u višim cijenama i carinama. Dvije trećine svih antidampinških mjera je usmjereno ka repromaterijalu čime se, automatski, povećavaju troškovi preduzeća sa globalizovanim proizvodnim lancima. Rezultat antidampinških mjera je negativan uticaj na konkurentnost evropske industrije kako na internom, tako i na tržištu van EU, na štetu evropske privrede

9 BKP Development Research & Consulting, *Evaluation of the European Union's Trade Defence Instruments*, Final Evaluation Study, Vol. 1: Main Report, Munich, Germany, 2012.

10 <http://www.kommers.se/In-English/Trade-defence-instruments-/Review-of-EU-Trade-Defence-Instruments-in-Brief/> posjećeno 14. 4. 2014. godine.

dustry is negatively affected, on the internal market and on markets outside the EU, to the detriment of the EU's economy, as it has negative effects on the user industry and consumer welfare.

CONCLUSION

According to the Overseas Development Institute¹¹, the EU moves towards further protectionist stance of trade policy that threatens to damage the global economy and the economies of many countries in the developing countries. In addition, the world's leading experts warn about the lack of vision and coherence in its approach to developing countries. Strong protectionist (foreign) trade policy of the EU, especially in areas such as agriculture, fishing, textiles and some industry reduces the ability of developing countries to access and enter on the EU market. Therefore, these countries regularly record trade deficit that cannot be compensate with certain benefits that the Union provide through trade agreements. In addition, the products of these industries (such as food, clothing, footwear and certain industrial products) in the EU are very expensive, which further affects the growth of labor costs, production costs, decrease the competitiveness of the EU economy, and leads to asymmetric redistribution within the EU. This happens because the surplus of agricultural products, whether in the form of gifts or at low prices, is sent to underdeveloped countries threatening the agricultural and industrial production in those countries. This situation contributes directly to the growth of poverty and reduces the possibility of producing those goods for which the EU gives import preferences through various trade agreements. Given that these agreements are usually concluded in times of economic expansion, not stagnation or slight growth, it can be concluded that they can often jeopardize the interests of individual countries or groups of countries. In their absence, certain countries and economies can benefit from diametrically opposite measures (i.e. protectionism).

Although the external trade of the EU should be harmonized with other segments of the external relations of the Union, this is not always possible to achieve in practice. It is therefore not surprising that, at times, the interests of foreign policy as well as security and defense policy directly affect the course of trade relations with trade partners of the EU. Trade defense measures, as well as other instruments of foreign trade policy, are undoubtedly causing distortions in world trade. According to economic theory, by increasing trade barriers, through tariff and non-tariff means, domestic consumer costs increase, foreign exporters' sales decrease and efficiency

11 <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2012/jul/27/eu-trade-reforms-developing-countries> published on 27. 7. 2012. accessed on 14. 4. 2014.

ostavljajući, takođe, negativne posljedice na korisnike industrije i blagostanje potrošača.

ZAKLJUČAK

Prema izvještaju Instituta za preookeanski razvoj¹¹, EU se sve više opredjeljuje za protekcionistički stav nad trgovinskom politikom što će ugroziti globalnu privredu, kao i privrede niza zemalja u razvoju. Pored toga, vodeći svjetski eksperti upozoravaju na nepostojanje vizije i koherentnosti u njenom pristupu zemljama u razvoju. Snažan protekcionistički karakter Spoljnotrgovinske politike EU, naročito u oblastima kao što su poljoprivreda, ribolov, tekstil i neke industrije smanjuje mogućnost pristupa i ulaska nerazvijenih zemalja na Zajedničko tržište EU. Stoga ove zemlje redovno bilježe trgovinski deficit koji se ne može nadoknaditi izvjesnim pogodnostima koje im Unija pruža putem trgovinskih sporazuma. Osim toga, proizvodi ovih industrija (poput hrane, odjeće, obuće i nekih industrijskih proizvoda) u EU su veoma skupi što dodatno utiče na rast cijene rada, troškova proizvodnje, pad konkurentnosti privrede EU, te dovodi i do asimetričnih preraspodjela unutar same EU. Ovo stoga što se viškovi poljoprivrednih proizvoda, bilo u vidu poklona, bilo po niskim cijenama, usmjeravaju u nerazvijene zemlje ugrožavajući poljoprivrednu i industrijsku proizvodnju u tim zemljama. Ovakva situacija direktno doprinosi rastu siromaštva, kao i smanjenoj mogućnosti proizvodnje one robe za koju im EU daje uvozne pogodnosti putem različitih trgovinskih sporazuma. S obzirom da se ovakvi sporazumi obično sklapaju u trenucima privredne ekspanzije, a ne stagnacije ili blagog rasta, zaključuje se da oni često mogu ugroziti interese pojedinih država ili grupa zemalja. U njihovom odsustvu, izvjesne zemlje i privrede mogu profitirati od dijametralno suprotnih mjera (tj. protekcionizma).

Iako bi spoljna trgovina EU trebalo da bude usaglašena sa ostalim segmentima spoljnih odnosa Unije, to u praksi nije uvijek moguće postići. Stoga ne čudi podatak da se, ponekada, interesi spoljne politike i politike bezbjednosti i odbrane direktno odražavaju na kurs trgovinskih odnosa sa trgovinskim partnerima EU. Mjere zaštite trgovine, baš kao i drugi instrumenti spoljnotrgovinske politike, nedvosmisleno izazivaju poremećaje u svjetskoj trgovini. Podsjećamo da se, prema ekonomskoj teoriji, povećanjem trgovinskih barijera putem carina ili necarinskim sredstvima, povećavaju troškovi domaćih potrošača, smanjuje prodaja stranih izvoznika, te sprečava sticanje efikasnosti putem komparativnih prednosti. Ove odluke su, stoga, političke, te se, vjerovatno, donose kako bi se mogući rivali onespo-

¹¹ <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2012/jul/27/eu-trade-reforms-developing-countries> postavljeno 27. 7. 2012. godine, posjećeno 14. 4. 2014. godine.

gains through comparative advantage are prevented. These decisions are therefore political. Arguably they have been put in place to prevent possible rivals from catching up with EU countries. The claim that the imports from middle-income countries will be substituted by those from low-income countries seems dubious at best. Therefore, these forms of protectionist measures limit the access of supply from other countries to the EU market. Besides preventing further liberalization of international trade, they harm not only to developing countries, but the European economy and its consumers, but also developed countries with liberal trade regime (for example USA, Australia and New Zealand). For example, the EU is correct in being worried about market and trade distortions in China. Yet it cannot fight foreign market distortions with own market distortions; it cannot fight fire with fire. Rather than politically charging its trade defense policy, the EU should depoliticize and discipline it¹². Since Foreign Trade Policy of the EU is a scene of strong interests, it is quite rigid so we cannot expect the impossible, i.e. rapid and radical changes.

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¹² Erixon, F., "Solar Panels, Telecommunication Equipment – and the "Modernisation" of EU Trade Defence Policy", *ECIPE Bulletin*, No. 5, 2013, p. 2.

sobili od hvatanja koraka sa zemljama EU. Tvrdnja da će uvoz iz zemalja sa srednjim prihodom biti zamijenjen uvozom iz zemalja sa niskim dohotkom je, najblaže rečeno, sumnjiva. Ovim oblicima protekcionističkih mjera ograničava se, dakle, pristup ponudi iz drugih zemalja na tržište EU. Osim što onemogućavaju dalju liberalizaciju međunarodne razmjene, one štete ne samo zemljama u razvoju, nego i evropskoj privredi i njenim potrošačima, ali i razvijenim zemljama sa liberalnim trgovinskim režimom (npr. SAD, Australiji i Novom Zelandu). Na primjer, zabrinutost EU za distorzije tržišta i trgovine u recimo jednoj Kini je opravdana. Ipak, ne može se boriti protiv distorzija na inostranim tržištima sopstvenim tržišnim poremećajima; odnosno vatra se ne gasi vatrom. Umjesto što politički boji svoju politiku zaštite trgovine, Evropska unija bi trebala da je depolitizuje i disciplinuje¹². Kako Spoljnotrgovinska politika EU predstavlja poprište snažnih interesa, proizlazi da je ova politika prilično rigidna i da od nje ne treba očekivati nemoguće, tj. brze i radikalne promjene.

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THE NEW INSURANCE REGULATIVE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION – SOLVENCY 2 AND THE NECESSARY REFORMS FOR ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN MACEDONIA¹

Biljana Petrevska²

Abstract

The objective of this paper is to analyze Solvency II which is a new insurance regulatory regime introduced by the European Union in order to enhance the financial stability of the insurance and reinsurance undertakings and to better protect the policyholders and insurance beneficiaries from insolvent insurance. This paper is going to describe the concept of Solvency 2 and it will suggest the necessary reforms in the legislation and the necessary institutional reforms, which are going to be analyzed from different aspects in order to fully implement this concept in the Republic of Macedonia. It will consist of 4 parts. The first part of this paper will be an introduction to the framework that will explain the subject of research, while in the second part we will analyze in detail the legal framework of the European Union that regulates the issue of Solvency 2 as a system that is based on three pillars which are: quantitative requirements, quality requirements and mandatory disclosure of market data. In the third part of this paper we will explain the reforms that are necessary for the implementation of Solvency 2 in the Republic of Macedonia. Finally, in the fourth part of this paper “Conclusion,” we are giving our basic conclusions that will arise from our paper.

Key words: *insurance, solvency, supervision of the insurance, technical provisions, solvency capital requirement*

JEL classification: F5, F3

INTRODUCTION

Solvency 2 is a new supranational insurance regulatory regime introduced by the European Union institutions in order to enhance the financial

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NOVA REGULATIVA O OSIGURANJU EVROPSKE UNIJE – SOLVENTNOST 2 I NUŽNE REFORME ZA NJENU IMPLEMENTACIJU U MAKEDONIJI¹

Biljana Petrevska²

Sažetak

Osnovni cilj ovog rada je da analizira Solventnost 2 - nova regulativa o osiguranja Evropske Unije, uvedena da bi se poboljšala finansijska stabilnost kompanije za osiguranje i reosiguranje, i da bi se osigurenici i korisnici osiguranja bolje zaštitili od nesolventnih osiguranja. Ovaj rad će opisati koncept Solventnost 2 i predložiti će nužne reforme u zakonodavstvu i institucionalne reforme, koji bi bili analizirani iz različitih aspekata, kako bi se u potpunosti implementirao ovaj koncept u Republici Makedoniji. Ovaj rad biće sastavljen iz 4 dela. Prvi deo ovog rada će biti uvod koji će objasniti predmet istraživanja, dok u drugom delu ćemo detaljno analizirati pravni okvir Evropske Unije koji reguliše pitanje Solventnost 2, kao sistem koji je zasnovan na 3 stuba, a to su: kvantitativni zahtevi, kvalitativni zahtevi i obavezno objavljivanje podataka o tržištu. U trećem delu ovog rada ćemo objasniti reforme koje su nužne za sprovođenje Solventnost 2 u Republici Makedoniji. Na kraju, u četvrtom delu ovog rada, "Zaključak", dajemo naše osnovne zaključke koji proizlaze iz našeg rada.

