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AND JURIDICAL RESEARCH



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## *CONTENTS*

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|  |    |
|--|----|
| Foreword .....   | 7  |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Besa Arifi<br>The Rights of Victims of Crime – A Comparative Approach .....  | 9  |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Kalina Lechevska<br>On the Margines of the Macedonian Society .....  | 21 |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Eleonora Serafimovska, Marijana Markovik, Ivan Trajkov<br>Political Crisis, Media and Emotions.....                                    | 31 |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Ganka Cvetanova, Irena Bojadzievska, Veno Pachovski<br>E-democracy and Levels of Citizen Involvement in the Republic of Macedonia..... | 45 |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Mirjana Borota Popovska, Marija T. Latkovikj<br>Competency-based Education Curriculum for HR Professionals .....                       | 57 |
| <hr/>  |    |
| Petar Atanasov, Emilija Simoska, Bojana Naumovska<br>The Students' Ethnic Identity Dilemmas .....                                      | 69 |
| <hr/>  |    |

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## FOREWORD

It's my pleasure to introduce the latest issue of the international scientific journal Annual of the Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research, especially because this year we celebrate the 40-years anniversary of its publishing. Each new number of the Annual represents a certain enrichment of the domestic and international scientific literature in the field of social sciences, and as well a useful source of information for the members of the academic community, creators of the national programs and policies, practitioners and students. The high interest and positive evaluations of the previous issues stimulate us to advance the contents and to contribute to the development of the scientific thought on a wider level and continuously.

For this issue, six scientific papers are selected, which have been positively evaluated by the reviewers with recommendations for their publication in our scientific journal. These papers, by using a contemporary methodological approach, analyze topics from different research and social interest: the rights of criminal victims; problems of the LGBT community; media and emotions during politic crisis; e-democracy and citizens' involvement; competency-based education of HR professionals; and student's ethnic identity.

We are open for collaboration and suggestions, and we hope for a higher response from our colleagues for the next issues of the Annual.

Prof. Mirjana Borota Popovska, PhD

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## THE RIGHTS OF VICTIMS OF CRIME – A COMPARATIVE APPROACH

### Abstract

This article analyses the comparative approach regarding the role and the treatment of crime victims in three legal systems: The Common Law adversarial system, the European continental mostly inquisitorial system and the legal system of post-socialist countries. From the literature review and the normative analysis of criminal procedure codes of different countries some interesting conclusions emerge:

1. The role of the crime victim in the criminal procedure of continental countries is well defined and organized. The rights of the crime victim, such as: the right to access to justice, the right to compensation, the right to protection and the right to assistance, all find their particular place in the continental criminal procedure, whether that is a typical inquisitorial or an adversarial one. The victim can be compensated through the civil compensation claim decided within the criminal procedure, they can participate as active subjects of the procedure with specifically defined rights, whereas the examination process of the victim as a witness is supervised by the court and minimizes secondary victimization.
2. Common Law countries have more difficulties arranging a fair treatment of crime victims: they are excluded as active subjects of the criminal procedure (they only appear as witnesses), they cannot be compensated properly within the criminal procedure, they can be subjects of secondary victimization through the aggressive cross-examination process and they are excluded from the plea negotiation process.

Some efforts are made through introducing the Victim Personal Statement and the Compensation Order schemes, however, it shows insufficient.

3. Post-socialist countries are in the process of reforming their legislation regarding the role of the victim but also other issues. They need to combine the best parts of both the Common Law and the Civil Law legal systems in order to have an efficient and fair criminal procedure.

**Keywords:** victim, victim's rights, criminal procedure

## INTRODUCTION

The role of the victim as a passive subject of the criminal act but also of the criminal procedure has historically evolved in a very interesting way: from an active prosecutor in the past, the victim has slowly transformed into a passive and secondary subject whose role is limited in giving testimony as a witness of the crime. However, in the last decades, victim's role has re-emerged. The aim of this article does not consist into providing a historical perspective of the role of the crime victim, but to studying its position in a comparative aspect in different legal systems. Nowadays, certain internationally recognized rights of crime victims such as: the right to compensation, the right to access to justice, the right to protection and the right to special assistance, are interpreted and applied differently in common-law, civil-law and former socialist countries.

In regard to Macedonia, this comparative approach has served as the starting point of the process of reforming the criminal legislation. Thanks to this approach the role and the position of the crime victim has been visibly ameliorated in the new Criminal Procedure Code of 2010. Although there are some contradicting issues in the CPC, reforming the role of the victim is a positive and rare example in the South East European region.

### 1. COMMON LAW COUNTRIES: UK AND USA

The fact that the Victims' Rights Movement occurred and developed first in UK and USA is not a coincidence. By analysing the legislation of these countries a very clear impression arises: the role of the victim in the criminal law and procedure of these countries is extremely limited and it can be said without hesitation that such a position of the victims is inconvenient and in fact very unfair to them. This opinion is shared not only by many authors from the Continent but also by British and American authors. In the conclusions and recommendations of his book dedicated to victims' rights, human rights and the criminal procedure, *Doak* calls for introducing certain elements of the civil law system in the common law one with regard to victims' rights (Doak 2008: 285-292).

One of the most important rights of the victim is **the right to access in criminal procedure**. In the common law system the victim is almost entirely deprived of this right. Doak emphasizes that although this right is guaranteed in international criminal procedures, in the British criminal procedure the victims are merely "normative outsiders to the criminal trial: the showdown between the State and the accused" (Doak 2008: 138). This conclusion derives from the fact that victims in

England and Wales cannot even be present in criminal proceedings, they do not have the right of legal representation nor the right to provide evidence or to question the evidence of the opposite party. Other authors also react to this reality stating that the adversarial system “turns the victims into weapons to be used against the opposite party” (Pizzi 1999: 197).

Taking into account the above mentioned problems researchers call for application of Victim Advocacy Schemes. The main aim of this idea, still developing in England and Wales, is to secure adequate representation of the interests of the victim in criminal trials since the isolation of the victim in regard to law enforcement bodies, is perceived as unacceptable in a contemporary country.

In other common law countries there is a certain system of representing the victim in criminal proceedings. Thus, many federal states in USA recognize the right of the victim to legal representation especially in cases of violent crimes and sex crimes. In this regard 34 states of USA have adopted victims’ rights amendments in their constitutions which guarantee to the victim the right to take part in every phase of the criminal procedure (National Victims’ Rights Constitutional Amendment Passage 2010). There is an evident and continuous increase in the number of states accepting these amendments.

*Wolhuter et al.* explain that in regard to the crime victim, the US implement a different system in comparison to UK, whilst incorporating certain solutions from the civil-law system, although their criminal procedure is a typical adversarial one. Thus USA has adopted a federal law on the rights of victims of crime which guarantees certain rights such as:

- The right of the victim to be consulted before the prosecutor decides whether to press charges or not,
- The right of the victim to be consulted before reaching the decision on plea bargaining (however, it needs to be clarified that the victim does not have a right to veto regarding the plea bargaining decision, however, the victim is also not entirely excluded from this process like in UK),
- The right of the victim to provide a Victim Impact Statement: in US this statement is given orally before the court unlike in UK, and
- Victim’s right to legal representation is a legal right of the victim and efforts are being made for this right to become a constitutional right for the victim (Wolhuter et al. 2009: 183-186).

Legal representation for the victim is also possible in Ireland, but it is limited to victims of violent crimes and those of sex crimes (Doak 2008: 142).

In common-law countries there is an established practice for the victim to present her *Victim Personal Statement* or else known as the *Victim Impact Statement*. The

aim of this instrument is to give the possibility to the court to get to know the victim's perspective. These declarations however, do not have any relevant legal significance since the laws of these countries clearly state that there is no obligation for the courts to take account on these statements. *Sanders and Young* explain that these statements have in most cases shown to be irrelevant and frustrating to the victims (Sanders & Young 2007: 666-667).

In regard to victims' **right to protection** it can be stated that common law countries make serious efforts to implement programs on victim and witness protection regarding certain crimes. On the other hand, with regard to protection from secondary victimisation while examined in court, the cross-examination appears to be a serious problem for the victim. Although this form of interrogation is considered to be the most important asset of the common law criminal procedure; from the victim's perspective it can be intimidating, since the aggressive cross-examination often makes the victim feel like the perpetrator of the crime rather than its victim who becomes discouraged to report the crime while the witness becomes discouraged to report his knowledge of the case (Cutler 1953).

In regard to victim's **right to compensation and remedy**, the adversarial system of common law countries appears as problematic having in mind that in common-law countries there is no *civil compensation claim* within the criminal procedure. *Doak* explains that the victims usually hesitate to use civil suits to claim damages (Doak 2008: 231-232). For this reason, starting from 1973 *compensation orders* are used in England and Wales which appoint that one part of the fine paid by the defendant will be used to compensate the victim. It is far from the best way of ensuring the victim's right to compensation since this right needs to be separately guaranteed, not as a part of the fine that is paid by the defendant. However, full execution of this right in the common law system through the criminal procedure is impossible having in mind the strict division between *tort law* and *criminal law*.

On the other hand, in regard to victim's right to compensation, the common law countries have a special merit. They are the first countries in the world who established an official system of compensating crime victims through a state fund. This is the extra-judicial system of compensating the victim (when compensation from the defendant is not applicable) which is applied in UK since 1964 and represents a historic achievement of Margery Frey – leader of the Victims' Rights Movement (Doak 2008).

*Wolhuter et al.* explain that the British Government has adopted different documents related to compensation of crime victims, however, these documents are in most cases superficial and lack a real legal impact (Wolhuter et al. 2009: 129).

As it can be noticed, the rights of the victims in common-law countries are very limited and need crucial reforms. Therefore, the common law system was not taken

as an example while defining the role and the rights of the victims in the reformed criminal procedure legislation in RM.

## 2. CIVIL-LAW COUNTRIES

In the civil-law legal system the victim has a far more important role regardless of the fact whether the criminal procedure of a certain country is inquisitorial or adversarial. In the continent there is an evidently longer tradition of including the victim as an active subject of the criminal procedure, either as an assistant to the prosecution or as a claimer of the civil compensation claim within the criminal procedure (*Partie Civile*). Certain continental legislations provide a special status for the victim as a procedural party with all the respective rights. In this direction it can be easily noticed that the victim's right to actively participate in the criminal proceedings as well as victim's right to compensation have been developed earlier in the civil-law system. In the recent time, criminal procedure codes of European countries promote separate rights for the victim of crime, in particular the right to protection from secondary victimisation as well as the right to specific assistance. Most of the European countries have inquisitorial criminal procedures which is characterized by *Bacik et al.* as a judge-centered rather than party-centered procedure where the main court session is somewhat more relaxed since most of the work regarding the examination of the evidence has been completed in the investigation stage unlike in the adversarial system where the main court session is more complex and dynamic since it is there where the examination of evidence is done (Bacik et al. 1998: 234). This practice is not very different even in continental countries that have adversarial criminal procedures such as: Spain, Netherlands, Denmark and Portugal. On the other hand, the plea negotiation procedure is not very common in civil-law countries which are more biased to the principle of searching for the material truth.

First, it must be stated that every continental criminal procedure law makes the distinction "victim ⇔ damaged party", which separates the victims that are party to a criminal process from those who are not. In this regard, the German Law on Criminal Procedure (*Strafprozeßordnung*, StPO 1877) differentiates between the victim in a larger sense which includes the victim of every crime (*Opfer*) and the victim in the narrow sense which includes the victim as a damaged party (*Verletzte*). A similar way of differentiating between the roles of the victim is also evident in the criminal procedures of Sweden and Netherlands.

Starting from different names that the victim has in these legislations it can be seen that the civil-law system puts a specific attention upon this subject contrary to

the common law system where such terminological and procedural differences are not common.

In civil law countries, the right of the victim to actively participate in the criminal procedure is ensured as early as the investigation stage. Thus, *Walther* explains that in Germany the victim, regardless of her role as a witness or a separate party, has the right to a legal representative who will protect her rights starting in the investigation stage (Walther 2006: 114). If the prosecutor decides to withdraw from further investigation he needs to inform the victim on reasons of his withdrawal. The victim can complain against the withdrawal of the prosecutor to the higher rank of the Office of the prosecutor and after that to the first and second instances of the court, which represents a very strong mechanism for protecting the victim from the prosecutorial arbitrariness. On the contrary, in Macedonia, in cases when the prosecutor withdraws from his prosecution, the damaged party has the right to appeal only at the higher rank of the Office of the prosecutor. It can be concluded that the law in Macedonia offers limited support for the victim's claim against the prosecutor's decision, moreover, having in mind that it does not provide for a court solution of this issue.

Another very important right of the victim is the possibility to examine the evidence of the opposite party. The damaged party has this right automatically whereas the victim appearing as a witness needs to make a special request in order to make use of this right (article s406e(1) of StPO).

As of the right to compensation, the system of compensation claims within criminal procedures is crucial. This procedure is well established in all European countries (Brienen & Hoegen 2000). Compared to the British system of compensation orders, the civil compensation claim has certain advantages: the compensation order is given by the court regardless of any request from the damaged party, whereas the civil compensation claim is in fact a civil action that is processed within a criminal procedure for which the criminal court decides in a so called adhesive (joined) procedure. This is a better solution having in mind that: 1) the separate civil procedure usually costs more than the criminal procedure and 2) following a separate civil procedure takes more time and energy.