Ključne reči: osiguranje, solventnost, nadzor osiguranja, tehničke rezerve, obavezne solventnosti kapitala

JEL klasifikacija: F5, F3

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stability of the insurance and reinsurance undertakings and to better protect the policyholders and insurance beneficiaries from insolvent insurance. The protection of policy holders is the main objective of the insurance supervision. Financial stability and fair and stable markets are other objectives of insurance and reinsurance regulation and supervision which should also be taken into account but should not undermine the main objective.³

The starting point for the adequacy of the quantitative requirements in the insurance sector is the Solvency Capital Requirement. Supervisory authorities therefore have the power to impose a capital add-on to the Solvency Capital Requirement only under exceptional circumstances, following the supervisory review process. The Solvency Capital Requirement standard formula is intended to reflect the risk profile of most insurance and reinsurance undertakings.⁴ However, an effective system of governance is also essential for the adequate management of the insurance undertaking and for the regulatory system. The system of governance includes: the risk-management function, the compliance function, the internal audit function and the actuarial function. In order to guarantee transparency, insurance and reinsurance undertakings should publicly disclose – that is to say make it available to the public either in printed or electronic form free of charge – at least annually, essential information on their solvency and financial condition. Undertakings should be allowed to disclose publicly additional information on a voluntary basis.⁵

Valuation standards for supervisory purposes are compatible with international accounting developments, to the extent possible, so as to limit the administrative burden on insurance or reinsurance undertakings.⁶ In order to allow insurance and reinsurance undertakings to meet their commitments towards policy holders and beneficiaries, member states should require those undertakings to establish adequate technical provisions. The amount of technical provisions reflects the characteristics of the underlying insurance portfolio.⁷

In accordance with the risk-oriented approach to the Solvency Capital Requirement, it is possible, in specific circumstances, to use partial or full

3 European Commission, “*Solvency II: Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs)*”, 2010, pp.1-13.

4 Scott H., “*Capital Adequacy beyond Basel – Banking, Securities, and Insurance*”, Oxford University Press, 2005, p.98.

5 European Commission, “*Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council, amending Directives 2003/71/EC and 2009/138/EC in respect of the powers of the European Insurance and Occupational Pensions Authority and the European Securities and Markets Authority*”, 2010, pp.1-51.

6 Sandstrom A., “*Solvency – Models, Assessment and Regulation*”, Chapman & Hall/CRC, Taylor & Francis Group, 2006, pp.290,291.

7 Committee of European Insurance and Occupational Pensions Supervisors, “*Solvency II – Calibration Paper*”, CEIOPS-SEC-40-10, 2010, pp.3-26.

internal models for the calculation of that requirement rather than the standard formula⁸. When the amount of eligible basic own funds falls below the Minimum Capital Requirement, the authorization of insurance and reinsurance undertakings shall be withdrawn where those undertakings are unable to re-establish the amount of eligible basic own funds at the level of the Minimum Capital Requirement within a short period of time. The Minimum Capital Requirement ensures a minimum level below which the amount of financial resources should not fall.⁹

SOLVENCY 2 – SYSTEM BASED ON THREE PILLARS

Solvency 2 is really an ambitious regulatory project initiated by the European Commission and which has a significant impact on the risks that the insurance undertakings are exposed to, which include¹⁰: the risks from insurance, or determining the premium, reserves, reinsurance and design of the product; market risks; credit risk; liquidity risk; and operational risks. It is this new system of measuring the solvency and the capital requirements contained in Solvency 2 that tends to change insurance undertakings risk management systems. The new framework also aims to create the same playing field for all market participants, harmonization of supervision in the European Union member states, improving the allocation of the capital and increasing the competition in the insurance industry in Europe¹¹. We can safely say that the new regulatory framework arising from the European Commission is a step that completely follows the development of Basel II - capital requirements related to the banking industry¹².

Solvency 2 is a system that consists of three pillars, and they are:

(1) The first pillar of Solvency 2 is called: *Quantitative requirements* and it primarily focuses on capital requirements for maintaining the solvency. The aim is to encourage the use of internal models for risk management in the insurance business¹³. This concept uses a standard formula to calculate the mandatory solvency capital that reflects the risk profile of most insurance and reinsurance undertakings. The Solvency Capital Requirement (SCR) is calculated at least annually and it should cover at least the following risks,

8 Wuthrich M.V., Merz M., "Financial Modeling, Actuarial Valuation and Solvency in Insurance", Springer Finance, 2013, pp.261-336.

9 Sandstrom A., "Solvency – Models, Assessment and Regulation", Chapman & Hall/CRC, Taylor & Francis Group, 2006, p.284.

10 Koller M., "Life Insurance Risk Management Essentials", EAA Series, Springer, 2011. p.6.

11 Vaughan E.J., Vaughan T., "Fundamentals of Risk and Insurance", Tenth Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2007. p.649.

12 Zweifel P., Eisen R., "Insurance Economics", 2012, Springer Texts in Business and Economics, Springer, 2012, p.345.

13 Baxter Bruce, "Satisfying the Use Test – How to meet and benefit from the Solvency II Use Test requirements", pp.1-5.

including¹⁴: risk taken by contracts non-life insurance; risk taken by contracts for life insurance; risk taken by contracts for health insurance; market risk; credit risk, and operational risk (that includes the legal risk). The Solvency Capital Requirement calculated using the standard formula is a set of core (basic) capital requirements for solvency, capital requirement for operational risk, and the calculated amount that serves as cover (reserve) from unforeseen losses because of insufficient calculated technical provisions and deferred taxes.

The insurance and/or reinsurance undertakings should have adequate own resources as a cover for the minimum capital requirement, and they should be regularly monitored. The minimum required capital must not be lower than¹⁵:

- EUR 2.200.000 for non-life insurance undertakings, including insurance undertakings that are part of a group, unless the insurance company carries out the insurance at least in one of the classes of liability insurance, loans and/or guarantees, in which case it shall not be lower than EUR 3.200.000;
- EUR 3.200.000 for life insurance undertakings, including those that are part of a group;
- EUR 3.200.000 for reinsurance undertakings, except in the case of undertakings that are part of a group, in which case the minimum capital requirement must not be lower than EUR 1.000.000; and
- For insurance undertakings that also perform non-life insurance and life insurance, and who meet all the requirements, the minimum capital requirement is the sum of the amounts listed in the first two paragraphs above.

In addition to these amounts, the minimum capital requirements must not be lower than 25% nor higher than 45% of the solvency required capital, that is calculated either using the standard formula, or using the full or partial internal model, including an additional amount of required capital, if such supervisory measures is imposed. If these conditions are met, the minimum capital requirement is calculated as a linear function of all or part of the following variables: technical provisions of an insurance company, premiums written, venture capital, deferred taxes and administrative costs. The used variables are expressed net of reinsurance. The commonly used

14 European Parliament and Council Directive 2009/138/EC on the taking-up and pursuit of the business of Insurance and Reinsurance (*Solvency II*) (recast), Official Journal of the European Union 17.12.2009, L335/1., Article 101.

15 European Parliament and Council Directive 2009/138/EC on the taking-up and pursuit of the business of Insurance and Reinsurance (*Solvency II*) (recast), Official Journal of the European Union 17.12.2009, L335/1., Article 129.

methods of calculating technical provisions are: reserves for unearned premiums, reserves for claims, reserves for unexpired risks, and other technical reserves and mathematical reserve.¹⁶ Insurance and reinsurance undertakings should calculate the minimum capital requirement at least on a quarterly basis and should report the supervision authority.

(2) The second pillar of Solvency 2 is called: *Procedure for conducting supervision* and it concerns with the corporate governance of insurance undertakings and their supervision. The system of corporate governance involves the operation of separate organizational unit of corporate risk management, organizational unit for monitoring compliance with the insurance regulations in force, an independent organizational unit of the internal audit and actuarial independent organizational unit. These functional units should have the administrative capacity and authority to carry out responsible authorities within the insurance undertaking. The insurance and reinsurance undertakings can determine what kind of organization they will establish, given the nature of the work that is undertaken in terms of the insurance risks, the size of the company, as well as the territory of which they carry on the insurance. Moreover some insurance undertakings are determined to professionals employed in the company, while others opt to transfer these functions to external entities (actuaries). The inadequate corporate governance and failure of internal control systems, were shown as the main causes for the collapse of some major financial institutions in the world financial (economic) crisis. Hence, an effective system of corporate governance is necessary required for proper operation of the insurance undertakings, maintaining the financial stability of insurance undertakings, and the financial system as a whole.¹⁷

Any insurance and reinsurance undertaking must have, as an integral part of its business strategy on a regular basis established monitoring of a solvency in terms of its own specific risk profile (own assessment of risk exposure and solvency). Supervisory authorities exercise their power transparently and responsibly with due consideration for the protection of confidential information. This implies the existence of a system that provides publication of at least the following information: texts of all laws, regulations, general provisions and rules and guidelines in the field of insurance regulation; common general criteria and methods used by supervisors in their work; aggregated statistics for main aspects of the application of prudential regulation; if supervision interpreted certain rules - mandatory disclosure

16 Barrieu P., Albertini L., *"The Handbook of Insurance - Linked Securities"*, Wiley Finance, 2009, pp.341-362.

17 Policy Issues in Insurance, *"The Impact of the Financial Crisis on the Insurance Sector and Policy Responses"*, OECD No.13., 2011, pp.1-48.

of their conduct; purposes of supervision and their basic functions and activities.¹⁸ This disclosure of information should be sufficiently clear to enable meaningful comparison between different countries. For this purpose standardized formats should be used and they will be regularly updated. The access to them should be at any time provided electronically. It is also very important that the countries should establish transparent procedures for the selection and dismissal of members of the management and the management of the supervisory authorities.¹⁹ The supervisory authorities should adopt a plan for financial consolidation and short-term plan to provide funding or to revoke the license for carrying out the insurance or reinsurance undertaking.²⁰

(3) The third pillar of Solvency 2 is called: *Market discipline* or minimum requirements for publication of comprehensive, relevant, reliable and complete information by the insurance and reinsurance undertakings, which in turn will help the decision makers and will reduce disparities in information that exist between the owners of capital - managers as well as between insurance undertakings - insurers and insurance customers. The regulatory framework that applies to reporting supervisory purposes includes one set of laws, standards, and regulations, which require insurance undertakings to report to the supervisory authority in the country where the head of the undertaking is based, and this report is for: calculation of capital; required margin of solvency, the technical provisions for certain classes of insurance and total; investment of assets covering technical provisions; and the calculation and monitoring of certain technical coefficients for the performance of core (basic) business – that is insurance. These regulations should allow insurance and reinsurance undertaking and supervisors timely disclosure of the potential risks of possible losses in certain classes of insurance which could jeopardize the solvency at a time, and this data are confidential, they are not published, and a small circle of institutions can use them.²¹

Although the reporting for supervisory purposes is of particular importance for the functioning of Solvency 2, however the reporting framework for supervisory purposes has not yet been harmonized between the European Union member states.