On the other hand, problems that occur in European countries regarding the civil compensation claims are related to the practice of directing these claims to civil procedures most of the time. To avoid that, the Dutch criminal procedure provides that compensation claims should be divided in simple and complex issues, the simple ones should be solved in criminal proceedings whereas the complex ones in a separate civil action (Ellison cited in Wolhuter et al. 2009: 194). There is a similar disposition in the article s406(1) of the German StPO that provides that the criminal court can decide: a) for the entire civil claim, or b) decide on the basis of

the claim or partially accept the claim. A similar solution is accepted in the CPC of RM of 2010.

The adhesive (joined) procedure related to the civil compensation claim is a very rational and humane solution regarding the quest for compensation of the victim, however, better mechanisms should be found for this practice to actually work within the criminal procedure and to stop the practice of automatically redirecting these cases in civil action suits.

The reforms in European legislations of the years 2000 aim to secure better assistance to crime victims including their compensation from state funds and also find better solutions to protect the victim from secondary victimisation using different technological means especially for vulnerable categories of victims. This is a very broad specter of victim's rights in comparison to the common law system, what makes the civil law system visibly more advanced in regard to protecting the rights of the crime victim.

### 3. SOUTH-EAST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

It is interesting to see the path of the legislative reforms in the SEE region after 1990 when the transition process started. All the regional legislations have undergone a process of different reforms in order to harmonize with European standards accepting elements from the adversarial and reforming their inquisitorial procedures. In comparative criminal law the legal system of post-socialist countries is considered a separate system although in essence it is a civil law legal system. Macedonia was also a part of these reforms undergoing a switch of the entire criminal procedure from inquisitorial to adversarial aiming to make the criminal process more dynamic.

As for the crime victim's position, it is interesting that these legislations did not make the difference "Victim ⇔ damaged party" until recently. Thus the victim could occur as: a) a damaged party with the right to pursue its compensation claim, b) a witness in the criminal process, c) a subsidiary prosecutor who continues the prosecution when the public prosecutor withdraws from the case in crimes prosecuted *ex officio*, d) a private suer for crimes prosecuted through private charges. It must be emphasized that the subsidiary prosecution represented a strong mechanism of control over the work of the public prosecutor as well as a great opportunity for the victim to be involved in criminal proceedings. Taking this into account, it is not by chance that some developed countries of the region, such as Croatia, have continued to use this institute.

The Croatian Criminal Procedure Code was the first in the region to make the



“Victim ⇔ damaged party” distinction, Macedonia soon followed this example with the CPC of 2010. Thus Croatia and Macedonia are the first countries in the region that provide specific rights for the victim in their legislations.

As for the other rights of the victim that are (in)directly included in the legislations of countries in this region the following conclusions can be made:

- *The right to compensation.* If the criminal procedure laws of Croatia, Macedonia, Albania, Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia are analysed, it can be seen that the civil compensation claim is the most common form of compensating the crime victim. It needs to be furtherly clarified that all these legislations also provide the possibility of mediation between the offender and the victim for less serious crimes which can also contribute to the compensation of damages.
- *The right to actively participate in the criminal process.* All the above mentioned legislations recognize the prosecutor, the defendant and the possibility to include the subsidiary prosecutor or the private suer as parties in the criminal process. The two latter subjects are not mentioned only in the Bosnian code. It is also characteristic that the Bosnian code was the first in the region to include the plea negotiation process. This was followed by the CPC of Macedonia. The impact of this procedure in the rights of the crime victim needs to be analyzed separately and thoroughly.
- *The right to protection.* All the above mentioned legislations have separate clauses that guarantee the protection of victims, witnesses and justice collaborators. It must be emphasized that some of these legislations also contain clauses on direct and cross examination that are vivid influences from the adversarial procedure.

The reforming process of the criminal legislations of the countries in this region is still ongoing and there is much to be done. It is important that the world trends in this matter, set by Western-European countries and the USA provide better protection for the crime victim.

## CONCLUSION

A general conclusion to be drawn from this short comparative analysis is that the crime victim is far better protected and their role is better defined and organized in the civil-law system which has traditionally promoted some very positive rights for the victim, such as the compensation claim within the criminal procedure, inclusion of the damaged party as a subsidiary prosecutor with clearly defined rights and in

some states with clearly distinct terminology, as well as the careful proceeding of the judicial panel in the process of interrogation of the crime victim.

On the other hand, the common-law system is characterized by a minimal and very limited inclusion of the crime victim. There is an evident trend of ameliorating this position (through Victims Impact Statements and Compensation Orders), however these efforts show to be insufficient because of some typical characteristics of the adversarial criminal procedure that make it hard for the victims to solve some of their problems such as: the lack of the civil compensation claim institute, lack of any kind of subjectivity of the victim, the aggressive direct and cross examination of the victim and the resulting secondary victimisation as well as the total exclusion of the victim from the plea negotiation process.

Post-socialist countries are in the process of building separate systems of treatment of the crime victims although the essential characteristics of the civil-law system have already established a better position for the crime victim in comparison to common-law countries. In this regard, it is very important that the reforms in the legislation of these countries go in line with the global trends of ameliorating the position of the victims of crime.

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**ON THE MARGINES OF THE MACEDONIAN  
SOCIETY  
- PROBLEMS OF THE LGBTI COMMUNITY -**

Abstract

The paper deals with the status of the LGBTI community in Macedonia as one of the most vulnerable and marginalized groups. It is based on the findings of few researches which are conducted in the country on this topic. It mainly shows that in this country, there are not even the basic preconditions for normal life and functioning of the LGBTI population. The analysis begins with the context, the attitudes of the citizens towards homosexuality and the legal background which impact the status of the LGBTI. It is followed by a presentation of the results of a qualitative research conducted among the LGBT people, who share their experiences and problems in the society.

**Key words:** LGBTI community, Prejudices, Discrimination

## INTRODUCTION

Macedonia is facing a deep political crisis and is burdened with numerous political and economic problems, which leaves many other serious issues on the margins of interest. One of them is the position of LGBTI people, as one of the most vulnerable groups in Macedonian society. There are two reasons for which they have been chosen as a topic for this paper. The first regards enormous prejudices towards this population, and the other derives from the fact that there is practically no legal protection against discrimination for the LGBTI people.

Awareness of the general population on this matter is poor, so (with an exception of a minor segment of the NGOs) this category is left to itself when it comes to solving their complicated problems. This especially regards less visible segments of LGBT such as lesbians, transgendered people and LGBT people who belong to the ethnic minorities.

The paper will mainly be based on a research of this problem within the project “Ethnically and Gender Inclusive Grass-Root LGBTI Movements in Macedonia” conducted by the Institute of Social Sciences and Humanities – Skopje, but also on some other similar researches.

The purpose is to turn the attention among the analysts who work on Macedonian affairs, on the neglected questions of homophobia, hate speech and physical attacks on LGBTI people. All those questions have undoubtedly political dimension and reflect the global atmosphere in the Macedonian society.

## THE CONTEXT

Homosexuality in general is researched very little in Macedonia, although this population is not different in numbers than in many other countries.

If a short resume is made, based on researches, describing how Macedonians see homosexuals, it would be the following:

- They have a disturbed mental health
- They are related to sexually transmitted diseases
- They are promiscuous
- They are pedophiles<sup>1</sup>

The common word for such perceptions of the general population is obviously **uninformed**.

According to a research conducted on the marginalized groups in Macedonia<sup>2</sup>, almost half of the population feels that sexual orientation is a "private issue and

should not be discussed in public". Yet, around two thirds believe that homosexuals are discriminated in Macedonian society, which implies a conclusion that for part of the population, even this discrimination is a private issue.

Although conducted some 7-8 years ago, such data explain the context in which prejudices towards homosexuals exist. To be more specific, it is the context in which 90% would not accept a homosexual member of their family; 77% think that homosexuals should not work with children; 48% think that homosexuality is a disease and one third of the population consider homosexuality - a crime. It is also a context in which 62% of the citizens find homosexual neighbors unacceptable; 42% would not associate with them at work and even 94% would not support a member of their family who is homosexual.

Unfortunately, the atmosphere has not improved in the last years. On the contrary, open physical attacks on LGBTI NGOs and activists as well as public hate speech began to happen more recently.

These data greatly reflect the legal context in Macedonia with regards to the rights of the LGBTI population.

Before the political transformation of Macedonia (during the socialist period), homosexuality was treated as a criminal offence and was included in the Criminal Code. After the independence, it was erased and defined as a human right for sexual orientation. However, it happened in 1996, 12 years after the European Parliament has decriminalized homosexuality.

Macedonia has signed the Universal Declaration for Human Rights but it is far from being implemented in practice.

Since 2010, there has been a Law on Prevention and Protection from Discrimination,<sup>3</sup> but LGBTI population is not mentioned in it. It provoked smaller protests and debates, but the arguments of the Government were that equal rights are guaranteed to everybody in the Constitution, so it is not necessary to name them specifically.

"Sexual orientation" is also not mentioned in the "National Strategy for Equality and Anti-Discrimination (2012-2015). Equality, including sexual orientation, is guaranteed only in: the Law on Protection of Patients Rights,<sup>4</sup> Law on Public Health,<sup>5</sup> Law on Higher Education,<sup>6</sup> and in the Ethical Code of the Law on Civil Servants.<sup>7</sup>

Such a legal and official discrimination has been many times pointed in the reports of the European Commission progress reports for Macedonia. (For example, the Report for 2011 openly points that Macedonian LGBTI community is subjected to discrimination).<sup>8</sup>

Years later, such evaluation remains. According to *ILGA- Europe* (European organization dealing with the rights of LGBTI population), in 2013 Macedonia

was on the 43-th place among 49 countries in regards to: anti-discrimination laws, protection from hate crime, freedom of expression etc.<sup>9</sup>

The Macedonian Government in the last 10 years did not show concern for the discrimination based on sexual orientation. On the contrary, it constantly introduces campaigns promoting heterosexual families; its supporters practice prejudicial or hate speech (and are never sanctioned); allows contents in the educational system which describe homosexuality as a disease etc. Even in the political rhetoric, especially during electoral campaigns, the sexual orientation is being abused for political purposes.

It is not surprising that the only LGBTI Center for Support in the country is a target of frequent attacks and threats against the LGBTI activists. So far investigation of those crimes has not been finalized. Gay Parades are impossible to organize, and their substitutes (“Pride Week” festivals of films and debates related to LGBTI rights) were faced with negative comments and threats by pro-governmental NGOs and media.

## RESEARCH FINDINGS

One of the few in-depth studies conducted on LGBTI rights in Macedonia is “Ethnically and Gender Inclusive Grass-Root LGBTI Movements in Macedonia”, conducted by the Institute of Social Sciences and Humanities – Skopje. Based on previous findings the starting points were: the invisibility of LGBTI people is a result of their own self-censorship; there is a great fear of public exposure in a traditional society such as Macedonia; there is a perception that the NGOs are generally corrupted and abusing the problems of the concerned groups and the belief that one’s sexuality is a private matter and not a political or public issue.

The qualitative and quantitative research included 100 LGBTI people, representative in regards to gender; place of living; ethnic background and social status. Their age was 18-45 years.<sup>10</sup>

The qualitative methods included oral histories and focus groups with: lesbians, bisexuals, transgendered people and gays from ethnic minorities.

Complementary, a poll was conducted on a representative sample from the LGBTI movement, investigating their problems and priorities.

Most interesting data was gathered with a method of oral histories which is adequate for investigating personal and intimate experiences of sensitive populations. The respondents included lesbians, transgendered people and gays who belong to ethnic minorities. Their responses were quite open and gave a clear picture about the challenges they face and the everyday problems in the society.



The lesbian participants in the oral histories share an impression that they are not particularly discriminated in the Macedonian society. They have a stabile social circle of friends who support them, even parents who understand their position and help their LGBTI activism. Some of them did not openly share their intimate issues because it "makes them feel uncomfortable. They claim they are discriminated, mainly because they are women in a patriarchal society and stress the necessity for a loud fight for their rights. According to the girls, the most important condition is expressing openly their sexual orientation, which especially refers to the ones who do not have a problem to accept themselves for what they are. This is especially important for the LGBTI people who live in more conservative environments, especially in the rural areas. One of the main problems for the lesbians was the mentioned "hidden tolerance" towards them, which results in a certain social invisibility. All of them feel that they are less visible as a community compared to gay men who are more present as objects of public interest, but also exposed to more reactions and public anger.

This group pointed at few priorities for the LGBTI community. The first one regards the legal framework and before all - creating a strategy for anti-discrimination. Next is building tolerance in the approach of the media (avoiding sensationalism, labels, stereotyping and hate speech), often present in the pro-governmental media. The third level regards the LGBTI community itself; their organization and integration in formal and informal centers for support, clubs, shelter centers etc.