18 European Parliament and Council Directive 2009/138/EC on the taking-up and pursuit of the business of Insurance and Reinsurance (*Solvency II*) (recast), Official Journal of the European Union 17.12.2009, L335/1., Article 31.

19 European Commission, "Solvency II: Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs)", 2010, pp.1-13.

20 Policy Issues in Insurance, "The Impact of the Financial Crisis on the Insurance Sector and Policy Responses", OECD No.13., 2011, pp.55-58.

21 European Parliament and Council Directive 2009/138/EC on the taking-up and pursuit of the business of Insurance and Reinsurance (*Solvency II*) (recast), Official Journal of the European Union 17.12.2009, L335/1., Articles 51-56.

THE NECESSARY REFORMS FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF SOLVENCY 2 IN MACEDONIA

After explaining the concept of Solvency 2, the question arises: how many insurance companies in Macedonia are willing to accept Solvency 2 as a new system of risk management and of maintaining capital, but also the willingness of the supervisory authority to conduct supervision based on risk assessment and risk exposure of insurance companies when calculating available capital and required capital to maintain solvency. Therefore, in this part of the paper we will try to make an assessment of the degree of compliance of existing insurance legislation and institutional capacity in basic insurance principles and standards, and hence to propose reforms that are necessary to comply and apply the concept of Solvency 2 in the insurance market in Macedonia.

The basic legal framework that regulates the performance of insurance, reinsurance, advocacy and mediation in the insurance, conducting cross-border insurance activities, supervision of insurance, bankruptcy and liquidation of insurance and reinsurance in Macedonia is the Law on Supervision of Insurance. Compulsory Transport Insurance is regulated by a special law. In terms of the legal form of incorporation and operation of insurance companies despite the Law on Supervision of Insurance, we can apply the provisions of the Company Law. The procedure of bankruptcy of an insurance company is run by the Bankruptcy Law and Company Law. Supervision of insurance in Macedonia is made by the Agency for Supervision of Insurance, which also carries other rules and regulations. However, despite this legal framework built in Macedonia, the country does not apply so-called economic concept of capital valuation. This concept involves the valuation of capital as the difference between the market value of the total assets of the company and the market value of total liabilities. Therefore it is necessary to amend the legislation in order for us to introduce the concept of capital valuation. Changes are needed also in the area of licensing of insurance companies in order to accept the concept Solvency 2 in the country, whereby the changes need to refer to quantitative capital requirements for carrying on insurance in certain classes of insurance, and meeting human, technical and information requirements relating to capital requirements.

If we analyze the method of calculation of the available capital of the insurance company, as well as the calculation of the required margin of solvency for performing non-life insurance and life insurance²², we can

22 Law on Supervision of Insurance, "Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia", No.30 of 29.02.2012, Article 75 and Article 76.

conclude that Macedonia applied, with certain exceptions, a harmonized system of determination of available and required solvency for insurance companies or Solvency 1.

The deviation in terms of the requirements stipulated by Solvency 1, is in the way of acceptance of capital category. Thus, while in Macedonia the term capital means the amount you get after the calculation²³, the member states of the European Union under capital means the total value of assets after reduction of all duties that may be anticipated. Given that the concept Solvency 2 refers to the new capital requirements for insurance companies, it is expected that this part of the Law on Supervision of Insurance will need to have major changes. Hence, we should expect the required solvency margin to be calculated using the standard formula. In my opinion, the new way of calculating solvency capital requirements for insurance companies in Macedonia should give a clearer picture of their operations and hence more realistic view of the required margin of solvency in the existing insurance companies. Special attention, in my opinion, should be given to the stipulation and implementation of mandatory requirements for owning and maintaining the value of own funds of insurance companies. Namely, under Solvency 2 insurance companies and reinsurers will be required at any time to hold own funds as acceptable cover of the capital requirements for solvency and minimum capital requirements.

Insurance and reinsurance companies in Macedonia calculate technical provisions as prescribed in the Law on Supervision of Insurance and Regulation on the calculation of technical provisions. Regarding the acceptance of Solvency 2 in the legal system of Macedonia in the calculation and valuation of technical provisions will require changes in regulations relating to acceptance of the methods in terms of calculating the value of the technical provisions calculated as the sum of the amount of best estimate and the risk margin. A particular challenge for the insurance companies and the regulator in the country i believe will be a new way of valuing technical provisions under Solvency 2. The technical provisions will be calculated as weighted averages of the expected future cash flows while taking into account the time value of money and including risk margin. Today mostly reserves for claims are calculated using actuarial traditional deterministic techniques, which rely on data resulting damages²⁴. Under Solvency 2 will not only need to discount these estimates of reserves, which includes preparation of projections of payments, but will need to demonstrate knowledge for uncertainty of these stocks.

23 Ibid, Article 78 and Article 79.

24 Ibid, Article 80.

Regarding the implementation of Solvency 2 in the country it should be careful if the insurance companies in Macedonia have the will and institutional capacity to carry out an analysis of the credit risk of reinsurers, and whether they can and are willing to perform on a regular basis estimates of the impact of these risks on available capital and capital requirements. Concentration of risks and risks arising from transactions within the group are properly reflected in the standard formula and internal models established by the regime of Solvency 2. Several initiatives by the relevant government authorities are made in Macedonia in order to establish a regulatory framework and institutional cooperation for financial institutions that are part of a group identified as a financial conglomerate, but has not performed additional supervision of insurance undertakings in this regard. In terms of accounting requirements, companies that have significant involvement in other companies or exercise control over other companies are obliged to prepare consolidated accounts.²⁵

Under the Law on Supervision of Insurance in Macedonia the insurance companies can decide whether to establish a single-or two-tier management system. Most companies have established a single system and chaired by the Board of Directors. The Law on Supervision of Insurance has not defined specific requirements regarding disclosure of interests of other members of the management body of the insurance company might have, which could differ from the interests of the insurance company who manage. In this sense, it is important to take the provisions of the Companies Act, which states that data and information must be disclosed to the Annual Meeting of Shareholders by members of the management body, in other cases stipulated by the Law. Given the ownership structure of the insurance companies in Macedonia, the level of development of the insurance market, and the regulatory framework which is in force at the moment, there is a room of complement regulation in this segment, but in need of further development of the corporate culture for disclosure of information to members of the management bodies of the insurance companies, as well as to holders of qualified (substantial) participation in insurance companies.

The Law on Supervision of Insurance in Macedonia established legal requirements that insurance companies had to comply in respect of internal audit. In fact, by law, first set the requirements under which the organizational structure of each insurance company established in the territory of Macedonia should have provided a separate organizational unit for internal audit, independent of the authorities managing the company.²⁶ Considering the growth and development of the insurance companies in the country,

25 Ibid, Article 120.

26 Ibid, Article 123.

changes in the ownership structure and the expected opening of the insurance market in terms of carrying out cross-border insurance and reinsurance, we can expect changes in terms of function and operation internal audit insurance companies. These changes primarily i expect in terms of establishing a new system of capital requirements and the necessary changes in the risk management in insurance companies, which will cause changes in the organizational structure and priorities of the activities of internal auditors in companies.

The actuarial work in Macedonia is performed by authorized actuaries. The certified actuary is a person who is licensed to practice as a certified actuary by the Agency for Supervision of Insurance, or other authorized body or entity which conducts training for work as a certified actuary. The certified actuary is an independent and autonomous in performing the work and is responsible for the accuracy of the identified actions.²⁷ In connection with the adoption of Solvency 2 and the new capital standards for insurance companies we should expect greater presence of actuaries in the working meetings related to the planning and preparation of the new regulatory framework in Macedonia.

Given the fact that insurance companies in the country are institutions of public interest they have committed to transparency and disclosure to a minimum level of information and data for supervisory purposes and for the general public. These requirements for disclosure of operations arising from the Law on Supervision of Insurance, Companies Act, International Accounting Standards and International Standards for Financial Reporting. Insurance companies in Macedonia shall inform the Agency for Supervision of Insurance on regular quarterly, annual and current for data and changes in business operations that are defined in the Law on Supervision of Insurance. Besides the mentioned information, the insurance companies are required to prepare and submit audited financial reports, data for changes to data entered in the commercial register, changes in terms of tariffs and insurance premiums for compulsory insurance and etc.²⁸

The Law on Supervision of Insurance has given power to the supervisory authority to carry out supervision over insurance companies and other entities governed by this Law in Macedonia and from the point to determine whether the performance of insurance is in accordance with the rules on risk management, other provisions of law or other laws governing the operations of insurance companies (meaning primarily the Law on Compulsory Transport Insurance, Contract Law and Company Law). The supervision of insurance in the country is done through: a permanent site, and additio-

²⁷ Ibid, Article 110 and Article 111.

²⁸ Ibid, Articles 117 - 122.

nal field supervision.²⁹ Also the amendments to the Law on Supervision of Insurance introduce opportunity the supervisory authority or the Agency for Supervision of Insurance, in cases determined by the law, in order to avoid the ultimate measure of supervisory approval or revocation of license, to appoint a special Administration in the insurance company to task in a certain time period to consolidate the operations of debates insurance company.³⁰

Solvency 2 establishes a different approach in terms of performance of the insurance supervision and imposing supervisory measures. Unlike the current approach to the implementation of supervisory control in terms of compliance with the regulations, the new regulatory framework is established so that the supervisory authorities have the authority to act even in the planning stage. These changes aim to strengthen the control of insurance companies, and to minimize the probability of bankruptcy of insurance, as intended by Solvency 2.

In Macedonia, according to the Law on Supervision of Insurance, the Agency for Supervision of Insurance and other authorities responsible for the supervision of other financial institutions, at the request of the supervisory authority they share any kind of information about an insurance company or other financial institution needed for enforcement of financial supervision organization, permitting and decision-making on other things. Supervisory authorities inform each other of irregularities discovered during the supervision, if the irregularities relate to the work of other supervisory bodies. These data and data from the supervisory bodies of a member state or foreign country are treated as confidential and may be used only for those purposes for which they were obtained.³¹ The Agency for Supervision of Insurance pursuant to statutory powers and increased international activity since the foundation started, i.e. continued with the started cooperation with foreign insurance supervisory authorities bilaterally and in the framework of the International Association of Insurance Supervisors.

CONCLUSION

From the all above mentioned in our paper, we can conclude that the Solvency 2 framework represents a mirror of the concept of Basel II. Solvency 2 is a three-pillar system that can be summarized and presents as the following:

²⁹ Ibid, Article 159 and Article 160.

³⁰ Ibid, Article 168.

³¹ Ibid, Article 232.

The First Pillar Quantitative requirements	The Second Pillar The Supervision Procedure	The Third Pillar Market Discipline
The minimum capital	The corporate governance and the internal control	The reporting of supervision
Solvency margin Standard formula Internal models	The supervision procedures Supervisory authority	The reporting to the public
Risk exposure Allocation of risks	Security measures Control of solvency	
Technical provisions	Functionally risk management Managing assets and liabilities	
Tangible, measurable risks: Insurance risks; Market risk; Credit risk; Operational risk; Liquidity risk; Risk from management of assets and liabilities; and Other risks	All risks	

The introduction of the new insurance supervisory standards for the calculation of the capital and minimum capital, required for maintaining the solvency (named Solvency 2) in the European Union member states and in the candidate countries, is expected to improve the efficiency in the allocation of the capital, financial stability and transparency in the insurance and reinsurance undertakings.

The basic Law that sets the legal framework for the calculation of the solvency and solvency control of insurance and reinsurance in Macedonia is The Law on Supervision of Insurance. Under the Law, the insurance companies in Macedonia calculate solvency requirements and available capital under the framework known as Solvency 1. Given the fact that Macedonia aspires to become a member state of the European Union, it will have to align its legislation with the legal framework of the member states of the European Union, and hence it is necessary in the future our country to introduce and implement the concept Solvency 2. Therefore we expected that in the future we will adopt the necessary systemic reforms for implementing Solvency 2 in the country, which means adoption of a new law, and the period of harmonization of insurance companies.

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MEDIA EDUCATION AS A PREREQUISITE FOR DEMOCRATIC CONSCIOUS CITIZENS¹

Slavica Išaretović²

Abstract

In our, media saturated world, there are endless opportunities to watch, read, listen to and create media. Pictures, often, flood us, paralyze and shape our understanding of the world and ourselves. In the 21st century, the ability to be media literate and educated (making a careful and critical analysis of media that surround us) is a crucial life skill. Media education, or Education for Media, is based on the assumption that all media messages are made with the use of a creative language with its own rules, that different people experience the same media differently, that the media is primarily a commercial business with the intent to make a profit, that the media have their own embedded values and points of view. The Media Education is the process through which individuals become media literate – able to critically understand the nature, techniques and the impact of media messages and productions. Although in the documents of the Council of Europe and European Union institutions, the media literacy is mentioned in various contexts, the greatest significance is put on the media literacy as a means to increase the quantity and quality of the participation of citizens in a society. Thus, the Recommendation on Media Education (Recommendation 1466) of the Council of Europe emphasizes the importance of the media education not only for individuals but also for the society as a whole, so that citizens prepare for democratic citizenship and political awareness (Council of Europe, 2000).

Also, the European Union, as the most significant contribution and the maximum value of the media literacy, emphasizes its role in enabling citizens to participate in democratic processes in the society to which they belong.

Keywords: *media, media education, media literacy, democratic citizenship, the institutions of the European Union*

JEL classification: K10

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OBRAZOVANJE ZA MEDIJE KAO PREDUSLOV DEMOKRATSKI OSVJEŠTENIH GRAĐANA¹

Slavica Išaretović²

Sažetak

U našem, medijima zasićenom, svijetu postoji beskonačno prilika za gledanje, čitanje, slušanje i stvaranje medija. Slike nas često preplavljaju, parališu i oblikuju naše poimanje svijeta i nas samih. U 21. vijeku, mogućnost da se bude medijski pismen i obrazovan (pravljenje pažljivih i kritičkih analiza medija koji nas okružuju) je presudna životna sposobnost. Medijsko obrazovanje, odnosno obrazovanje za medije, se zasniva na pretpostavci da se sve medijske poruke prave uz korištenje kreativnog jezika sa svojim vlastitim pravilima, da različiti ljudi različito doživljavaju iste medije, da mediji primarno predstavljaju komercijalni posao sa namjerom da se ostvari profit, da mediji imaju svoje usađene vrijednosti i gledišta. Medijsko obrazovanje je proces kroz koji pojedinci postaju medijski pismeni – u stanju da kritički razumiju prirodu, tehnike i uticaj medijskih poruka i produkcija. Iako se u dokumentima Savjeta Evrope i institucija Evropske unije medijska pismenost spominje u raznovrsnim kontekstima, najveći značaj pridaje se upravo medijskoj pismenosti kao sredstvu za povećanje kvantiteta, ali i kvaliteta participacije građana u društvu. Tako se u Preporuci o medijskom obrazovanju Savjeta Evrope ističe značaj medijskog obrazovanja ne samo za pojedinca već i društvo u cjelini, tako što građane priprema za demokratsko građanstvo i političku svijest (Savjet Evrope, 2000).

I Evropska unija kao najznačajniji doprinos i najveću vrijednost medijske pismenosti ističe njenu ulogu u osposobljavanju građana za učešće u demokratskim procesima u društvu kojem pripadaju.

Ključne riječi: mediji, obrazovanje za medije, medijska pismenost, demokratsko građanstvo, institucije Evropske unije

JEL klasifikacija: K10

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Access to education for digital and media literacy, each nation must set in relation to their educational institutions and the media system.

Renee Hobbs

INTRODUCTION

Interest in media literacy is caused by the fact: most media purvey us with information concerning the political process, and also the real and fictional performances, pictures and impressions – which certainly influence our ideas about the reality. The media play a crucial role in the way we create our identities and in the age of digital Information and Communications Technology (ICT) tools and network communication is simply impossible to participate in public affairs without the use of modern media. The media have become the main factor of socialization and partly took over the function of the family, school and religion.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

A single definition of media does not exist. From the Latin *medium*, middle, half of, what is publicly known to all, through the definition of media as „intermediaries in communication and unavoidable structural elements of any communication situation; to the definition of media as a substantiated set of natural and/or man-made conditions that allow synchronous or asynchronous communication to a greater or lesser extent by influencing subjects, content, current effects and relatively permanent effects of communication” (Miletic, 2012: 176).

In defining the term education, often is in the form of “education”, as mentioned by J.Gone, defining it as “necessary and enriching venture, as for the child so for the adult person” (Gone, 1998: 18).

Media in Education is viewed as “the use of media in institutionalized educational process, as called, educational technology, learning aids in the classroom or as a first condition for the establishment, in the didactic sense, a completely new educational process, which is coordinated with the emergence and development of the information society” (Miletic, 2012: 182).

Media Education involves the acquisition of skills for critical reading of the media, regardless of the type of media (print, radio, television, internet). According to Gone, “the goal is the reduction of the distance from the media by understanding their functioning and learning about their content, as well as by placing them in a different perspective compared to systems in which are being developed” (Gone, 1998: 22).

Education for Media is defined as “a didactic-based process of acquiring knowledge of the mass media and internet within the classical school edu-

Pristup obrazovanju za digitalnu i medijsku pismenost, svaka nacija mora postaviti u odnosu na svoje obrazovne institucije i medijski sistem.

Renee Hobbs

UVOD

Interes za medijsku pismenost izazvan je činjenicom : mediji nas snabdjevaju većinom informacija koje se tiču političkih procesa, a takođe i realnim i fiktivnim predstavama, slikama i predstavama, koje svakako utiču na naše ideje o stvarnosti. Mediji imaju odlučujuću ulogu u načinu na koji smo stvorili naše identitete i u doba digitalnih ICT alata i mrežne komunikacije prosto je nemoguće učestvovati u javnim poslovima bez upotrebe modernih medija. Mediji su postali osnovni faktor socijalizacije i dijelom su preuzeli tu funkciju od porodice, škole i religije.

DEFINICIJA POJMOVA

Jedinstvena definicija medija ne postoji. Od latinskog *medium*, sredina, polovina, ono što je javno, svima poznato, preko definisanja *medija* kao “posrednika u komuniciranju i neizbježnog strukturalnog elementa svake komunikacione situacije; do definicije medija kao supstancijalizovanog skupa prirodnih i/ili vještačkih uslova koji omogućavaju sinhrono ili asinhrono komuniciranje u većoj ili manjoj mjeri utičući na subjekte, sadržaj, trenutne efekte i relativno trajne posljedice komuniciranja“ (Miletić, 2012: 176).

U definisanju termina *obrazovanja* često se ima u vidu „vaspitanje“, kako to navodi Ž.Gone, definišući ga kao “neophodno i obogaćujuće ulaganje kako za dijete, tako i za odraslog čovjeka“ (Gone, 1998: 18).

Medije u obrazovanju posmatramo kao “korišćenje medija u institucionalizovanom vaspitno-obrazovnom procesu, kao tzv. obrazovne tehnologije, didaktička sredstva i pomagala u nastavi ili kao prvog uslova za zasnivanje, u didaktičkom smislu, potpuno novog vaspitno-obrazovnog procesa saobraznog nastajanju i razvoju informacionog društva“ (Miletić, 2012:182).

Medijsko obrazovanje podrazumijeva sticanje sposobnosti za kritičko iščitavanje medija, bez obzira na vrstu medija (štampa, radio, televizija, internet). Prema Gonu, „cilj je smanjenje distanciranosti od medija putem razumjevanja njihovog funkcionisanja i upoznavanja njihovog sadržaj, kao i putem njihovog postavljanja u različite perspektive u odnosu na sisteme u kojima se razvijaju“ (Gone,1998: 22).