Such priorities are shared by gay individuals from the ethnic minorities. However, their oral histories revealed more serious problems. They gave examples of extreme violence and intolerance. Some of them have been victims of verbal insults and physical attacks, some of them fear for their life. They mentioned particularly the threats from their ethnic community or "their people" as they call it, who perceive them as "shame and disappointment" for their ethnic group.

The transgendered people, according to the oral history, perceive themselves as the most disadvantaged group in the society. They face most prejudices, even within their close social circle, by people who take a long time to accept them or fail to accept them at all. Additionally, they are objects of prejudice in the wider surrounding.

The transgendered people in Macedonia are often exposed to ridicule, due to the misconception of their real condition. As a result, they are experiencing serious psychological problems, mental suffering, suicide attempts. Complementary, they face discrimination by the state institutions. (they cannot change their ID number and social security card, since the Macedonian health system does not support their operations and changes).

According to the transgender people, their biggest problem originates from the mentality of the Macedonians who cannot empathize and accept “something that can’t be understood”.

Transgendered people’s priority is changing the legal framework which at this moment does not regulate their status and prevents them to satisfy their basic needs.

Within this project, the focus group with transgendered people (which would have given a bigger insight into their specific problems) had to be cancelled on their request, due to their own discomfort when speaking in front of others.

Differently than the previous group, three successful focus groups were held - one with gays from ethnic minorities and 2 with lesbians and female bisexuals.

The key words in the focus group with gays from ethnic minorities were: fear and mistrust. Thus, they mainly talked about the problems of the “others” rather than their own. All of those participants spoke of the “hypocrisy of the Macedonian society”. The biggest discrimination they face is within their own ethnic group. As they said: “members of other ethnic groups don’t feel compassion, because they are not “one of them””.

The results showed that Albanians are object of the biggest discrimination, compared to the others, according to their perception. They cannot expect any support from their family because they mainly live in traditional, highly religious environment and beliefs that “everyone should have ‘normal’ (heterosexual) family of their own”. On the other side, in this case, there appears a visible ethnic component as well. Albanian gays see the Macedonian gays as “elitists” or people “who act only in urban places and they don’t include gay people from other ethnicities”. Albanian gays think they have the least support, and point that this should be a priority of the NGOs which deal with LGBTI rights, as well as an organized visibility and common acting. As they pointed, in Macedonia “there is no LGBTI community, only LGBTI people” and “the personal relations between LGBTI people should stop impacting their common cause and socially useful purpose”.

The focus groups with lesbians revealed many examples of psychological and physical violence against them, which are not visible for the wider population. Those examples are frequent in the smaller towns. To quote some of the statements - the worst problem is the “unserious, but favored treatment. Lesbians are treated like high school experiment, party behavior, transit phase and they are experiencing vulgar comments related to the image created by porn movies”. Almost every participant pointed that, at some point, she faces comment like: “Probably there is a real man who can change you”. The most common perceptions of this population are that they are “more acceptable because they are less visible as a community”. On the other hand, bisexual women are in a more complicated situation due to their “incomplete identity”.

Parallel to the focus groups a nationwide survey was conducted with over 140 LGBTI representatives, which resulted with indicative findings.

On the question “do they feel discriminated?”, sadly, even 93% of the respondents gave a positive answer.

Who discriminates this population the most? According to the results, one quarter of the respondents (25%) answered that the discrimination comes from their friends and acquaintances. 20% felt discriminated from their families, while 18% pointed at their neighbors. It is interesting that 13% appear to be discriminated from the LGBTI people themselves. A smaller percent (10%) declared that they were discriminated by their colleagues, while, only 2% mentioned the authorities. Only 5% said they never felt disadvantaged because of their sexual orientation.

At the same time, regarding their supporters outside the LGBTI community, almost half of the respondents pointed at their friends, additionally to 27% who mentioned – relatives. There are 22% who chose NGOs. The state institutions authorized to deal with this kind of discrimination were barely (or not) mentioned at all.

It is interesting to see how LGBTI people they see their perspectives. On the question: “How could the treatment of LGBTI people improve?, the most frequent answer (32%) relate to reforms in the educational system (withdrawing all textbooks that stimulate homophobia or treat homosexuality inappropriately; early education for respecting of human rights and freedoms ; introducing sexual education in schools...) Almost the same percentage (31%) would work on raising the public awareness. A smaller number (21%) expect improvement with reforms in the legal system. Only 10% expect the improvement in Macedonian economy to reflect on the status of the LGBTI population, while 9% think that all of the previous are equally important.

Obviously, one of the biggest problems of the LGBTI population is its visibility in the public. The results of this research show that they are aware of it. Thus, for one third of the respondents respectively, most important is: coming out in front of the wider public and opening more centers for promotion of LGBTI rights and freedoms. A smaller number (13%) think that opening to the family is most important, while the rest find everything mentioned above as equally important.

However, almost half the population do not know how the LGBTI community can strengthen, using its own potentials. Nearly a third of the respondents think that LGBTI members should be more organized, while 16% ties it to the increased public visibility. Although it is very important, only 2% mentioned the presence in the media and lobbying in the state institutions.

The last question to be presented in this paper concerns the perception of the discrimination of the different groups within the LGBTI community. Here, half of the respondents chose the transgendered people as most discriminated, which truly

resembles the reality. Gay men are chosen by 19% of respondents, 4% see bisexuals and intersexuals as most discriminated group.

Summarized, the results of the survey show that the awareness of the LGBTI people and ideas how to strengthen the capacities of their community – are very low. Their expectations and requirements are small and mainly relate to the legal changes. LGBTI people avoid the wider public, although they speak of opening to it as a big priority.

## CONCLUSION

Almost 30 years ago, a Croatian author<sup>11</sup> (Koshichek 1986) said that we can be a society which accepts the individual as a highest value, only after we have acknowledged homosexuality, because we have no right to be blind for any human characteristic. From this standpoint, Macedonia is far from being such society.

Prejudices and stereotypes towards any group or member of a society contribute to social dysfunction. In this case, a widely spread homophobia as it is in Macedonia, has great influence over this population and over the society as a whole. A constant fear of the LGBTI people to face prejudices in the surrounding, even the closest one, fear of aggressiveness and violence, leading a double life, all produce frustrations which have deep social, political and economic implications. They affect the society as a whole.

The research data which was presented has shown only part of the numerous problems which the LGBT community is facing in Macedonia. Even a part however, is enough to understand that the policies of the state institutions have not provided even the basic conditions for a normal life and functioning of the LGBTI people.

The legislation related to LGBTI rights, is far from the ones in democratic countries, and so far, there has been no will to change it. It is a source of numerous obstacles in the everyday life of this population.

The educational system recognizes only heterosexual relations and marriages. The textbooks stimulate homophobia, while the teachers are not trained at all to deal with it (or to deal with any issue that concerns sexual orientation).

Some of the pro governmental media show no tolerance towards homosexuals or transgendered people. On the contrary, they are often a real source of homophobia.

Violence towards LGBT population, or hate speech is not sanctioned; sometimes it is not even investigated.

In such a context, it is logical and expected that the LGBTI community itself and their supporters will show lack of activism, proper internal management, initiative and mobilization.

All those elements cannot result in any awareness raising among the Macedonian citizens, nor open a debate on LGBTI rights.

Obviously, the Macedonian citizens would feel more comfortable if the issue of sexual orientation remains locked in the so called “private sphere”, without understanding that there is nothing “private” about obstructing a basic human right to find its proper place in the society.

## ENDNOTES

<sup>1</sup> Lechevska Kalina, “Homophobia in Republic of Macedonia” (Heraklea, Bitola, 2008).

<sup>2</sup> “How Inclusive is the Macedonian Society”, Open Society Macedonia, 2009. The research included a poll on 1200 respondents and 8 focus groups.

<sup>3</sup> Law on Prevention and Protection from Discrimination (The Official Gazette of Republic of Macedonia, n.50/2010).

<sup>4</sup> Law on Protection of Patient’s Rights (The Official Gazette of Republic of Macedonia, No.82 8 July 2008), Article 5 “Patient has right on his rights, written in this Law, without discrimination based on gender, race, skin color, language, religion, political or any other opinion, national or social origin, national minority, material status, birth origin, sexual orientation or any other status.”

<sup>5</sup> Law on Public Health (The Official Gazette of Republic of Macedonia, No.22, 15 February 2010) in Institute for Public Health’s activities, Article 16, “The Institute and the Centers govern their activities from Articles 10 and 11, based on principles of: 1) clearly defined goal of public health; 2) procedures based on modern scientific principles and evidence; 3) well-targeted interventions involving the optimal number of persons in accordance with public health standards; 4) taking the least restrictive interventions of the rights and interests of individuals in the public health; 5) undertaking interventions that do not discriminate individuals on the basis of race, sex or different national and social origin or property status, religious belief, gender, sexual orientation or status of a person with special needs and 6) respecting the dignity of every individual during interventions.”

<sup>6</sup> Law on Higher Education (The Official Gazette of Republic of Macedonia, No. 35, 14 March 2008), Article 108, “University determines the procedure for selection of candidates regardless of race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, birth, social status, disability, sexual orientation or age.”

<sup>7</sup> Law on Civil Servants (The Official Gazette of Republic of Macedonia, No.133 of 30 September 2011), Article 9, “Public Servant equally treats natural and legal persons without discriminating natural persons based on age, gender, ethnic or social origin, language or race, political opinions, marriage or family status, invalidity, sexual orientation or any other kind of base, and legal persons under their type, scope, place of registration and state of origin.”

<sup>8</sup> “The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia 2011 Progress Report” available at [http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/pdf/key\\_documents/2011/package/mk\\_rapport\\_2011\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/pdf/key_documents/2011/package/mk_rapport_2011_en.pdf), accessed on 20.07.2013.

<sup>9</sup> “FYR Macedonia score sheet based on Rainbow Europe Map 2013”, available at [http://www.ilga-europe.org/home/publications/reports\\_and\\_other\\_materials/rainbow\\_europe/score\\_sheet/fyr\\_macedonia](http://www.ilga-europe.org/home/publications/reports_and_other_materials/rainbow_europe/score_sheet/fyr_macedonia), accessed on 20.07.2013.

<sup>10</sup> The participation of minors in this research was incompatible with project's purposes, because respondents talked about vision and activism strategies, which means certain adult and other competences. LGBTI activists over 45 years weren't even available for the research.

<sup>11</sup> Koschichek, M. "U okviru vlastitog spola", Mladost Zagreb, 1986

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## **POLITICAL CRISIS, MEDIA AND EMOTIONS**

### **Abstract**

Macedonia will remember 2015 as a year of long-term political crisis. It was a year of intensive activity against the Government. There were “opposition bombs”, disclosed incriminating phone calls, strikes in education, mass protests, camping in front of the Government and the Assembly, a police action against the terrorists in Kumanovo, migrant crisis .... The understanding of the start and the end points of the crisis largely depends on the individual perception created as a result of the personal experience and the experience mediated through offline networks, online networks and media.

Apart from the diversity of the events in the surroundings there is also a difference in the style of processing or living one’s own emotions (feeling them, expressing them, understanding them). This research focusses on how students process emotions provoked by news/media

stories on the events connected to the abovementioned critical political events. Students from the Faculty of Philosophy, University “Ss. Cyril and Methodius” voluntarily accepted to take part in this research.

Two research instruments were used: questionnaire for the evaluation of the media content and their influence on the emotions of the respondent and the Emotional Processing Scale (EPS) regarding the nature of processing emotions. The research design provides quantitative and qualitative analysis.

This study showed that anger, fear and rage are dominantly provoked by negative emotions which are unprocessed or there is avoidance of coping with them (the two unhealthy ways of emotional processing).

**Keywords:** Political crisis, Media and emotions, Emotional processing, Media stress, Emotional processing scale



## 1. INTRODUCTION

For Macedonia the year of 2015 will be remembered as a year of political crisis of enormous proportions. It was a year of “opposition bombs”<sup>1</sup>, disclosed incriminating phone calls, strikes in education, mass protests, camping in front of the Government and the Assembly of the country, a police action against the terrorists in Kumanovo, migrant crisis ....The political crisis in this article relates to the period from the releasing of the first “bomb” by the opposition to the signed “Agreement from Przino” between the major political parties with the mediation of the international community.

In this exhaustive list of events, Macedonia faced the challenge to “provide” mutual understanding, coexistence, cooperation and tolerance among its citizens. The media are one of those factors that are extremely important in building these processes. They act as promoters of social cohesion and dialogue between different groups in society and have an impact on the creation of the positions and beliefs of citizens, as well as their perceptions of other social, cultural and political groups and communities (Declaration of the Committee of Ministers on the role of community media in promoting social cohesion and intercultural dialogue *Adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 11 February 2009, at the 1048<sup>th</sup> meeting of Ministers’ Deputies*). The research focus is precisely on the manner in which citizens process emotions from listening to and watching the various content of the articles presented in the Macedonian media.

### 1.1 Emotions as effects of media exposure

Media research in the 1980s and 1990s continually drew on fundamental research on the psychology of emotion.