Obrazovanje za medije definišem kao “didaktički zasnovan proces sticanja znanja o masovnim medijima i interentu u okviru klasičnog školskog obrazovanja, prvenstveno djece i omladine, ali i ljudi u svim životnim dobi-

cation, especially children and youth, but the people of all ages, as well” (Miletic, 2012: 230). The starting point of media education is to achieve a certain level of general and professional media literacy.

Media literacy is a prerequisite so-called functional literacy, without which it is not possible to meet the individual and group needs of people in contemporary society.

Russian theorist Alexander Fedorov considers media literacy as the result of media education, which helps a person to actively use opportunities of the information field, which is enabled by the television, radio, film, print and the Internet.³ Referring to the UNESCO definition that outlines the media education as a priority field of the cultural and educational development of the 21st century, Fedorov for the media education says:

- deals with all communication media and includes the printed word and graphics, the sound, still and moving images, that has emerged with any type of the technology;
- enables people to gain understanding of the communication media used in their society and the way they operate as well as to acquire skills using these media to communicate with others;
- analyze, critically reflects and creates media texts;
- identifies the sources of media texts, their political, social, commercial and-or cultural interests, and their context;
- interprets the messages and values offered by the media;
- selects an appropriate medium for the communication of his own messages or stories and reaching the target audience;
- gains or requires the access to media for both the reception and production.

The reasons for learning about the media include⁴:

- exceptional level of consumption of media
- the need to reduce manipulative media effects
- issues of dependence
- issues of data security
- all the necessary skills of creative text of direct media communication
- participatory democracy and active citizenship

Media education is required due to ubiquitous high level of media usage and media saturation of the society. If we aggregate the media messages that surround us, from television commercials, posters, internet, and even clothing, we are more exposed to media messages in one day only than our grandpa-

3 Fedorov, A. (2001). *Media Education:History, Theory and Methods*.

4 <http://mastercomunicacio.files.wordpress.com/2014/04/formal-education.pdf>

ma“ (Miletić, 2012: 230). Ishodište obrazovanja za medije je dostizanje određenog stepena opšte ili profesionalne medijske pismenosti.

Medijska pismenost je pretpostavka tzv.funkcionalne pismenosti, bez koje nije moguće zadovoljavanje individualnih i grupnih potreba ljudi u savremenom društvu.

Ruski teoretičar Aleksandar Fedorov smatra medijsku pismenost, rezultatom obrazovanja za medije, koja pomaže osobi da aktivno koristi mogućnost infomacionog polja koje televizija, radio, film, štampa i Internet omogućavaju.³ Pozivajući se na UNESCO-vu definiciju koja obrazovanje za medije definiše kako prioritetno polje kulturno obrazovnog razvoja 21. vijeka, Fedorov za obrazovanje za medije kaže:

- bavi se sa svim medijima komunikacije i uključuje štampanu riječ i grafike, zvuk, mirujuće, kao i pokretne slike, iznjedrene bilo kojom vrstom tehnologije;
- omogućava ljudima da steknu razumjevanje komunikacijskih medija korištenih u njihovom društvu i način na koji oni operišu i steknu vještine korištenjem ovih medija u komunikaciji sa ostalima
- osigurava ljudima da nauče kako
- analizira, kritički se osvrće i kreira medijske tekstove
- identifikuje izvore medijskih tekstova, njihov politički, socijalni, komercijalni i-ili kulturološke interese i njihov kontekst
- interpretira poruke i vrijednosti koje nude mediji;
- odabire prikladan medij za komunikaciju njegovih sopstvenih poruka ili priča i dostizanje ciljane publike
- zadobija ili zahtijeva pristup mediju kako za prijem, tako i za proizvodnju.

Razlozi za učenje o medijima uključuju⁴:

- nevjerojatni nivo potrošnje medija
- potrebu za smanjenjem manipulativnih medijskih efekata
- pitanjima zavisnosti
- pitanjima sigurnosti podataka
- sve neophodne vještine kreativnog teksta neposredne medijske komunikacije
- participativne demokratije i aktivnog građanstva

Obrazovanje za medije potrebno je zbog sveprisutnog visokog stepena upotrebe medija i zasićenja društva medijima. Kad se zbroje medijske poruke kojima smo okruženi, od televizijskih reklama, do plakata, interneta, pa čak i odjeće, izloženi smo medijskim porukama u jednome danu više nego što su to naši djedovi bili u jednoj godini. Obrazovanje za medije uči

³ Fedorov, A. (2001). *Media Education: History, Theory and Methods*.

⁴ <http://mastercomunicacio.files.wordpress.com/2014/04/formal-education.pdf>

rents were in a year. Media education teaches us how to navigate this sea of messages throughout the life. Media education provides critical knowledge and analytical tools that will empower media consumers to function as autonomous and rational citizens, enabling them to critical use of the media. Media education helps people as well-informed and responsible citizens, to be able to take some distance towards the immediate pleasures that media can provide.

GRUNWALD DECLARATION ON MEDIA EDUCATION

Thirty two years ago, in 1982, at an international meeting of experts in Grunwald in Germany, UNESCO has published a Declaration on Media Education. The Declaration Grunwald is a compact and a powerful explanation of a lasting significance. It argues that the media are increasingly important and powerful force in the contemporary society, thus a coherent and systematic form of an education about the mass media should be seen as an essential component, in fact, a prerequisite of the modern citizenship.

In its definition of media education, the Declaration Grunwald reflects several key emphases shared by most of the media educators today:

- **Media education is engaged in all media**, including media of moving images (film, television, video), radio and recorded music, printed media (especially newspapers and magazines), and the new digital communication technologies. Aims to develop widespread literacy, not only in relation to the press, but also in a symbolic system of images and sound.
- **Media education is dealing with teaching and learning about the media**. This should not be confused with teaching through the media - for example, the use of television or computer as a means of learning about science or history. Media education is not about the use of media as teaching aids, it should not be confused with educational technology or educational media.
- **Media education aims to develop the critical understanding and active participation**. It enables young people to interpret and make informed judgments as users of the media, but also allows them to become producers of the media in their favor, and thus become more powerful participants in the society. Media education is about developing critical and creative skills of young people.
- **Media education is a common term that encompasses all educational activities related to media theory and practice**. Media education can be defined as: teaching practice that aims to develop media competence,

nas kako ploviti tim morem poruka tokom cijelog života. Obrazovanje za medije pruža kritičko znanje i analitičke alate koji će osnažiti medijske potrošače da funkcionišu kao autonomni i racionalni građani, omogućavajući im da kritički iskoriste medije. Obrazovanje za medije pomaže ljudima da kao dobro informisani i odgovorni građani, budu u stanju da preuzmu određenu distancu prema neposrednim zadovoljstvima koje mediji mogu da obezbjude.

DEKLARACIJA GRUNWALD O MEDIJSKOM OBRAZOVANJU

Prije trideset dvije godine, 1982. godine, na međunarodnom susretu eksperata u Grunwald-u Njemačkoj, UNESCO je objavio Deklaraciju o medijskom obrazovanju. Deklaracija Grunwald je jezgrovito i moćno obrazloženje od trajnog značaja. Ona tvrdi da su mediji sve značajnija i moćnija sila u savremenim društvima, i da koherentni i sistematski oblik edukacije o masovnim medijima mora se posmatrati kao bitna komponenta, u stvari, preduslov modernog državljanstva.

U svojoj definiciji medijskog obrazovanja, Grunvaldska deklaracija odražava nekoliko ključnih naglasaka koje dijeli većina medijskih edukatora današnjice:

- **Medijsko obrazovanja bavi se svim medijima**, uključujući medije pokretnih slika (film, televizija, video), radio i snimljene muzike, štampanih medija (posebno novine i časopisi), i nove digitalne komunikacione tehnologije. Ima za cilj da razvije široku rasprostranjenu pismenost, ne samo u odnosu na štampu, već i u simboličnom sistemu slika i zvuka.
- **Medijsko obrazovanje se bavi sa podučavanjem i učenjem o medijima.** Ovo ne bi trebalo miješati sa podučavanjem putem medija – na primjer, upotreba televizije ili računara kao sredstva učenja nauke ili istorije. Medijsko obrazovanje nije o upotrebi medija kao učila, ne bi ga trebalo miješati sa obrazovnom tehnologijom ili obrazovnim medijima.
- **Medijsko obrazovanje ima za cilj da razvije i kritičko razumevanje i aktivno učešće.** Ono omogućava mladim ljudima da tumače i donose informisane presude kao korisnici medija, ali i omogućava im da postanu proizvođači medija u njihovu korist, i tako postanu moćniji učesnici u društvu. Medijsko obrazovanje je o razvijanju kritičke i kreativne sposobnosti mladih ljudi.
- **Medijsko obrazovanje je zajednički pojam koji obuhvata sve obrazovne aktivnosti vezane za medije u teoriji i praksi.** Medijsko obrazovanje se može definisati kao: nastavne prakse čiji je cilj razvijanje medijske kompetencije, shvaćene kao kritički i razborit stav prema medijima

understood as a critical and sensible attitude towards the media in order to create a balanced citizens who are able to own exercise judgment based on available information. It allows them to access the necessary information, analysis and the ability to identify the economic, political, social and cultural interests that lie behind them. Media education teaches individuals to interpret and produce messages, selecting the most appropriate media for communication and, finally, to play a greater role in the media supply and production.⁵

- **Media education is a critical analysis of social media aiming to raise awareness and understanding of how the media work**, whoever really controls and shapes, the role of professionals, as well as advertising, marketing and public relations in shaping their content, and the different ways in which audiences interpret media messages. Several conferences sponsored by UNESCO, most of which took place in Europe, promoted what is called “Education through the screen,” and later the “Film Studies,” “Media Studies,” “Media Literacy,” “Educommunication” “Media Pedagogy,” “Education for Communication.”