Wirth and Schramm, (2005) presented researchers with a background in media psychology (Mangold, 1998, 2000a, 2000b; Mangold, Unz, & Winterhoff-Spurk, 2001; Schwab, 2001; Scudder, 1999; Unz & Schwab, 2003; Unz, Schwab, & Winterhoff-Spurk, 2002; Wirth, Schramm, & Böcking, 2004) and pointed that those researchers refer to the Scherer’s Cognitive-Appraisal Theory.

Researches in the domain of media showed that the development of emotions during media reception does not differ fundamentally from everyday situations *not* influenced by media (Scherer, 1998). The result of this multi-step appraisal process produces specific response patterns (physiological responses, motor

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<sup>1</sup> The political opposition in Macedonia publicly announced wiretapped telephone conversations of politicians from home and abroad and called them “bombs” that would “crash” the country’s government.

expression, action tendencies, and feelings) or specific media emotions. A politician's proposition does not itself have to be articulated angrily, but can nevertheless evoke or induce anger on the basis of the evaluation by the recipient, according to his/her own goals and values. In this kind of emotional processes we are talking of emotion induction. A second prototypical class of emotional processes during media reception is emotional contagion. Here, the recipient only perceives the emotional expressive behaviour of a media person and imitates it without understanding in detail how the emotional expression of the media person may have developed. The processes underlying this motor imitation of emotional expressive behaviour (e.g., automatic laughter as a response to the laughter of a media person) are not yet fully explained (Scherer, 1998). A third category is *empathy* or *empathic sympathy* with the media person. Here, the recipient him/herself is not affected by the event that evokes the media person's emotion (Wirth & Schramm 2005).

Empathy has become an important construction in mass communication research. Empathy is a complex concept with affective, as well as cognitive components (Wirth & Schramm 2005). Cognitive empathy is the understanding of other persons and the rational reconstruction of another person's feelings in the sense of taking over that person's perspective. Affective empathy, in contrast, is a relatively "primitive" process of sympathizing with other individuals. Affective empathy occurs when, for example, the recipients sense more or less the same emotions they have observed in a media figure.

## 1.2 Model of 'Emotional processing'

Rachman (1980, according to Baker et al 2007) presented the concept of emotional processing. He wrote "emotional processing is regarded as a process whereby emotional disturbances are absorbed, and decline to the extent that other experiences and behaviour can proceed without disruption". If emotional disturbances are not absorbed, then quite diverse emotional problems may ensue. (1980, according to Baker et al 2007).

This is the model on which the item selection for the emotional processing scale was initially based. It was published in an article "An emotional processing model for counselling and psychotherapy: a way forward" (Baker et al 2007). It is a system based model in which a negative emotional event is seen as a central phase and the expression of emotions is seen as an output.

Elements of emotional processing are: *Input Event* (emotions start with an event), *Emotional Experience* (the meaning attributed to an event determines the type of emotion experienced), *Emotional Expression* (this describes how

the individual gives bodily expression, verbal or motor expression, to emotional experiences), *Labelling* (automatically and usually unconsciously, individuals feel an emotion as a psychological whole and ‘label’ the psychological state), *Linkage* (linking emotions felt by an individual to causal events may again be consciously or unconsciously achieved), *Awareness* (this describes the extent to which an individual is consciously aware of their emotions, or the physical sensations that make up the felt emotion) and *Blocks in the System* (different problems may occur if there is some kind of deficit or blockage in the system).

## 2. RESEARCH

### 2.1. Hypothesis

The general hypothesis predicted that *informing by the media is connected with the person’s emotions*, so that it can be stated that:

- I. The diverse manner of informing about events is connected with the emotions of the person;
- II. The intensity of media exposure is connected with the emotions of the person;
- III. The intensity of respondent’s activity in the media sphere is connected with the person’s emotions.
- IV. The attitudes toward media professionalism (media ethics, media objectivity, civic journalism and freedom of media) is connected with emotions.

### 2.2 Sample

The convenience sample consisted of 88 students from the Faculty of Philosophy, University “Ss. Cyril and Methodius” in Skopje, who voluntarily accepted to take part in this research, from the second and third year of study, between 20-23 years of age.

### 2.3 Instruments

*Emotional Processing Scale (EPS)*: This version of the scale has 25 items. Each 5 of them are organized in one of the following dimensions: Suppression (excessive emotional control), Signs of Unprocessed Emotion (intrusive and persistent emotional experience; the results of poor emotional processing), Unregulated Emotion (inability to control emotion), Avoidance (evading emotional triggers),

and Impoverished Emotional Experience (poor emotional intelligence, emotionally unaware).

Concerning the goal and problem of this research, an original questionnaire has been created. This questionnaire consisted of the following elements: a) Recall of the memory (the introduction in the questionnaire contained key information for the period of interest), b) direct/mediated information about the political events; c) Media exposure (frequency of exposure on media in the critical period), d) Media activity (intensity and type of personal activity in the media sphere during the critical events), e) Media professionalism (perception of the respondents about how the media in Macedonia were ethic, objective, free and have civil dimension while reporting on critical events during the designated period); f) Media capacity to direct respondent's tendencies (towards themselves or towards others); g) Type and intensity of the evoked emotions regarding media reporting about critical events; h) Emotional processing. The questionnaire was completed by the students in paper form.

## **2.4 Time of memory recall**

Students have been asked to recall their memories about the aforementioned period of the political crisis. Memory recall was performed in the introductory part of the questionnaire. Namely, based on the media published articles (source: [www.utrinski.mk](http://www.utrinski.mk); [www.time.mk](http://www.time.mk) /09.02.2015-02.06.201/) the following short description of this period was presented to the students:

On 9 February 2015 the opposition announced the first “bomb” which aimed to disclose the “malversation and crime” of the Government. The announcement of bombs lasted for several months. Meanwhile, the following events happened:

21 February 2015: Establishment of high school plenum which continued its activities until the end of the school year; 9 May 2015, a police action to destroy the armed terrorist group in the Kumanovo settlement “Divlje naselje”; 16 May 2015: The opposition camp called “Camp of Liberty” was settled in front of the Government. The camp was created and there were activities for two months; 19 May: Camp of supporters of the Government was settled in front of the Assembly. The camp was created and there were activities for two months; 2 June 2015: Agreement signed by the leaders of four political parties Gruevski, Zaev, Ahmeti and Thaci, and mediated by the Commissioner Hahn in the presence of the US Ambassador Bailey and the EU Ambassador Orav.

## 2.5 Time of conducting the research

Research has been conducted four month after the last critical event and it started at the beginning of November 2015 and lasted until the middle of the same month.

## 3. RESULTS

All the significant relations based on testing the hypothesis are presented in the Table No.1.

**Table 1** Significant relations between variables

|   | Media capacity to direct personal tendencies  | Valence of evoked emotions  | Types of evoked emotions  | Ways of emotional processing  |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Diverse way of informing about the political events | No relation   | No relation   | <p><u>Non-categorized</u><br/> <b>Direct observation and participation</b> is connected with: <b>Anger</b>(<math>X^2=12,291</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>) and <b>Rage</b>(<math>X^2=9,967</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>)<br/> <b>Direct contacts (offline social networks)</b> is connected with emotion <b>Joy</b>(<math>X^2=12,646</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>) and <b>Malice</b>(<math>X^2=11,569</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>)</p>  | <p><u>Non-categorized</u><br/> <b>Direct observation and participation:</b><br/> <b>Unprocessed</b>(<math>Z=2,078</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>)<br/> <u>Categorized:</u><br/> <b>Unregulated</b> (<math>F=2,504</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>).</p>  |
| Different intensity of media exposure               | <p><b>Watching TV</b>(<math>X^2=13,680</math><math>p&lt;0,01</math>);<br/> <b>Online Social networks</b> (<math>X^2=9,414</math><math>p&lt;0,01</math>) .</p> | <p><b>Watching TV</b>(<math>X^2=19,382</math><math>p&lt;0,01</math>);<br/> <b>Online media</b> (<math>X^2=7,819</math> <math>p&lt;0,05</math>).</p> | <p><b>Watching TV:</b><br/> <b>Anger</b> (<math>X^2=9,137</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>),<br/> <b>Rage</b> (<math>X^2=11,162</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>)and<br/> <b>Woe</b>(<math>X^2=8,139</math> <math>p&lt;0,05</math>);<br/> <b>Online media:</b><br/> <b>Rage</b> <math>X^2=14,861</math><math>p&lt;0,01</math>); and <b>Contempt</b> (<math>X^2=10,165</math><math>p&lt;0,05</math>);<br/> <b>Online Social networks:</b><br/> <b>Contempt</b> (<math>X^2=8,034</math><math>p&lt;0,05</math>).</p> | <p><b>Watching TV: Unprocessed</b> (<math>Z=-4,251</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>)<br/> <b>Unregulated</b> (<math>Z=-2,378</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>)<br/> <b>Impoverished</b> (<math>Z=-3,406</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>)<br/> <b>Sum EPQ</b> (<math>Z=-2,957</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>);<br/> <b>Online media:</b> Unprocessed (<math>Z=-2,243</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>);<br/> <b>Social networks: Unprocessed</b> (<math>Z=-3,058</math>, <math>p&lt;0,01</math>),<br/> <b>Impoverished</b>(<math>Z=-2,469</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>),<br/> <b>Sum EPQ</b> (<math>Z=-2,483</math>, <math>p&lt;0,05</math>).</p> |

|  |             |  |  |  |
|--|-------------|--|--|--|
| <i>Different intensity of personals activity in media sphere</i>                       | No relation | ( $X^2=48,341, p<0,01$ )                       | <b>Woe</b> ( $X^2=37,691, p<0,01$ );<br><b>Contempt</b> ( $X^2=22,794, p<0,01$ ).  | <b>Unprocessed</b><br>( $F=3,865, p<0,01$ )  |
| Attitudes toward media ethics, media objectiveness, civil journalism and media liberty | No relation | <b>Objectivity</b><br>( $X^2=13,420, p<0,01$ ) | <b>Non - objectivity:</b><br><b>Anger</b> ( $X^2=15,501, p<0,05$ );<br><b>Woe</b> ( $X^2=24,457, p<0,01$ );<br><b>Ethics:</b><br><b>Joy</b> ( $X^2=15,570, p<0,0$ );<br><b>Non civil:</b><br><b>Fear</b> ( $X^2=24,015, p<0,01$ );<br><b>Civil:</b><br><b>Love</b> ( $X^2=14,741, p<0,05$ );<br><b>Joy</b> ( $X^2=13,722, p<0,05$ );<br><b>Non liberal:</b><br><b>Fear</b> ( $X^2=13,248, p<0,05$ ). | <b>Objectivity:</b><br>Unregulated<br>Kruskal Wallis test<br>( $X^2=6,209, p<0,05$ ) |

## TESTING OF THE FIRST HYPOTHESIS

The first hypothesis predicted that the diverse manner of informing on the events is connected with the emotions of the person. The testing of the first hypothesis shows that:

-Informing on the political events by direct observation and participation is connected with: emotions like Anger ( $X^2=12,291, p<0,01$ ) and Rage ( $X^2=9,967, p<0,05$ ), and more frequently unprocessed and unregulated manner of emotional processing,

-Informing through direct contacts (offline social networks) is connected with the emotion Joy ( $X^2=12,646; p<0.01$ ) and Malice ( $X^2=11,569; p<0.01$ ). Informing about political events through offline social networks (direct contacts) means feeling joy and malice more frequently.

-The diverse manner of informing on the events is not connected with person's tendencies (towards themselves or towards others) and is not connected with the valence of the emotions.

These data partially confirmed the first hypothesis which predicts that the diverse manner of informing on the events is connected with respondent's emotions, which mean that the manner of informing is important for the type of emotions and the manner of their processing, but not important with reference to person's tendencies and valence of the emotions. The manners which make difference on person's emotions are informing about political events through direct observation/participation and direct contacts with other people. Direct observation/ participation means unwanted feelings, such as: anger and rage (both negative feelings) more repeatedly and more uncontrollably; direct contacts (offline social networking) means having negative, but also positive emotions.

## TESTING OF THE SECOND HYPOTHESIS

The second hypothesis predicted that intensity of informing by the media is connected with person's emotions, so negative emotions will be more evoked by more intense exposure on media coverage.

Testing of the second hypothesis shows that:

-watching TV is connected with person's tendencies towards others (respondents have tendencies to share, to argue, to communicate); negative valence of the emotions; experiencing anger, rage and sadness more frequently; unprocessed, unregulated and impoverished way of emotional processing.

-informing by online media means more negative unprocessed emotions, such as: rage and contempt.

-informing by online social networks means directing the person's tendencies towards others, experiencing contempt more frequently and unprocessed and impoverished manner of emotional processing.

These data fully confirmed the second hypothesis that predicted that intensity of informing by the media is connected with person's emotions, so negative emotions like anger, rage, sadness and contempt will be more evoked by more intense TV exposure, online media and online social networks. Intense media exposure will be connected with reporting about unwanted feelings, repeatedly experiencing the same emotion over the time, difficulty to control verbal behaviour, overreacting on what people said or did, and sometimes being unable to work overwhelmed of emotions or sickness.

## TESTING OF THE THIRD HYPOTHESIS

The third hypothesis predicted that **Intensity of personal activity in the media sphere is connected with person's emotions** so negative emotions will be more evoked by more intense activity in the media sphere.

The testing of the third hypothesis shows that:

-Activity in the media space is connected with more negative than neutral emotions;

-Activity in the media space is more frequently connected with the emotions sadness and contempt;

-Activity in the media space is connected with repeated experiencing of the same emotion over the time.

These data fully confirmed the third hypothesis.

## TESTING OF THE FOURTH HYPOTHESIS

The fourth hypothesis predicted that attitudes toward media professionalism (media ethics, media objectivity, civic media and freedom of media) is connected with person's emotions, so negative emotions will be more evoked by more negative attitudes towards media professionalism.

The study showed these significant correlations:

- ✓ Attitudes toward media objectivity are related to lack of emotions;
- ✓ Attitudes toward media non-objectivity are related to more negative emotions, experiencing anger and sadness more frequently and unregulated emotional processing (difficulty to control the emotions);
- ✓ Attitudes toward media ethics are related to experiencing joy more frequently;
- ✓ Attitudes toward civic media are related to experiencing love and joy more frequently;
- ✓ Attitudes toward non-civic media are related to experiencing fear more frequently;
- ✓ Attitudes toward no freedom in media are related to experiencing fear more frequently.

These data confirmed the fourth hypothesis.



#### 4. DISCUSSION

The research question was: “Is there any connection between nature/intensity of media exposure and quality/nature/type of evoked emotions and their further processing?” This question was a result of the political circumstances which started from 9 February 2015 when the first “opposition bomb was activated” and ended 2 June 2015 with the signed agreement between the leaders of the four main political parties (Macedonian, Albanian, opposition and position) mediated by relevant international actors.

Research was conducted in November, four months after the last critical event and it included 88 students. The questionnaire was completed by students during their regular classes. This research was based on, and it supported the framework of cognitive appraisal theories, which highlighted the cognitive judgments or personal interpretation of situations and noted that appraisal of a situation causes an emotional, or affective response (Wirth & Schramm 2005).

As this research was based on the events that have already been completed, it is in the range of studies about the relation between emotion and memory and it can be classified in the group of studies based on the recall of one’s own emotional (media-mediated) experiences (Wirth & Schramm 2005).

The fear was the most dominant emotion provoked by the media mediated method of informing about the critical political events. Emotional responses to news coverage of negative events do not happen in a vacuum. There is nothing to doubt that the events that cause destabilization of national security will lead to the emergence of unpleasant and negative emotions among citizens. Findings of this study showed that those respondents who took active participation in critical events experienced anger and rage and demonstrated unprocessed and unregulated manner of coping with emotions.

We live in mediated world and the way media represent the reality can be a relevant factor for emotional experience of events that occur in the real world. Emotional responses on television news exposure leads to the increase of negative emotions (anger, rage and sadness) and unprocessed, unregulated and impoverished way of emotional processing. The results show that those emotions were dominant among the respondents.

The presence on social networks in the critical period leads to the emergence of negative emotions (rage, contempt). It directed the tendencies toward others and stimulated unprocessed and impoverished way of emotional processing.

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**E-DEMOCRACY AND LEVELS OF CITIZEN  
INVOLVEMENT IN THE REPUBLIC OF  
MACEDONIA**

Abstract

The paper evaluates three different levels of citizen involvement in the e-democracy process in the Republic of Macedonia, such as: informative public participation, consultative public participation and cooperative public participation level. The questionnaire used in EPACE project (*Exchanging good practices for the promotion of an active citizenship in the EU*) served as a basis for our research.

The questionnaire was distributed to all the ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia, focusing on e-democracy tools that provide different levels of citizen involvement. Relevant officials/experts from the Ministries in the Government of

the Republic of Macedonia were contacted for more detailed information.

As the findings suggest, in the Republic of Macedonia only information and consultation level exists, meaning there is still no usage of e-voting.

Further research on this topic should be undertaken in order to investigate to which extent the applied e-tools in the Republic of Macedonia provide communication and feedback in both directions.

**Key words:** e-democracy, e-tools, levels of citizen involvement, Republic of Macedonia.

## INTRODUCTION

According to Webster democracy is defined as *a government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly or indirectly through a system of representation*. Electronic democracy or e-democracy is nothing more than the use of digital tools in order to increase and enhance the three pillars that underpin democracy, such as: *transparency, accountability and participation* (citizen engagement in democratic process).

E-democracy is anything that governments do to facilitate greater participation in government using digital or electronic means. These initiatives can include e-forums, e-town hall meetings, e-consultations, e-referenda, e-voting, e-rule making, and other forms of e-participation. We can also term it as any form of 'digital engagement' (Coleman and Norris, 2005:7).

E-democracy, as stated in *Recommendation on e-democracy*, adopted by the Council of Europe (CoE Recommendations in text) in February 2009, concerns all sectors of democracy, all democratic institutions, and all levels of government. Hence, e-democracy cannot be isolated from traditional democratic processes. It is additional, complementary to, and interlinked with traditional democratic processes, so as to widen the choices available to the public for taking part in political processes. The CoE Recommendations underlines the main goals of e-democracy which are similar to those of good governance, such as: transparency, accountability, responsiveness, engagement, deliberation, inclusiveness, accessibility, participation, subsidiarity, trust in democracy, democratic institutions and democratic processes, and social cohesion.

It seems that more and more governments are offering web-forums as a means of replacing the town meeting or the public *agora*. Moreover, it is increasingly common to be able to offer feedback to your elected officials via email, web forms, and even SMS. In order to be heard, citizens need only a minimal level of technology and can raise their voice in their spare time at home instead of having to meet their politicians face to face (Peart and Diaz, 2007).

Reinsalu (2010) points out that the e-participation is a necessary component or even, more precisely, a prerequisite of e-democracy. It refers to the means of ICT-supported participation in processes concerning administration, policy making, decision making, service delivery, information provision, consultation, deliberation, etc.

According to Mahrer and Krimmer (2005) e-democracy is not only about technology (and involves both so-called e-participation and e-voting) but also impacts every aspect of an organization involved. In addition, it captures the behavior of the members of the society (citizens, lobbies and opinion leaders),

the media (media, agencies and market researchers) when interacting with, and attitudes towards, government agencies and representatives.

E-democracy can also be considered as a set of tools i.e. applications by means of which the goals of democracy can be achieved, in other words to improve the connectivity (information-communication) between government, stakeholders and citizens, raising engagement and participation in democratic processes. Some of the most commonly used e-democracy tools are the following: e-discussion, e-consultation, e-initiative, e-petition, e-polls, e-voting, webcast, etc. Different e-democracy tools provide different levels of citizen involvement. According to Reinsalu (2010) the levels of citizen involvement can be categorized as: **information** (informative public participation)<sup>1</sup>, **consultation** (consultative public participation)<sup>2</sup> and **cooperation** (cooperative public participation)<sup>3</sup>.

The study evaluates three different levels of citizen involvement the Republic of Macedonia, provided on the official websites of the Ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia.

Methodological approach used in EPACE project (*Exchanging good practices for the promotion of an active citizenship in the EU*)<sup>4</sup> served as a basis for our research, which means that the research relies on tripartite typology of e-democracy initiatives in order to provide a framework for classification of the levels of citizens' involvement in the e-democracy practices in the Republic of Macedonia.

<sup>1</sup> The active provision of comprehensive, balanced and objective information designed to help the public understanding of problems, alternatives, opportunities, and solutions to democratic issues. Participants receive information about the planning or the decision. They do not have any influence on it, however. Communication is only one-way, namely from the planning or decision-making bodies to the public.

<sup>2</sup> Participants can give their comments on a question asked or a draft presented. They can thereby influence the decision, even though the extent of influence may differ considerably. Communication is in both directions, from the planning or decision-making body to the public and from the public back to the planning or decision-making body, as well as, under certain circumstances, once again back to the public; for example, if the comments received are answered.

<sup>3</sup> Involvement of citizens and groups of citizens, such as interest groups, corporations, associations, and non-profit organizations, in public affairs, so that they can exert influence and improve the quality and accessibility of the results of democratic processes. Participants have a say in the decisions, for example at Round Table meetings, in mediation procedures or in stakeholder processes. The degree of influence is high and may include common decision-making with the political decision-making bodies. Planning or decision-making bodies and the public communicate intensively with each other.

<sup>4</sup> EPACE project (*Exchanging good practices for the promotion of an active citizenship in the EU*) was produced with the financial support of the **European Commission's** Fundamental Rights and Citizenship Programme (2007–2013). Project partners include the Ministry of Justice in Finland (coordinator), the State Chancellery of the Republic of Estonia and the Ministry of Integration and Gender Equality in Sweden. The main objective of this project was to elaborate and exchange good citizen participation practices in order to increase and promote participatory opportunities within the European Union member states.



The questionnaire<sup>5</sup> was distributed to all the ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia, focusing on the following issues: strategies related to e-democracy and their main objectives; e-participation tools and projects for the future. For the purposes of this study, we asked the following information:

Information about strategies related to e-democracy/e-participation and their main:

- Objectives;
- Information about e-participation tools;
- Information about projects or guidelines for the future.

Relevant officials/experts from the Ministries in the Government of the Republic of Macedonia were contacted for more detailed information about some cases and future activities. Additional check up of every reported e-tool by the respondents was performed.<sup>6</sup>

## E-DEMOCRACY IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

The Republic of Macedonia is a relatively young democratic country gaining its independence in 1991, in the so-called ‘third wave of democracy’, following the dissolution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The discussions concerning the relevance and significance of democracy, as precondition to the global development of society, represent an integral part of the current political and academic debates in the Republic of Macedonia. Although the Macedonian society is still regarded as a society in democratic transition, serious efforts have been made to develop and enhance the information society as a whole, striving to introduce a range of tools that can usefully be applied in democratic processes and institutions (Cvetanova and Pachovski, 2013).

The *National Strategy for Development of Information Society* was the first strategic document addressing the issues of information society, drafted and published by the Government of the Republic of Macedonia in 2005. This document refers to the development of information society as a whole, with special emphasis on: infrastructure, e-business, e-citizens, e-education, e-healthcare and legislation. In 2008, the Ministry of Information Society was established. Since then, this Ministry is responsible for the development of information society as a whole, for creating and drafting policy papers, and for the coordination of activities related to

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<sup>5</sup> The questionnaire used in EPACE project (*Exchanging good practices for the promotion of an active citizenship in the EU*) served as a basis for our research.

<sup>6</sup> Last check up of the official websites of the Ministries was performed on 15.01.2016.

digital skills and e-services( Cvetanova and Pachovski, 2014).

The concept of e-democracy in Republic of Macedonia was introduced throughout several strategic documents. In 2007 the Parliament adopted the *National Strategy for Electronic Communications with Information Technologies* (2007-2009) that focused both on technological aspects as well as development of e-services.

Democratic and transparent governance through e-democracy is impossible to be implemented unless the institutions are ready for such changes. Putting e-democracy in practice requires fundamental transformation of the public systems. This is a globally unique challenge, taking into consideration the fact that the final conclusion of many analyses implies the following gradation: when introducing a novelty, individuals adjust most easily, next in line are the businesses and the last one to adjust is the public sector (Bojadzievska, 2015). In this respect, the *National Strategy for e-government* (2010-2012) was adopted, as a sector specific and project strategic document. Another important strategic document ensuring citizen's engagement was the *National Strategy for e-inclusiveness* (2011-2014).

Yet, the success of implementation is dependent on the human capacities and knowledge of the employees in the public sector i.e. the civil service. Thereby, ICT aspects were always included in the strategic documents for administration, such as the *Strategy for Public Administration Reform* (2010-2015) with the *Revised Action Plan* (2010-2015). Human capacity and knowledge is not left behind even in the latest-to-date strategic documents such as *National Short-term ICT strategy* (2016-2017) and the *Action Plan*.

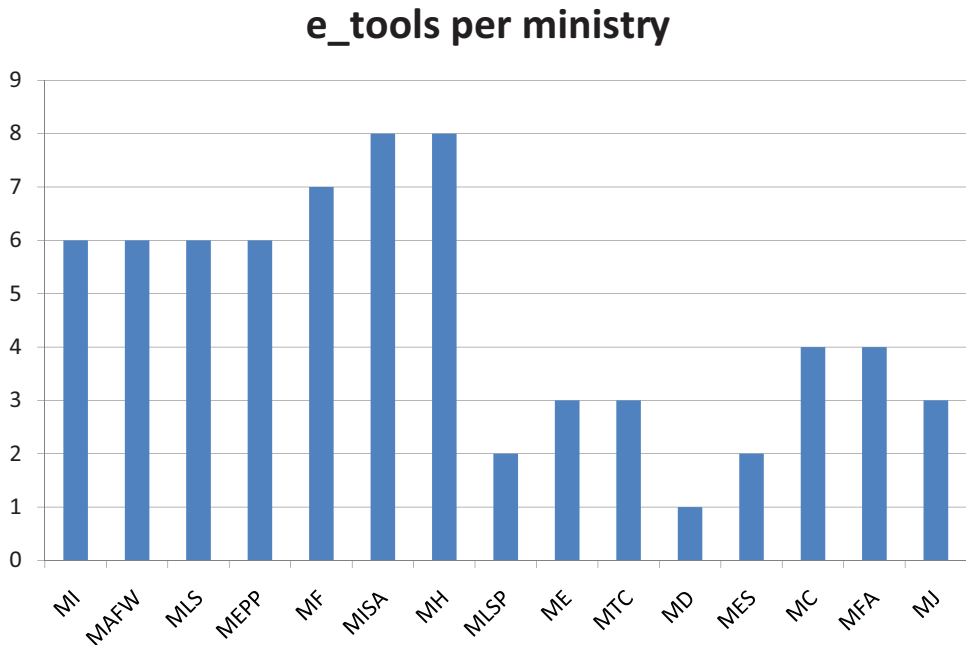
## RESEARCH

For the purpose of our research a questionnaire was distributed to all the Ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia. The questionnaire served as basis to elucidate whether the institutions in Republic of Macedonia are resistant to such changes or they managed to adjust to the challenges of e-democracy.