Media education cannot come into general use without any effort to raise people’s awareness and to mobilize all stakeholders, especially policy makers at a high level in all countries. Behind the actions taken at national level to mobilize public opinion, UNESCO, in cooperation with other international or regional organizations such as the Council of Europe and the European Union, launched a number of initiatives, including:

- international campaign to raise awareness about the importance of media education for the training of citizens of the 21st century;
- international meetings of Ministers of Education aiming the strong mobilization in favor of the integration of media education in educational policy;
- inclusion in UNESCO’s network of schools and clubs on media education and create festivals for productions of young people

The work of UNESCO in the field of media education is based on the “The Declaration Grunwald on the Media Education“ and „The New Directions in Media Education“. In Vienna in 1999, a conference entitled „Education for the Media and the Digital Age“ was held⁶. Then, a seminar in Seville, “Education for Youth Media” in 2002, and the conference in Paris in 2012, which issued twelve recommendations for the development of media education, especially in the information society and the globalization of kno-

⁵ Council of Europe, The Annual Report 2000

⁶ Council of Europe, The Annual Report 2000

radi formiranja uravnoteženih građana koji su sposobni da sami rasuđuju na osnovu dostupnih informacija. Ono im omogućava pristup potrebnim informacijama, njihovu analizu i sposobnost identifikacije ekonomskih, političkih, socijalnih i kulturnih interesa koji se nalaze iza njih. Medijsko obrazovanje uči pojedince da tumače i proizvode poruke, da odabiru najpogodnije medije za komuniciranje i, konačno, da igraju veću ulogu u medijskoj ponudi i proizvodnji.⁵

- **Medijsko obrazovanje je kritična društvena analiza medija s ciljem podizanja svijesti i razumijevanja načina rada medija**, onoga ko ih stvarno kontroliše i oblikuje, uloge profesionalaca, kao i reklamiranja, marketinga i odnosa sa javnošću u oblikovanju njihovog sadržaja, te različitih načina na koje publika tumači poruke medija. Nekoliko konferencija koje je sponzorisao UNESCO, od kojih je većina održana u Evropi, promovisale su ono što je nazvano "Obrazovanje putem ekrana", a kasnije i "Filmske studije", "Medijske studije", "Medijska pismenost", "Edukomunikacija", "Medijska pedagogija," "Obrazovanje za komunikacije".

Obrazovanje za medije ne može da dođe u opštu upotrebu bez napora da se podigne svijest ljudi i da mobilise sve zainteresovane strane i posebno donosiocce političkih odluka na visokom nivou u svim zemljama. Iza akcija preduzetih na nacionalnom nivou da mobilise javno mnjenje, UNESCO je u saradnji sa drugim međunarodnim ili regionalnim organizacijama, kao što su Savjet Evrope i Evropska unije pokrenuo niz inicijativa, među kojima su:

- međunarodna kampanja za podizanje svesti o značaju medijskog obrazovanja za obuku državljana 21 vijeka;
- međunarodni sastanci ministara obrazovanja koji imaju za cilj jaku mobilizaciju u korist integracije medijskog obrazovanja u obrazovne politike;
- uključivanje u UNESCO-ove mreže škola i klubova o medijskim obrazovanju i stvaranje festivala za produkcije mladih ljudi.

Rad UNESCO-a u oblasti medijskog obrazovanja zasnovan je na "Deklaraciji Grunvald o medijskom obrazovanju" i 'Novim pravcima u medijskom obrazovanju'. U Beču je 1999. godine . godine održana konferencija pod nazivom 'Obrazovanje za medije i digitalno doba'⁶ Zatim, seminar u Sevilji, „Obrazovanje za medije mladih“ 2002 godine, te konferencije u Parizu 2012. godine, na kojoj je doneseno dvanaest preporuka za razvijanje obrazovanja za medije, pogotovo u informacionom društvu i procesu globalizacije znanja

5 Vijeće Evrope, Izvještaj za 2000. godinu

6 Savjet Evrope , Izvještaj za 2000.godinu

wledge and content. Also, this year at the end of May, is planned a two-day conference at the UNESCO headquarters in Paris on themediaeducation.

EU AND THE MEDIA EDUCATION

The issue of media education was dealt by The Council of Europe, especially the Council for Cultural Cooperation and the Steering Committee on the Mass Media. The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe has also adopted series of documents that to some extent are dealing with issues of media education and media literacy, and, among the mentioned documents, the most important is the *Recommendation for the Media Education*, from 2000. Media education is defined as follows:

Media education can be defined as a teaching practice that aims to develop media competence, understood as a critical and sensible attitude towards the media, with the purpose of building balanced citizens, able to make their own informed judgments on the basis of available information. It allows them to access the necessary information, analyze them and identify the economic, political, social and/or cultural interests behind them. Media education teaches individuals to interpret and produce messages, to select the most appropriate medium for communication and, ultimately, to have a greater impact on the media supply and production.⁷

Since 2006, the European Commission has actively started to address the topic of media literacy in the European audiovisual policy and the Lisbon strategy in response to the calls of the European Parliament, the media industry and the industry of information and communication technologies. Experts Group for Media Literacy was formed, which had an advisory role for the European Commission. At the end of 2006 public consultations were held that were attended by representatives of media organizations, media industry, educational institutions, researchers, regulatory bodies for the media, and the various associations of citizens and media consumers.

In 2009, the Commission issued a Recommendation on Media Literacy in which it is recommended that Member States consider the introduction of media literacy in the mandatory curriculum. According to the paragraph 18, the media literacy should be addressed in different ways at different levels. The modalities of inclusion of the media literacy in school curricula at all levels are the primary responsibility of Member States.

The paragraph 21. emphasizes the importance of research:

„The Commission will encourage research projects of media literacy within existing programs“; and suggests that “to open up the debate at con-

⁷ Council of Europe, Recommendation for the Media Education, 2000

i sadržaja. I ove godine za kraj maja planirana je dvodnevna konferencija u sjedištu UNESCO-a u Parizu o obrazovanju za medije.

EU I OBRAZOVANJE ZA MEDIJE

Savjet Evrope se bavio pitanjem medijskog obrazovanja, naročito Vijeće za kulturnu saradnju i Upravni komitet za masovne medije.

Parlamentarna skupština Savjeta Evrope također je usvojila niz dokumenata koji se u izvjesnoj mjeri bave pitanjima obrazovanja za medije i medijske pismenosti, a među navedenim dokumentima najznačajnija je *Preporuka o obrazovanju za medije* iz 2000. godine. Obrazovanje za medije na sljedeći način je definisano :

„Obrazovanje za medije se može definisati kao nastavna praksa koja nastoji razviti medijske kompetencije, shvaćene kao kritički i razuman stav prema medijima, s ciljem izgradnje uravnoteženih građana, sposobnih za donošenje vlastitih sudova na temelju raspoloživih informacija. Ono im omogućava da pristupe potrebnim informacijama, analiziraju ih i identifikuju ekonomske, političke, društvene i / ili kulturne interese koji stoje iza njih. Obrazovanje za medije uči pojedince da tumače i proizvode poruke, da odaberu najprikladniji medij za komunikaciju i, na kraju, da imaju veći uticaj na medijsku ponudu i proizvodnju⁷.

Od 2006. godine, Evropska komisija je aktivnije počela da se bavi temom medijske pismenosti u okviru Evropske audiovizuelne politike i Lisabonske strategije kao odgovor na pozive Evropskog parlamenta, medijske industrije i industrije informacionih i komunikacionih tehnologija. Formirana je Ekspertna grupa za medijsku pismenost koja je imala savjetodavnu ulogu za Evropsku komisiju. Krajem 2006. godine održane su javne konsultacije, u kojima su učestvovali predstavnici medijskih organizacija, medijske industrije, obrazovnih institucija, istraživači, regulaciona tijela za medije, te različita udruženja građana i medijskih konzumenata. U 2009. godini Komisija je izdala *Preporuku o medijskoj pismenosti* u kojoj je preporučeno da države članice razmotre uvođenje medijske pismenosti u obavezujući nastavni plan i program. Prema tački 18, „Medijsku pismenost treba rješavati na različite načine na različitim nivoima. Modaliteti uključivanja medijske pismenosti u školske programe na svim nivoima su primarna odgovornost država članica.

Tačka 21 naglašava važnost istraživanja

„Komisija će ohrabriti istraživačke projekte medijske pismenosti u okviru postojećih programa“; i predlaže da se “otvori debata na konferencijama

⁷ Savjet Evrope, Preporuke o obrazovanju za medije, 2000.

ferences and other public events on the inclusion of media education and media literacy in the curriculum of mandatory education“.⁸

In their press release, the Commission's intentions are announced as follows:

„The way we use media is changing: the volume of information is huge and requires more and more from us. This is more than mere reading, writing or a computer use. The European Commission today warned that Europeans, young and old, could miss the advantages of today's information (high-tech) society, unless put more work on own „media literacy“, sufficient for access, analysis and assessment of images, sound and text, using traditional and new media to communicate and create media content. The Commission said that the EU countries and the media industry need to increase awareness of the many media messages that people encounter, be they advertisements, movies or online content. (...) „However, for people who cannot use the new media like social networks or digital television will be difficult to communicate and participate in the world around them. We have to do that all are the media literate, that no one is left out.“ (...)The education is a national competence, and the Commission today urged EU countries to open a debate on how to make for the media literacy a prominent place in schools.

The European Commission has concluded the definition of the media literacy, which is valid and accepted by members of the media experts of the European Commission „The aim of the media literacy is to increase awareness of the many forms of media messages we encounter in our daily lives. It should help citizens to recognize how the media filter their perceptions and beliefs, influence and shape popular culture and personal choices. This should enable them to critical thinking and creative problem solving skills, making them reasonable consumers and producers of information. Media education is a part of the basic rights of every citizen, in every country in the world, to freedom of expression and to right to information and tools in building the sustaining democracy.“

The goal of the media literacy is to increase people's awareness about the many forms of media messages encountered in everyday life. Media messages are programs, films, images, texts, sounds and sites that are holders of various forms of communication. The Media literacy is a matter of inclusion and citizenship in today's information society. It is a basic skill not only for young people but also for adults and seniors, parents, teachers and media professionals. The Media literacy is now considered as one of the key prerequisites for an active and full citizenship in order to prevent and minimize the risk of exclusion from the community life.

⁸ European Commission, Recommendation on Media Literacy, 2009

i drugim javnim događajima o uključivanju obrazovanja za medije i medijske pismenosti u nastavni plan i program obaveznog obrazovanja“.⁸

U saopštenju za javnost, prenose se namjere Komisije u sljedećem obliku:

„Način na koji koristimo mediji se mijenja: obim informacija je ogroman i zahtijeva sve više i više od nas. To je više nego puko čitanje, pisanje ili korištenje računara. Evropska komisija je danas upozorila da bi Evropljani, mladi i stari mogli propustiti prednosti današnjeg informacionog (high-tech) društva, osim ako se više radi na njihovom” medijskom opismenjavanju” dovoljnom za pristup, analiziraju i vrijednovanje slike, zvuka i tekstova, koristeći tradicionalne i nove medije u komuniciranju i stvaranju medijskih sadržaja. Komisija je rekla: zemlje EU i medijska industrija treba da povećaju svijest o mnogim medijskim porukama koje ljudi susreću, bilo da su oglasi, filmovi ili onlajn sadržaji. (...) “Međutim, ljudima koji ne mogu da koriste nove medije poput društvenih mreža ili digitalne televizije biće teško da komuniciraju i učestvuju u svijetu oko njih. Moramo učiniti da su svi medijski pismeni, da niko nije izostavljen. (...) Obrazovanje je nacionalna nadležnost, a Komisija je danas pozvala zemlje EU da otvore debatu o tome kako da daju medijskoj pismenosti istaknuto mjesto u školama.

Evropska komisija je zaključila definiciju medijske pismenosti koja je validna i prihvaćena od strane članova medijskih eksperata Evropske komisije “Cilj medijske pismenosti je da se poveća svijest o mnogim oblicima medijskih poruka na koje nailazimo u našem svakodnevnom životu. To bi trebalo da pomogne građanima da prepoznaju kako mediji filtriraju njihova shvatanja i vjerovanja, oblikuju i utiču na popularnu kulturu i lične izbore. To bi trebalo da ih osposobi za kritičko razmišljanje i kreativne vještine rješavanja problema čineći ih razumnim potrošačima i proizvođačima informacija. Obrazovanje za medije je dio osnovnog prava svakog građanina, u svakoj zemlji na svijetu, na slobodu izražavanja i prava na informisanje i instrument je u izgradnji i održavanju demokratije “

Cilj medijske pismenosti je da se poveća svijest ljudi o mnogobrojnim oblicima medijskih poruka s kojima se susreću u svakodnevnom životu. Medijske poruke su programi, filmovi, slike, tekstovi, zvuci i sajtovi koji su nosioci različitih oblika komunikacije. Medijska pismenost je pitanje inkluzije i građanstva u današnjem informacionom društvu. To je osnovna vještina ne samo za mlade ljude, već i za odrasle i starije osobe, roditelje, nastavnike i medijske profesionalce. Medijska pismenost se danas smatra jednim od ključnih preduslova za aktivno i puno građanstvo u cilju sprečavanja i umanjenja rizika od isključenosti iz života zajednice.

⁸ Evropska komisija, Preporuke o medijskoj pismenosti, 2009.

The reference material on the media literacy published by the European Commission⁹ puts the primary focus of development in the following three areas:

1. Online Content

- empowering users to a critical assessment of the online content
- extending the digital creativity and production skills and encouraging awareness of copyright issues
- ensuring that the benefits of the information society are enjoyed by all, including people who are disadvantaged due to limited resources or education, age, gender, ethnicity, persons with disabilities (e-accessibility), as well as those who live in less fortunate areas (all of them are covered under e-inclusion)
- awareness of how search engines work (prioritization of answers, etc.) and learning to better use search engines

2. Commercial Communications

- giving tools to young audiences in order to develop a critical approach to commercial communication, enabling them to make informed decisions
- encouraging public / private financing in this area with adequate transparency

3. Audiovisual Works

- provide, especially to young European audiences, a better knowledge of our film heritage and the growing interest in these films and in recent European films
- promote the acquisition of skills and creativity of production of audiovisual media works
- understanding the importance of copyright, from the perspective of both consumers and content creators

A study titled *The Study of Current Trends and Approaches to the Media Literacy in Europe* is an important source of references for the policy of the media literacy in the Commission. This refers to the document also supported by the Commission and the relevant European Charter of a media literacy, which appoints the seven competency areas (or benefits) related to the media literacy:

- effectively use the media technology to access, retrieve and share content to meet their individual and social needs and interests;
- access to and make of informed choices about a wide range of media forms and content from a variety of cultural and institutional sources;
- to understand how and why the media content is produced;

⁹ The European approach to the media literacy in the digital environment, 2007

Referentni materijal o medijskoj pismenosti objavljen od strane Evropske komisije⁹ stavlja primarni fokus razvoja na sledeće tri oblasti:

1. sadržaji sa interneta

- osnaživanje korisnika za kritičku procjenu online sadržaja
- produžavanje digitalne kreativnosti i proizvodnju vještine i podsticanje svijesti o pitanjima autorskih prava
- obezbjeđenje da prednosti informacionog društva uživaju svi, uključujući i ljude koji su u nepovoljnom položaju zbog ograničenih resursa ili obrazovanja, starosti, pola, etničke pripadnosti, osobe sa invaliditetom (e-pristupačnost), kao i onih koji žive u manje srećnim područjima (svi oni su obuhvaćeni pod e -uključivanja)
- podizanje svijesti o tome kako pretraživači rade (prioriteta odgovora, itd) i učenje za bolje korišćenje pretraživača

2. komercijalna komunikacija

- davanje alata mladoj publici da razvijaju kritički pristup komercijalnoj komunikaciji, omogućavajući im da donose informisane odluke
- podsticanje javno / privatnog finansiranja u ovoj oblasti sa adekvatnom transparentnosti

3. audiovizuelna djela

- pružaju, posebno mladoj evropskoj publici, bolje znanje o našoj filmskoj baštini i sve veće interesovanje u ovim filmovima i u poslednjih nekoliko evropskih filmova
- promovišu sticanje vještina i kreativnosti proizvodnje audiovizuelnih medijskih sadržaja
- shvatanje značaja autorskih prava, iz perspektive i potrošača i kreatora sadržaja

Studija pod nazivom Studija o aktuelnim trendovima i pristupi medijska pismenost u Europe je važan izvor referenci za politiku medijske pismenosti u Komisiji. To se odnosi na dokument takođe podržan od strane Komisije i pripadajući Evropskom poveljom medijske pismenosti, koja imenuje sedam oblasti nadležnosti (ili koristi) koje se odnose na medijsku pismenost:

- efikasno koristiti medijske tehnologije za pristup, preuzimanje i dijeljenje sadržaja u cilju ispunjenja svojih pojedinačnih i društvenih potreba i interesa;
- pristup, i donošenje informisanih izbora o širokom spektru medijskih formi i sadržaja iz različitih kulturnih i institucionalnih izvora;
- razumjeti kako i zašto se proizvodi medijski sadržaj;
- kritički analizirati tehnike, jezik i konvencije korišćene u medijima, kao i poruke koje oni prenose;

⁹ Evropski pristup medijskoj pismenosti u digitalnom okruženju, 2007

- to critically analyze techniques, language and conventions used in the media and the messages they convey;
- to use the media for creative expression and communication by ideas, information and opinions;
- to identify, avoid or exclude the media content and services that may be unwanted, offensive or harmful;
- effectively use the media to exercise their democratic rights and civic responsibilities.

The Council of Europe and the European Union as the most significant contribution to the maximum value of THE media literacy emphasizes its role in enabling citizens to participate in democratic processes in the society to which they belong. Thus, *The Study on the Criteria for Assessing the Level of Media Literacy* states that the ultimate focus of media literacy is development of individual critical understanding and citizen participation (i.e., strengthening the interaction of people in the public life through the media and through the development of individual skills of critical understanding of the media literacy in the socio-political sphere)(EAVI, 2010: 9).¹⁰

SITUATION IN BH AND REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

In BiH, the Stabilization and Association Agreement has not yet entered into force, although it was signed on June 16, 2008. Regardless of when they will overcome everyday Bosnian-Herzegovinian problems, the fact is that the road to EU inevitable.

Despite the increased development of new technologies and new media in a society, in Bosnia and Herzegovina there is no sufficient public debate on issues related to media education and media literacy. New media environment, in which consumers are more active and take more responsibility for their media consumption, requires more than just an adequate legal framework to ensure the effective protection of minors. Different actors, such as relevant ministries, regulators, the media industry, academia and non-governmental sector must collaborate, initiate and implement various initiatives.

So far, the academic community has shown little interest in the issue of such importance. It is negligible number of projects that deal directly with this issue, or mechanisms for evaluating the level of media education among different population groups. In the field of media education there is no systematic approach to increase the level of media literacy among children and adults. Education of teachers, parents, children and the media consumer

¹⁰ According Tejić, L. (2013), Media literacy in BH, Sarajevo: Internews

- koristiti medije za kreativno izražavanje i komuniciranje idejama, informacijama i mišljenjima;
- identifikovati, izbjeći ili izuzeti medijski sadržaj i usluge koji mogu biti neželjeni, uvrijedljivi ili štetni;
- efikasno koristiti medije u ostvarivanju svojih demokratskih prava i građanskih odgovornosti.

Savjet Evrope i Evropska unija kao najznačajniji doprinos i najveću vrijednost medijske pismenosti ističe njenu ulogu u osposobljavanju građana za učešće u demokratskim procesima u društvu kojem pripadaju. Tako se u *Studiji o kriterijima za procjenu nivoa medijske pismenosti* navodi da je ultimativni fokus medijske pismenosti razvoj individualnog kritičkog razumijevanja i građanske participacije (tj., jačanje i interakcija ljudi u javnom životu putem medija i na osnovu razvoja individualnih sposobnosti kritičkog razumijevanja medijske pismenosti u društveno-političkoj sferi) (EAVI, 2010: 9).¹⁰

SITUACIJA U BIH I REPUBLICI SRPSKOJ

U BiH još nije stupio na snagu Sporazum o stabilizaciji i pridruživanju iako je potpisan 16. juna 2008. godine. Bez obzira kada će se prevazići svakodnevni bosansko-hercegovački problemi, činjenica je da je put ka EU neminovnost.

Usprkos povećanom razvoju novih tehnologija i novih medija u društvu, u Bosni i Hercegovini ne postoji dovoljna javna rasprava o pitanjima u vezi sa medijskim obrazovanjem i medijskom pismenošću. Novo medijsko okruženje u kojem su potrošači sve aktivniji i preuzimaju veću odgovornost za svoju medijsku potrošnju zahtijeva više od samo adekvatnog pravnog okvira kako bi se osigurala efikasna zaštita maloljetnika. Različiti učesnici, kao što su nadležna ministarstva, regulatori, medijska industrija, akademska zajednica i nevladin sektor, moraju saradivati, pokretati i implementirati razne inicijative.