The questionnaire contained a list of 13 e-tools. The officials in the Ministries mark each implemented e-tool, as well as any other additional webpages for some particular information or service posted on the official webpages on the Ministry where they work. In the interest of common understanding, a short definition for each e-tool was presented below the list. Also, relevant officials from the Ministries were contacted for more detailed information about e-democracy strategy, some particular cases, projects or guidelines for the future.

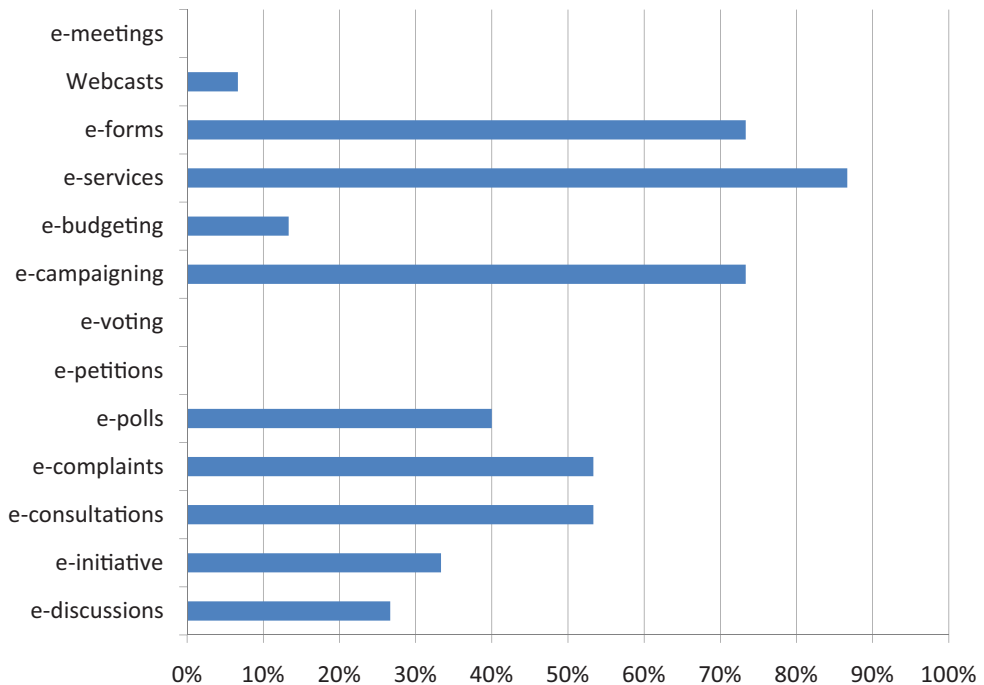
The findings based on collected answers show that from all the 15 Ministries, the Ministry of Information Society and Administration (MISA) and the Ministry of Health (MH) lead in implementation of e-tools (See Figure 1).

Figure 1: E-tools used per Ministry



As shown in the Figure 1, the Ministry of Information Society (MISA) and the Ministry of Health (MH) implemented 8 from 13 e-tools listed in the questionnaire, followed by Ministry of Finance (MF) and Ministry of Interior with 7 implemented e-tools. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water-management (MAFW), Ministry of Local Self-Government (MLS) and Ministry of Environment and Physical Planning (MEPP) implemented 6 e-tools; Ministry of Culture (MC) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs implemented 4 e-tools; Ministry of Economy (ME), Ministry of Transport and Communication and Ministry of Justice (MJ) - 3 e-tools; Ministry of Labour and Social Politics (MLSP) and Ministry of Education and Science (MES) – 2 e-tools and Ministry of Defence (MD) implemented only 1 e-tool.

The findings suggest that the most commonly implemented e-tool is e-service with 87%, followed by e-campaign and e-forms with 73% (See Figure 2).

**Figure 2.** *Implemented e-tools on Ministries' official websites*

For example, at the Ministry of Interior there are possibilities for reporting a crime or abuse, than lost and found objects, reporting a place of temporary housing, scheduling a term for issuing personal document (ID or passport, as well as driving license).

Furthermore, in the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Economy there are possibilities for e-auction. Public announcements are available on most of the Ministries' official websites. All of these possibilities can be categorized as e-services.

The only two cases where the e-tool Webcast is implemented is on the web sites of the Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Interior whereby the webcast is used to provide for monitoring and transparency when taking certain exams (such as the bar exam, the driving license exam etc.).

Some of the listed e-tools on the questionnaire, such as e-meeting, e-voting and e-petitions are not implemented at all which means that there is no cooperation level of citizen involvement on central government level.

The overall results from the collected answers indicate that only informative and consultation level exists on the Ministries' official websites.

The officials in the ministries were asked to report any future activities for developing e-democracy processes. Application of e-polls, e-forums, as well as

establishing Facebook and Twitter profiles, were reported as one of the main future activities for extending e-democracy.

The officials also reported in the questionnaire that the citizens still prefer traditional way of communications with the administration, with the exception to the younger generation. They also noted that citizens use e-tools mostly to obtain information and less to participate in the processes.

## STUDY LIMITATIONS

The study has some limitations such as an issue that was not addressed i.e. whether e-tools used and listed in the answered questionnaire provide real communication and feedback in both directions (consultation level of citizen involvement) in the Republic of Macedonia. In other words, the extent of provided communication and feedback in both directions was not measured.

Another limitation in this study is the fact that we only did mapping of the e-tools used on the Ministries' official websites. We did not map the e-tools used on the additional websites.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study evaluated the levels of citizen involvement on central governmental level in the Republic of Macedonia in terms of e-democracy process. To determine the levels of citizen involvement in the process of e-democracy, we used the typology presented in EPACE Project. According to this typology, there are three levels of citizen involvement: informative public participation, consultative public participation and cooperative public participation level.

For the purpose of our research, we analyzed the official websites of the Ministries in the Government of the Republic of Macedonia.

As the findings in this study suggest, the applied e-tools provide only information and consultation level of citizen involvement which means that particular e-tools, such as e-petitions and e-voting are not used at all.

The findings based on collected answers indicated that from all the 15 Ministries, the Ministry of Information Society and Administration (MISA) and the Ministry of Health (MH) lead in implementation of e-tools.

The research also revealed that the most commonly implemented e-tool on the official Ministries' websites is the e-tool called e-service, followed by e-campaign and e-forms.

The only two cases where the e-tool Webcast is implemented is on the websites of the Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Interior.

According to the findings based on collected answers the citizens still prefer traditional way of communications with the administration. The officials reported that the citizens use e-tools mostly to obtain information and less to participate in the processes.

Applications of e-polls, e-forums as well as establishing Facebook and Twitter profiles were reported as one of the main future activities for extending e-democracy.

The empirical findings in this study enhance our understanding of the importance of e-democracy as a precondition for development of the democratic processes and democratic institutions within the society. Also, these findings provide a profound understanding of the relationship between different e-tools and levels of citizen involvement.

An issue that was not addressed in this study is whether e-tools used and listed in the answered questionnaire provide real communication and feedback in both directions, in other word - consultation level of citizen involvement in the Republic of Macedonia.

However, there is a little evidence that these initiatives have done much to ameliorate aforementioned problems that the country is still facing, such as: weak democratic institutions, low level of trust in the governments and low level of citizens' participation in democratic processes using ICT as intermediary.

Further research on this topic should be undertaken in order to investigate the factors of insufficient usage of e-tools as means of e-participation, the uneven application of e-tools among the ministries, as well as the absence of e-democratic approach of some ministries.

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## **COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION CURRICULUM FOR HR PROFESSIONALS**

### **Abstract**

This paper describes a competency framework for design of a competency-based curriculum for dual postgraduate HRM education at the Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research, within the University “Ss. Cyril and Methodius”. The competency is much more than just knowledge and skills. It involves ability to meet complex demands, by drawing and mobilizing personal traits (including abilities, values and attitudes/behaviour) in a particular context. The concept of key competencies has become a vital component in the vocabulary of educational policy-makers and reformers and the question of assessing and measuring the output of educational processes is a discussion topic that triggers keen interest all over the globe. Human resource management (HRM) must meet

higher expectations that confront contemporary organizations and the HR profession should be upgraded. HR professionals must not only observe, but also understand and adapt to the changing business conditions and business trends. HR professionals are expected to contribute by the competencies they possess. HR practices must become more integrated, aligned, and innovative. HR professionals with the right competencies will be more likely to engage employees, to serve customers, and to create intangible shareholder wealth.

**Key words:** Human Resource Management, Competency framework, HR professionals, Education curriculum.

## INTRODUCTION

Corporate restructuring, globalizing business, industrial democracy, workforce diversification and constant changes in employment/labour laws have propelled HRM as one of the pivotal areas for organizational success. Along with HRM's new strategic role (Huselid, 1995; Ulrich,) there came new role demands and requests on HR practitioners and consultants (Baill, 1999; Dyer, 1999; Hunter, 1999; Losy, 1999). As the field of HRM has generally evolved, so have the concerns of professionalism (Wiley, 1995). As noted by Wilhelm (1990), this increased focus on professionalism is well represented by the HRM professional degrees offered by many leading colleges and universities (Adler & Lawler, 1999; Brockbank, Ulrich, & Beatty, 1999; Heneman, 1999; Kaufman, 1999).

Clearly, competency models and competency-based HRM systems are at the forefront of HRM practice. Although private industry has made use of this approach, the trend has not been as widespread in educational institutions preparing HRM professionals. It is time for colleges and universities to prepare the next generation of HRM professionals in the same fashion that highly skilled HRM professionals are changing their own organizations, namely, through identification and development of critical competencies (Wooten & Elden, 2001).

Seminal efforts by Boyatzis (1982), Dubois (1993), and Spencer and Spencer (1993) have illustrated empirically sound approaches for differentiating levels of employee performance. Competency models for general management have numerous implications for the practice of HRM, specifically in the areas of recruitment, selection, performance management, job analysis and training/learning needs assessment. Use of competency models can be used to create integrated HRM systems that are clearly directed toward successful performance.

One of the first models produced was by the School of Business at the University of Michigan. The components of this model are well documented (Ulrich et al., 1989). Actually the most widely cited study of HR competencies is the work conducted by Ulrich and colleagues (1994, 1995, 1997, 2007, and 2012). In the first wave of his research, Ulrich found that technical HR skills, change agent skills, and knowledge of business were critical to success for HR professionals. The second wave added the notion that strategic knowledge and skills were critical, including areas such as: knowledge of financial management, customer demand, and external competitive threats. In the third wave of surveys, researchers added two more areas of HR competency: culture management and personal credibility. Boyatzis, Cowen, and Kolb (1995) have illustrated how a competency-based approach was used to redesign the MBA programme at the Weatherhead School of Management at Case Western Reserve University. The effort was designed specifically to reflect

the added value of multiple stakeholders and focus on learning outcomes. Kesler (1995) also demonstrated the use of HRM competencies in redesigning roles and HRM practices in a multinational corporation. Morris (1996) illustrated how a competency model and developmental sequence successfully restructured an HR function for a telecommunications organization. Of particular importance in this case was the utilization of a partnership with line managers in the organization. Kochanski and Rose (1996) chronicled the use of competencies in the redesign of HRM practices and provided successful evidence from two multinational organizations. The McBer Company also developed a competency model for HRM managers that are composed of three general areas. As noted by Yeung (1996), these competencies involve the areas of goal and action management, interpersonal and people management, and analytical reasoning. The results of Lawson's (1990) study produced a senior-level competency model depicting the characteristics of highly effective HRM leaders. This model was "intended to define and describe prescriptively the competencies and related behaviours required by superior performers from both the Chief Executive Officers' (CEOs) and the HR practitioners' perspective" (Lawson & Limbrick, 1996). This model consists of five competency clusters. These are: goal and action management, functional and organizational leadership, influence management, business knowledge, and HR technical proficiency. Kaufman (1999) reviewed the literature of the development of the fields of industrial relations and HR and concluded that the biggest gaps between what employers want in HR graduates and what they are getting are in the areas of written and oral communication skills, leadership, negotiation skills, knowledge of organizational dynamics, and strategic understanding of HR. Summarizing key findings concerning competencies required for success in HRM, Barber (1999) concluded that university HR curricula today should include: (a) traditional HR functions, (b) change management and leadership skills (communication, negotiation, etc.), and (c) business skills (understand the language of business and be able to function as effective business partners). Furthermore, Barber suggested that the proper role of an educational institution is not to produce graduates fully qualified in each of these three areas, but rather to provide a broad-based educational foundation on which professionals continue to build through experience and training (McEvoy, Hayton, Warnick, Mumford, Hanks & Blahna, 2005).