Do sad je akademska zajednica pokazala malo interesa za pitanje od takve važnosti. Zanimljiv je broj istraživačkih projekata koji se direktno bave ovom temom, ili mehanizmima za procjenu nivoa medijskog obrazovanja među različitim grupama stanovništva. U području obrazovanja za medije ne postoji sistematski pristup s ciljem povećanja nivoa medijske pismenosti kod djece i odraslih. Obrazovanje nastavnika, roditelja, djece i medijskih potrošača generalno nije zadovoljavajuće s obzirom na tehnološke aspekte novih medija, kao što su korištenje, potencijalne prijetnje i mehanizmi za-

¹⁰ Prema Tejić, L. (2013); *Medijska pismenost u BiH*, Sarajevo: Internews.

is generally not satisfactory in view of the technological aspects of new media, such as the use, potential threats and protection mechanisms, as well as the principles of production and the economic principles on which the different media operate, aimed at improving their ability to safely use and to value various media content. According to data from the Communications Regulatory Agency of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2004, the Internet was used by only 15.1% of the population (585,000), while until the end of December 2013; this percentage was 56.9% or 2,188,249. At the same time, in 2004 in Bosnia and Herzegovina the internet service was provided by 42 internet service providers, and in 2013 the number was 69.

As for the experience of European countries, the ministry of education and culture are responsible for the promotion of media literacy and the development of strategies for media education. Increasingly, the regulatory bodies for the electronic media have jurisdiction in this area. The Ministry of Education and Culture, as well as the Ministry of Science of the Republic of Srpska in their strategies have not planned activities related to the media education. The same can be stated for the BiH Ministry of Civil Affairs, the education sector, as well as the Federal Ministry of Education and Science.

Following the current regulatory practice in Europe and the latest trends, the Communications Regulatory Agency of Bosnia and Herzegovina has taken over the task of promoting media education and awareness about responsible and safe use of all media services.¹¹ The Agency, alone in that action, cannot expect huge and important results. As an positive example can be cited the decision of the Government of the Republic of Srpska, which in January issued a long-awaited decision on the establishment of the Republic of Srpska Committee for the Fight against hate speech on the Internet, as an advisory body to the Government of the Srpska „to prevent and combat hate speech, racism and discrimination on the Internet“. The Decision of the Government the Republic of Srpska on the establishment of the Committee stipulates that the committee members will develop an action plan of the Republic of Srpska campaign to fight hate speech on the Internet, and that they will carry out the necessary preparatory work for the implementation of the campaign, organizing all related events, coordination and monitoring of activities in the Srpska and the implementation of cooperation with domestic and foreign competent authorities, local communities, institutions and organizations dealing with this issue. However, by the decision to establish the Committee has not defined how the advisory body will

¹¹ Communications Regulatory Agency was established on March 2, 2001 by the merge of the jurisdiction of the Independent Media Commission and the Telecommunications Regulatory Agency that were previously operated separately. The Agency operates at the state level, and its mandate is defined by the Law on Communications (Official Gazette of BiH, No. 31/03), which was originally imposed by the High Representative in October 2002, and the Parliamentary Assembly adopted it in September 2003.

štite, kao i načela vezanih za proizvodnju i ekonomske principe na osnovu kojih djeluju različiti mediji, koji su usmjereni na poboljšanje njihove sposobnosti da sigurno koriste i cijene razne medijske sadržaje. Prema podacima Regulatorne agencije za komunikacije u Bosni i Hercegovini je 2004. godine internet koristilo svega 15,1% stanovnika (585 000), dok je krajem decembra 2013. godini taj procenat iznosio 56,9% ili 2 188 249. Istovremeno, u 2004. godini u Bosni i Hercegovini je internet usluge pružalo 42 internet provajdera, a 2013. godine taj broj je iznosio 69.

Što se tiče iskustava evropskih zemalja, ministarstva obrazovanja i kulture nadležna su za promociju medijske pismenosti i razvijanje strategija obrazovanja za medije. Sve češće i regulatorna tijela za elektronske medije imaju nadležnosti u ovoj oblasti. Ministarstvo prosvjete i kulture, kao ni Ministarstvo nauke Republike Srpske, u svojim strategijama nemaju planirane aktivnosti u vezi sa obrazovanjem za medije. Isto se može konstatovati za Ministarstvo civilnih poslova BiH, sektor obrazovanja, kao i za Federalno ministarstvo obrazovanja i nauke.

Prateći trenutne regulatorne prakse u Evropi i najnovije trendove, Regulatorna agencija za komunikacije Bosne i Hercegovine je preuzela zadaću unapređenja medijskog obrazovanja i podizanja svijesti o odgovornom i sigurnom korištenju svih medijskih usluga.¹¹ Usamljena u toj akciji ne može očekivati velike i značajane rezultate. Kao pozitivan primjer može se navesti potez Vlade Republike Srpske, koja je u januaru donijela dugo najavljivanu odluku o formiranju Komiteta Republike Srpske za borbu protiv govora mržnje na internetu, kao savjetodavnog tijela Vlade Srpske „radi sprečavanja i suzbijanja govora mržnje, rasizma i diskriminacije na internetu“. Odlukom Vlade Republike Srpske o formiranju Komiteta definisano je da će članovi Komiteta izraditi akcioni plan kampanje Republike Srpske za borbu protiv govora mržnje na internetu, te da će sprovoditi potrebne pripreme aktivnosti za sprovođenje kampanje, organizovanje svih pratećih događaja, koordinaciju i praćenje aktivnosti u Srpskoj kao i realizaciju saradnje sa domaćim i stranim nadležnim organima, lokalnim zajednicama, ustanovama i organizacijama koje se bave ovim pitanjem. Međutim, odlukom o formiranju Komiteta nije definisano na koji način će savjetodavno tijelo spriječiti i suzbiti govor mržnje na internet, ali je Vlada RS na ovaj način podržala inicijativu Evropske komisije koja je taj komitet formirala u 38 zemalja svijeta.

11 Regulatorna agencija za komunikacije je osnovana 2. marta, 2001. godine spajanjem nadležnosti Nezavisne komisije za medije i Regulatorne agencije za telekomunikacije koje su do tada radile odvojeno. Agencija djeluje na državnom nivou i njen mandat je definisan Zakonom o komunikacijama BiH (Službeni glasnik BiH, br.31/03), koji je prvobitno nametnut Odlukom Visokog predstavnika u oktobru 2002. godine, a Parlamentarna skupština BiH ga je usvojila u septembru 2003. godine.

prevent and suppress the hate speech on the internet, but the RS Government in this way supported the initiative of the European Commission that established the Committee in 38 countries around the world.

CONCLUSION

Critical media education involves training of young people in the interpretation and understanding of the stereotypes that are explicitly and implicitly in presence in a variety of media products.

Media education is not just for young people but also for adults whose main source of information and knowledge are media. In this context, media education is a process of quality lifelong learning. It is important to provide to adults who do not have this opportunity with continuous training modules that will help them become freer and more active citizens in the community. Tools of various kinds must be made available to them to raise awareness and train them. Continuous training and self-training for adults should be implemented at the local level with the support of civil society groups, non-governmental organizations and experts.

Douglas Kellner points out that the audience can successfully confront various forms of media manipulation in the way that they use their culture as a source of their own power and create their own meanings, identities and forms of life. The author speaks of "critical media pedagogy" and calls for the development of methods of "critical media education", which means that young people develop a critical attitude towards media representations and discourses. More specifically, young people should be taught how to use the media as an instrument of social change, to master the selection criteria used and the information provided by the media and to introduce alternative forms of media culture (Internet, independent film and video production). It is pointed out that the media culture and its contents that are adduced to viewers, contribute to the democratization of society but may pose obstacles to the process, if promote undemocratic values (for example, racial prejudice or sexist messages).¹²

Media education is supposed to be developed within the framework of interdisciplinary studies (education, information and communication, sociology, etc.) and in a close connection with studies of pedagogical innovation, the role and impact of technology in education and training, especially in e-learning, as well as those focused on citizenship, human rights and sustainable development.

¹² Kellner, D. (2004), *Media Culture*, Beograd: Clio

ZAKLJUČAK

Kritičko medijsko obrazovanje podrazumeva i osposobljavanje mladih u tumačenju i razumjevanju stereotipa koji su eksplicitno i implicitno prisutni u različitim medijskim proizvodima.

Obrazovanje za medije nije samo za mlade ljude, već i za odrasle čiji su glavni izvori informacija i znanja mediji. U tom kontekstu, obrazovanje za mediji je proces kvaliteta doživotnog učenja. Važno je da se obezbijedi odraslima, koji nemaju ovu priliku sa kontinuiranim modulom obuke koja će im pomoći da postanu slobodniji i aktivniji građani u društvu. Alati raznih vrsta moraju im se staviti na raspolaganje da se podigne svijest i trenirati ih. Kontinuirana obuka i samo-obuka odraslih trebalo bi da se sprovodi na lokalnom nivou uz podršku udruženja civilnog društva, nevladinih organizacija i eksperata.

Daglas Kelner ističe da publika može uspješno da se suprotstavi raznim vidovima medijske manipulacije na taj način što će koristiti svoju kulturu kao izvor vlastite moći i stvaranja sopstvenih značenja, identiteta i oblika života. Autor govori o "kritičkoj medijskoj pedagogiji", odnosno zalaže se za razvoj metode "kritičkog medijskog obrazovanja" koja podrazumjeva da mladi izgrade kritički odnos prema medijskim predstavama i diskursima. Preciznije, mladi treba da se podučavaju kako da koriste medije kao instrumente društvenih promjena, da ovladaju kriterijumima za selekciju i vrijednovanje informacija koje plasiraju mediji i da upoznaju alternativne oblike medijske kulture (internet, nezavisna filmska i video produkcija). Ističe se da medijska kultura i njeni sadržaji koji se plasiraju gledaocima, doprinose demokratizaciji društva ali mogu predstavljati i prepreke za taj proces ukoliko promovišu nedemokratske vrijednosti (na primer, rasne predrasude ili seksističke poruke).¹²

Obrazovanje za medije bi trebalo da se razvija u okviru interdisciplinarnih istraživanja (obrazovanje, informacije i komunikacije, sociologije, itd), te da bude u tijesnoj vezi sa studijama o pedagoškim inovacijama, o ulozi i uticaju tehnologija u obrazovanju i obuci, a posebno na e-učenja, kao i sa onima fokusiranim na državljanstvo, ljudska prava i održivi razvoj.

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