The project "Development of key competency framework for HR professionals, as a basis for creating a dual educational system for HRM in Republic of Macedonia" was recognized as a need and a high priority by the Ministry of Education and Science of Republic of Macedonia and it received a financial support from the UNESCO 2014-2015 Participation Programme.

The project had several main aims:

- i. to identify the main competencies required from Macedonian HR professionals at the highest career level;
- ii. to create curricula of a HRM dual study programme as postgraduate studies at the Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research (ISPJR), University “Ss. Cyril and Methodius” based on the identified competencies as a predetermined learning outcomes;
- iii. to examine the possibilities and the capacity of introducing dual HRM studies in Republic of Macedonia.

The dual HRM educational system, based on the French model, would enable a connection between the theoretical and the practical knowledge of HRM, through a combination of academic and professional studies. The advantage of ISPJR as a scientific, research and higher education institution (which organizes HRM postgraduate studies continuously since 1991) is that besides the two components mentioned above, it easily adds the research methodology for HRM as a third component, which raises the gained competencies to the most advanced level, building capacities and skills for analysis, in order to make the most appropriate business decisions and recommendations based upon primary data.

## METHODOLOGY

Taking a competency-based approach to HR education curriculum design involves: firstly, identifying what competencies are critical to professional performance, and secondly, addressing if and how personal traits, abilities, and skills can be incorporated into an educational programme in addition to specialized HR knowledge.

Therefore, the competency framework design is based upon the DeSeCo methodological approach (Rychen & Salganik, 2002) as most suitable for identification, definition and selection of the key competencies for HR professionals at the highest career level.

In the first phase of the creation of the competency framework for HR professionals in Republic of Macedonia, a preliminary exploratory research was conducted, which consisted of a literature review of the up-to-date existing competency models for HR professionals in developed countries. In this phase, a draft HR competency framework was synthesized from the selected models: Ulrich, Younger, Brockbank & Ulrich's (2012) HR competency model, the American competency model (Society

for Human Resource Management, 2012) and the Canadian HR competency model (Canadian Council of Human Resources Associations, 2014) aiming at describing the necessary competencies for HR professionals.

In the second phase, six focus groups with HR professionals were held. The respondents (N=48) mainly came from the private sector. Representatives of the top 100 most successful companies in Republic of Macedonia were invited to participate, as well as members of the Macedonian Human Resource Association (MHRA) executive board. Selected graduated students were invited from the alumni database of ISPJR who are experienced and had worked as HR professionals at the higher career levels. HR professionals from the public sector were also invited, in order to ensure that the framework will have a universal character, i.e. to make sure if the framework could be applied in all sectors regardless of the ownership, size, location or the type of industry.

The respondents were asked to:

- ✓ point out which of the proposed competencies add greatest value to all stakeholders;
- ✓ select competencies that are necessary to them personally to successfully perform their everyday working assignments and attain maximum performance;
- ✓ answer how the competencies can be most rapidly and most effectively acquired and developed by the HR professionals; and
- ✓ assess the possibilities and the capacities of the companies to accept students-interns in their HR departments.

The third phase included two expert panel meetings in Skopje and Paris, of HRM university professors and HRM consultants from: the Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research, University “Ss. Cyril and Methodius” – Skopje, Macedonia; the centre for Continuing Education within the University of Sorbonne, France; and the Bled School of Management, Slovenia. During the meetings, experiences and best practices were shared with regard to:

- ✓ the implementation of the competencies frameworks for HR professionals in the educational curricula;
- ✓ the implementation of the competencies frameworks for HR professionals in the companies; and
- ✓ the legal requirements and the regulations related to the HRM competencies.

Special attention was dedicated to the description of the procedures and the manner the dual system for HRM studies functions at the University of Sorbonne,

and about the design of its curricula. In the final phase, the findings from the previous project activities were generated and synthesized into a research report in the form of a study (Borota Popovska & Topuzovska Latkovikj, 2015) and a research paper separately.

## RESULTS

Nine competencies were identified and selected, as the most valuable and significant for the HR professionals at the highest career levels, across both – the private and the public sector and different types of industries. They are defined as the following:

1. *HR expertise* - Knowledge about the principles, experiences and the functions for effective human resource management;
2. *Mediation* - Ability to manage and facilitate the relations between the employer, the union (if there is one), the managers, the employees and all the other internal and external stakeholders, in order to enable a productive working environment, based on mutual cooperation and respect;
3. *Consultation* - Ability to give advice/guidance to all stakeholders of the organization;
4. *Leadership and direction* - Ability to lead and to contribute to the initiatives and the processes in the organization
5. *Communication* - Ability for efficient and effective exchange of information with all stakeholders;
6. *Global action* - Ability to value, understand and manage differences and diversity;
7. *Ethical practice* - Ability to integrate key values, integrity and accountability in all organizational and business practices;
8. *Knowledge of the business* - Ability to understand and apply information in order to contribute to the organization's strategic plan; and
9. *Argument-based decision making* - Ability to interpret information when making decision and recommendations for the business.

Competencies can be either technical or behavioural (Society for Human Resource Management, 2012). Technical competencies primarily reflect the knowledge-based requirements of a specific job category (e.g., HR professionals). The behavioural competencies are more general and at surface level can apply across multiple job categories. Behavioural competencies describe the specific and

observable behaviour associated with effective job performance and reflect the ways in which knowledge is applied.

More precisely, the competence *HR expertise* is an indispensable technical competence which presupposes specific knowledge, and the other competencies such as: *communication, mediation* or *ethical practice* are behavioural competencies, which are also very important for the working performance of the HR professionals but, at the same time, they are necessary and required in other job categories i.e. professions.

There is also a list of sub-competencies, which are the most important and describe each of the general competencies; and the desired behaviour at the highest level of acquisition of the competencies is furthermore described inside the competency framework (Borota Popovska & Topuzovska Latkovikj, 2015).

## CONCLUSIONS

As a conclusion it is important to highlight that this competency framework represents a major step for the HR profession and the HRM education in the Republic of Macedonia. The HRM educational curricula should be developed and the dual system should be implemented successfully, as soon as possible in the near future. The ongoing self-evaluation of the study programmes and the feedback from the companies where students will have their internship, and later will be employed, as higher level HR professionals, should give us insights about the quality and the correctness of the competency framework and the directions for its revision. Indicators for each of the competencies should be also developed which will enable their measurement and assessment in the processes of recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance management/appraisal.

We hope that this paper and its findings will enrich the scientific and professional HRM literature and that it will directly and indirectly serve to: the lawmakers for higher education and the HR profession itself in the country; managers; HR professionals and the future HRM students.

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## **THE STUDENTS' ETHNIC IDENTITY DILEMMAS**

### **Abstract**

It seems that in the modern European societies some of the collective identities start to transform themselves. One of the basic cultural collective identity, the ethnicity, as an action oriented identity, looks as it is not very important in the presence of European people. In the Macedonian society, also, there are some modern processes concerning the development of stronger personal identities of the youth, that try to change the way of living. Nevertheless, past research showed that in Macedonia the ethnic identities matter a lot as part of the cultural, political and social living. Namely, the ethnic identities interfere with the quality of life, depending on the fact whether you are part of the Macedonian majority, or member of the smaller ethnic groups, the Albanians, the Turks, the Roma, the Vlachs, the Serbs and the

Bosnians. This paper will research the intensity of the ethnic identities among the university students from different national groups through their ethnic distance towards other groups. **We will argue that the strong presence of ethnic self-perceptions could be an obstacle for bigger social integration.**

**Key words:** ethnic identity, ethnic distance, social integration, civic values, student population

## INTRODUCTION

How did the ethnic paradigm make a comeback in the independent and modern Macedonian state? In the post-1989 period, the class as a category in the Macedonian society was in a big part replaced with ethnicity, while the ethnic and cultural differences became main factors of mobilization. The politics of recognition of identities in the new 1991 Constitution did not contribute for development of an integrated society. Some elements of socio-cultural variant of multiculturalism, practiced until 2000s, with the Ohrid Agreement were more and more transformed in the model of division of power among different ethnic groups, through balancing of the individual and the group rights as consequence of ethnicization of all spheres in the society. (Atanasov, 2003) People need to belong to some 'extended family', even though it is an imagined one – the nation, the ethnic group. If the state does not provide the glue, some groups are able to provide it themselves, to efficiently mobilize and fight for it. The ethnicity proved as the most powerful glue due to the recent 'historical' evidences (Atanasov, 2004a). Ethnicization of the social system in Macedonia was being promoted at large. Ethnic media, businesses, non-governmental organizations, 'ethnic' historical rights and isolated social systems with the two biggest ethnic groups - Macedonians and Albanians, were being promoted. In Macedonia since 1991 the prejudices were developing from social and cultural (inherited from socialist time) into a rigid politically (and ethnically) colored intolerance. The citizenship as identity was losing importance compared to religious belonging. (Simoska, 2001) That is how the ethnically divided society was missing the point, concerning the bare necessity of social integration as a way for better quality of life and social cohesion. Additionally, the values that are important to interethnic tolerance are almost missing from the educational process. From the research done by Institute for Sociological Political and Juridical Research from Skopje, in Macedonian society, among younger population, there is a clear domination of the political mythology that directly leads to ethnocentrism. (Simoska, 2001a)

This paper will try to research the current intensity of the ethnic identities among the university students from different national groups, after the two decades of living in the ethnically divided society. The main research question is that the strong presence of the ethnic identities might be the obstacle for bigger social integration. The main research topic is the student's ethnic distance towards other groups. This research was conducted among student population in their last year of studies. The total number of respondents was 707, including 256 male and 451 female, 442 Macedonian and 239 Albanian respondents. There will be plenty of data that were used to prove the stated thesis and other research questions.

## THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Some authors, like Anthony Smith, perceived many nations as originated in pre-existing ethnic groups. 'The appeal of the national identity they involve is, then, derived in large part from that of those ethnic identities' (Gilbert, 2000). Smith 'offered fresh and illuminating insights into pre-modern forms of collective cultural identity such as those embodied in ethnies' (Guibernau, 2004). Guibernau points out that Smith explores the origin of nations and national identity and finds them in ethnic identity as a pre-modern form of collective cultural identity. In his *Ethnic Origins of Nations*, Smith usefully presents an overview of six constituent elements or 'dimensions' of the ethnie as he sees it: a collective name, a common myth of descent, a shared history, a distinctive shared culture, an association with a specific territory and a sense of solidarity. The most important criterion of ethnic identity, according to Smith, is the sense of solidarity, but the common myth of descent also plays an important role (Smith, 1999). And finally, Eriksen, following Smith, points that 'seeing oneself as culturally distinctive, collectively and individually, from other groups, and acting accordingly, is crucial for ethnic identification to endure' (Eriksen, 2004). Ethnicity is elaborated in wider context in many analyses and textbooks that date in late 1990s. (Atanasov, 2004)

Other scholars have different accounts. Joireman shows that the formation of ethnic identity consists of ascribed traits plus social inputs. The ascribed traits are appearance, place of birth, language, and the social inputs are ancestral myths, subjective beliefs, political power of the group, economics, religion and language. 'Our ethnic identities can shift over time as the context we are in changes. They can also change in relation to varying economic and political incentives and as the context an individual is in alters' (Joireman, 2003). In ethnic nationalisms, 'national identity is often perceived as a reflection or awareness of possession of "primordial" or inherited characteristics, components of "ethnicity", such as language, customs, territorial affiliation, and physical type' (Greenfeld, 1992). All told, 'when people think about "identity" they have in mind things like language, ethnicity, religion, symbols (e.g., myths, historical monuments, and anthems)' (Constantin, Rautz, 2003).

Concerning the social integration models, basically there are two types of models. It seems to originate from the two opposing social philosophies, expressed in the differences between the social models of equilibrium and the conflicting models of a society (Kuper, 1997). The model of equilibrium ties democracy to pluralism. Political structure of a society in the model of equilibrium is plural itself. The designing of the system of constitutional balance was ment to acheive a division of power between legislative and executive, administrative and judicial. This guarantees pluralism in the structure of power and provides a basis for a



system of balance, while the dispersion of power contributes to political pluralism. Integration in its part is influenced by a system of transmitted loyalties and multiple affiliations. The multiple affiliations are not enough by themselves for a plural society. Ethnic associations can be highly inclusive, or can inspire social divisions, divided loyalties and obedience towards authoritarian control. That is why it insists on the multiple affiliations as an additional condition for pluralism. The attachment to common values is certainly a basis for integration and the consensual form is the model of equilibrium. The conflict model of the plural society originates from Furnival. The social basis is a mixture of people who live side by side, but separated, within the same political unit. They mix but do not connect. Each group clings to its religion, culture and language, its ideals and customs. They only meet on the market, for buying and selling. The economic symbiosis and the cultural differences, as well as the social divisions are characteristics of the social basis of the plural society. Furnival stresses the domination of disagreement and the absence of common will for a better integration (Kuper, 1997).

This analysis can provide us with few conclusions. An integrated society or a society of equilibrium is the one in which integration happens through social pluralism and transmitted loyalties. It is the one in which communication is determined by economy, in which there are consensual and common values. Contrary to that, the society is on conflict if the integration is hardly achieved, because of the domination of the cultural pluralism and ethnic loyalties. The communication in this case is mainly through cultural differences as main determinant. There is no disagreement and no common values, while the society sustains through rules. Those are the main elements of the social model of equilibrium and the conflict social model, where individual identification prevails in the first one, and group identity (ethnic) in the second one.

The data which follow will be used to position Macedonian society with regards to the above definitions of ethnic identity and models of social integration. As it was postulated, this paper focuses on the existence of the ethnic distance among student population towards other ethnic groups. The ethnic distance was measured with Bogardus scaling technique. The scale attempts to measure respondents' degree of warmth, intimacy, indifference, or hostility to particular social relationships, by having them indicate agreement or disagreement with a series of statements about ethnic groups in this particular case. In the research there was a 7 level scale of distance (the first level was "to get married" and the last one "I don't want any kind of contact"). Also, the ethnic distance was measured from the aspects of Macedonians and Albanians towards other ethnic groups. The data regard four groups: Macedonians (as the majority), Albanians (as biggest minority group), and Turks and Serbs as control groups.

## THE RESEARCH DATA

Table 1 shows the percent of the given answers from the perspective of the Macedonian students. As can be seen from the data presented in the first level (“to get married”), there are only 3.2% of Macedonians who do not exhibit any ethnic distance towards Albanians and Turks, while this percent is 11.6% towards the Serbs. A very low level of ethnic distance was measured with relation to the response “to be a close friend”, so, this percent towards Albanian is 19.2%. It is higher towards Turks - 27.5% and almost half of the Macedonians students chose this level of distance towards Serbs. Regarding the option “to live in the same neighborhood”, percentages are higher towards Turks and Serbs than towards Albanians. As can be seen from the level “I don’t want any kind of contact” from the perspective of Macedonians students, the ethnic distance is highest towards Albanians and is 37%.

**Table 1** *Ethnic distance – Macedonian students*

|  | <b>Mac.</b> | <b>Alb.</b> | <b>Turks</b> | <b>Serbs</b> |
|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>1. To get married</b>                         | 89,3%       | 3,2%        | 3,2%         | 11,6%        |
| <b>2. To be a close friend</b>                   | 7,4%        | 19,2%       | 27,5%        | 51,2%        |
| <b>3. To live in the same neighborhood</b>       | 0,7%        | 5,8%        | 18,7%        | 15,2%        |
| <b>4. To work/learn in the same organization</b> | 0,7%        | 10,2%       | 13,4%        | 7%           |
| <b>5. To be an acquaintance</b>                  | 1,2%        | 18%         | 19,7%        | 7%           |
| <b>6. To live in the same town</b>               | 0,7%        | 6,6%        | 8,3%         | 5,6%         |
| <b>7. I don’t want any kind of contact</b>       | 0%          | 37,1%       | 9,2%         | 2,4%         |

Graph 1 shows the average values for the same data. The graph indicates that the ethnic distance from the perspective of Macedonian students is highest towards Albanians (with average value 4.89) and lowest towards Serbs (2.73). The average value towards Turks is 3.81.

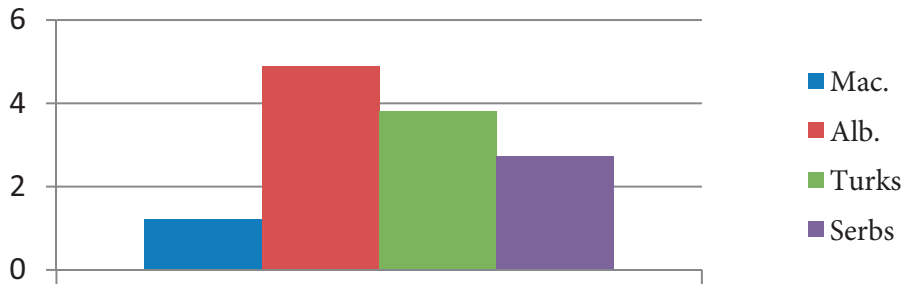
**Graph 1** – Average values (Macedonian students)

Table 2 presents the Albanian student's perspective to the same question. As can be seen from the data presented in the first level "to get married" only 2% of Albanians don't file any ethnic distance towards Macedonians, and this percent is 0.5 towards Serbs, and 7.8% towards Turks. A very low level of ethnic distance was measured with relation to the response "to be a close friend", so, this percent towards Macedonians is 15.7%, it is higher towards Turks - 39.2% and only 3.1% towards Serbs. Regarding the option "to live in the same neighborhood" percentages are higher towards Turks and Macedonians than towards Serbs. As can be seen from the level "I don't want any kind of contact", from the perspective of Albanians students, the ethnic distance is highest towards Serbs and is 33.6%.

**Table 2** Ethnic distance – Albanian students

|  | Mac.  | Alb.  | Turks | Serbs |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| <b>1. To get married</b>                         | 2%    | 78%   | 7,8%  | 0,5%  |
| <b>2. To be a close friend</b>                   | 15,7% | 12,4% | 39,2% | 3,1%  |
| <b>3. To live in the same neighborhood</b>       | 21,6% | 1,4%  | 17,6% | 3,6%  |
| <b>4. To work/learn in the same organization</b> | 20,6% | 2,4%  | 11,3% | 6,6%  |
| <b>5. To be an acquaintance</b>                  | 10,3% | 4,3%  | 7,8%  | 13,8% |
| <b>6. To live in the same town</b>               | 15,2% | 1%    | 10,8% | 5,6%  |
| <b>7. I don't want any kind of contact</b>       | 14,7% | 0,5%  | 5,4%  | 66,8% |

From graph 2 with average values, it is obvious that the ethnic distance is highest towards Serbs (with average value 6.14) and lowest towards Turks (3.26). The average value towards Macedonians is 4.26.

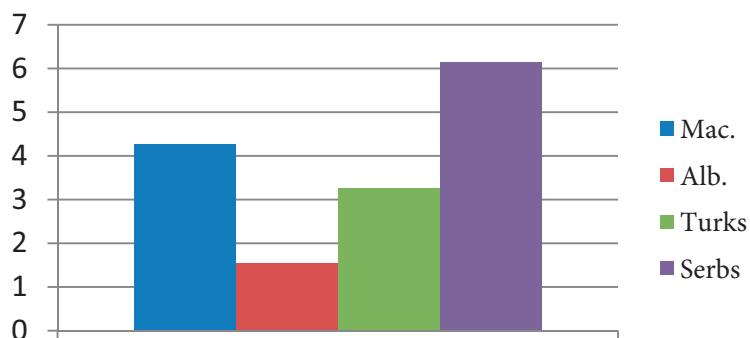
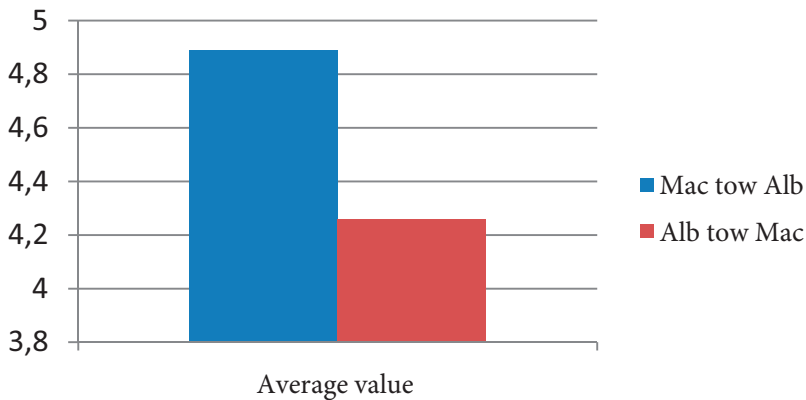
**Graph 2** – Average values (Albanian students)

Table 3 shows the attitudes of the Macedonians and the Albanians towards each other. There is a statistically significant difference between the two represented groups of responses, so, as can be seen from the table, difference exists in the levels of ethnic distance which are more related to the space (space of living, space of working). There is not a big difference in the first two levels of distance. The data from the last row shows the highest level of existence of the ethnic distance among Macedonians towards Albanians (this was chosen level for 37% of them).

**Table 3** Ethnic distance

|  | Mac. towards Alb. | Alb. towards Mac. |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|
| <b>1. To get married</b>                         | 3.2%              | 2%                |
| <b>2. To be a close friend</b>                   | 19.2%             | 15.7%             |
| <b>3. To live in the same neighborhood</b>       | 5.8%              | 21.6%             |
| <b>4. To work/learn in the same organization</b> | 10.2%             | 20.6%             |
| <b>5. To be an acquaintance</b>                  | 18%               | 10.3%             |
| <b>6. To live in the same town</b>               | 6.6%              | 15.2%             |
| <b>7. I don't want any kind of contact</b>       | 37.1%             | 14.7%             |

The presented average value (graph 3) indicates that the number is higher in the first case, which shows existence of higher ethnic distance among Macedonians toward Albanians (the average value is 4.89), than among Albanians towards Macedonians (the average value in this case is 4.26).

**Graph 3** – Average values

From the t-test between those values, we have observed the existence of a statistically significant difference, but also the existence of a greater difference within the same group than between the two groups. **Thus, from the results of the t-test, we cannot say that the ethnicity per se is a key factor that has influence over the ethnic distance.**

The statement about the importance of elements of identity was measured on a three degree scale (completely agree, partly agree, disagree). In order to have better overview of the students' answers about the importance of those identities, we show only the percentages of responses "completely agree", separately for every ethnic group.

**Table 6** Identities ranks

|   | Macedonians            |   | Albanians              |
|---|------------------------|---|------------------------|
| 1 | Personal Identity 90%  | 1 | Personal Identity 82%  |
| 2 | Civic Identity 42%     | 2 | Religious Identity 66% |
| 3 | State Identity 37%     | 3 | Ethnic Identity 56%    |
| 4 | Ethnic Identity 33%    | 4 | Civic Identity 33%     |
| 5 | Religious Identity 31% | 5 | State Identity 25%     |

As can be seen from the results, personal identity is most important among the students from both ethnic groups. But when we look at the rank of the collective identities we can see the differences. Civic and state are the most important secondary identities among Macedonian students, while among the Albanians, it is the religious and the ethnic identity.

The frequencies of the question “What kind of society would you like ours to be?” with the ethnic variable showed statistically significant differences. Table 6 shows that “multicultural” were response of 61.2% among Albanians and 27.4% among Macedonians. For “civic society” the percentages are 54.5% among Macedonians and 30.4% among Albanians.

**Table 7-** *What kind of society would you like ours to be?*

|               | Total | Macedonians | Albanians |
|---------------|-------|-------------|-----------|
| Multicultural | 39%   | 27.4%       | 61.2%     |
| Bi ethnic     | 2.4%  | 1.8%        | 3%        |
| Civic         | 45.1% | 54.5%       | 30.4%     |
| I don't know  | 12.2% | 16.3%       | 5.5%      |

## CONCLUSIONS

The ethnic division is still very present among members of different communities in the country, within all populations including students. Most pronounced is the ethnic divide between Macedonians and Albanians, but there are also negative attitudes towards other smaller groups by members of larger communities. Macedonian society is perceived mainly as a civic one, but still interference is done by the cultural differences that have their own political influence. Those “ethnic nodes” can be identified through the social (ethnic) distance and the presence of negative stereotypes about the other group. Here divisions and relationships are pronounced. The highest ethnic distance exhibited by Macedonians regards the Albanians and is described as “do not want any contact”. The same answer, however, is given by both groups with regards to Roma. Ethnic distance of young Macedonians is lowest towards Serbs. The highest ethnic distance by Albanian students is towards the Serbs but also towards the Vlachs and Roma. The lowest is the distance in relation to the Turks.

It is a perfectly legitimate question, how much of ethnicity can actually be pronounced and articulated without disturbing the cohesion of the society. Data display big gaps and bad feelings between some ethnic communities. Negative context and present elements of strong ethnic distance speaks more towards model of ethnic confrontation than model of equilibrium. Civic elements like identities and values can contribute in the process of building new values that will bred signs of social integration. We proved existence of strong ethnic identification, high social

distance among ethnic communities and weak cross ethnic elements which could enable social integration. Ethnicity is not solely responsible for the ethnic divisions. There are deeper seated reasons interconnected with ethnicity that interfere in the current social fabric. Overcoming the situation where ethnic gaps hinder the social integration, is a condition without which the Republic of Macedonia will not be able to produce a more civic society, greater development and progress, both as a country and as a society. In order to achieve this aim, the citizens of the Macedonian society will have to find more common civic goals and values. Current situation is not promising. As long as we are hiding behind ethnic identity we cannot build a society together.

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