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THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF THE EUROPEAN UNION TOWARDS CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE

Vesna Poposka, Hasan Oktay , page 9-19

ABSTRACT

Critical infrastructure protection is crucial to enrich and develop the four main freedoms of movement that settle the single European market. Besides, due to the recent developments related to the pandemic and energy crisis, the critical infrastructure development and protection gets different dimension. The EU has followed a sectoral approach in this area, with activities scattered across spheres of action led by a variety of institutional actors. In principle, this provides an adapted approach to different integrity needs and different legal competencies within the policy spectrum, but as will be discussed later in this paper , this also has important implications for a coherent and holistic European response. Although there are several sectoral legal bases for the protection of critical infrastructure at EU level (for example, in the transport and energy sectors), the founding agreements do not directly address critical infrastructure protection issues directly. Although the milestones of the protection of critical infrastructure were settled more than a decade ago, the basic framework has not changed much a cornerstone of action that generates and allocates funding through different programs and projects. The paper aims to provide overall framework and general vision over the framework of activities in the area that is pretty diverse.

Key words: critical infrastructure, *acquis communautaire*, harmonization, subsidiarity, funding



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INTRODUCTION

As the European society becomes more interconnected and advanced, its dependence on critical infrastructure is inevitably delicate. Despite its increasing importance, many European businesses and citizens still seem to underestimate the risks to which critical infrastructures are exposed.

The indicative list of EU sectors of critical infrastructure includes 11 sectors :

1. Energy (Oil and gas production, refining, treatment and storage, including pipelines, Electricity generation, Transmission of electricity, gas and oil, Distribution of electricity, gas and oil)
2. Information, Communication Technologies, ICT (Information system and network protection, Instrumentation automation and control systems, Internet, Provision of fixed telecommunications, Provision of mobile telecommunications, Radio communication and navigation, Satellite communication, Broadcasting)
3. Water (Provision of drinking water, Control of water quality, Stemming and control of water quantity)
4. Food (Provision of food and safeguarding food safety and security)
5. Health (Medical and hospital care, Medicines, serums, vaccines and pharmaceuticals, Bio-laboratories and bio-agents)
6. Financial (Payment services/payment structures (private) Government financial assignment)
7. Public & Legal Order and Safety (Maintaining public & legal order, safety and security, Administration of justice and detention)
8. Civil administration (Government functions, Armed forces, Civil administration services, Emergency services, Postal and courier services)
9. Transport (Road transport, Rail transport, Air traffic, Inland waterways transport, Ocean and short-sea shipping)
10. Chemical and nuclear industry (Production and storage/processing of chemical and nuclear substances, Pipelines of dangerous goods /chemical substances)
11. Space and Research(A Review of Critical Infrastructure Domains in Europe - SPEAR Project, 2021)

The European Critical Infrastructure Protection Program (EPCIP) sets out the overall framework for activities aimed at improving the protection of

critical infrastructure in Europe - across all EU countries and in all relevant sectors of economic activity (Critical infrastructure protection - EU Science Hub - European Commission, 2021). The threats that the program aims to address are not limited to terrorism, but also include criminal activity, natural disasters, and other causes of accidents. A key pillar of this program is the 2008 European Critical Infrastructure Directive (COUNCIL DIRECTIVE 2008/114/EC of 8 December 2008 on the identification and designation of European critical infrastructures and the assessment of the need to improve their protection). Historically, the initiative began after the London and Madrid bombings, after which the Council called for a comprehensive strategy to protect critical infrastructure. The European Commission has adopted the Communication on the Protection of Critical Infrastructure in the Fight against Terrorism, which proposes initiatives that will improve European prevention, preparedness and response to terrorist attacks involving critical infrastructure. The Council Conclusions on "Prevention, Preparedness and Response to Terrorist Attacks" and the "EU Solidarity Program on the Consequences of Terrorist Threats and Attacks", adopted by the Council in December 2004, supported the Commission's intention to propose a European program to protect Critical Infrastructure (EPCIP) and the establishment of the Critical Infrastructure Warning Information Network (CIWIN). Following this call, several initiatives have been launched at EU level to contribute to a more integrated critical infrastructure protection policy.

KEY DOCUMENTS

The European Critical Infrastructure Protection Program focuses on four main pillars (European critical infrastructure Revision of Directive 2008/114/EC):

- creating a procedure for identifying and assessing Europe's critical infrastructure and learning how to better protect it. This procedure is established for the energy and transport sectors in the Directive on the identification and designation of European critical infrastructure
- measures to assist in the protection of infrastructure, including EU-designated expert groups and the establishment of the Critical Infrastructure Warning Information Network (CIWIN) - an Internet-based communication system for the exchange of information, studies and best practices.

- financing of over 100 projects for critical infrastructure protection from 2007 onwards. These projects focused on a variety of issues, including national and European information exchange and alert systems, the development of ways to assess the interdependence between electronic and electricity transmission networks, and the creation of a "good practice" handbook for policy makers.

- international cooperation with the countries of the European Economic Area (EEA) and the countries of the European Free Trade Area (EFTA), as well as expert meetings between the EU, the United States and Canada.

The measures taken through this proposal cannot be achieved by any EU member state alone, and must therefore be considered at EU level. Although each Member State is responsible for protecting critical infrastructure in its jurisdiction, no Member State can provide pan-European data exchange and sufficient protection in the area on its own. Therefore, a joint initiative and a consultation period were taken. Then followed the preparation of the so-called "Green Paper on the European Critical Infrastructure Protection Program" (Commission, 2005).

The Green Paper was adopted on November 17, 2005 (GREEN PAPER ON A EUROPEAN PROGRAMME FOR CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE PROTECTION). Numerous informal meetings were held with representatives of private businesses as well as industry associations. Although a "policy document", it is the Green Paper of the European Critical Infrastructure Protection Program, providing an indicative list for identifying critical infrastructure by sectors, as well as a proposed list of framework definitions of key terms.

The EU has followed a sectoral approach in this area, with activities scattered across spheres of action led by a variety of institutional actors. In principle, this provides an adapted approach to different integrity needs and different legal competencies within the policy spectrum, but as will be discussed later, this also has important implications for a coherent and holistic European response.

The key document is council directive 2008/114/EC (COUNCIL DIRECTIVE 2008/114/EC of 8 December 2008 on the identification and designation of European critical infrastructures and the assessment of the need to improve their protection) that settles common methodology for

designation of national critical infrastructure and criteria for establishing European critical infrastructure.

All Member States have implemented the Directive by establishing a process for identifying and designating critical European infrastructure in the energy and transport sectors. In the Directive itself, critical infrastructure is defined as: "an asset, system or part thereof located in the Member States which is essential for the maintenance of the vital social functions, health, safety, economic or social well-being of the people and whose disruption or destruction would "had a significant impact in a Member State as a result of the failure to maintain those functions."

The Directive specifically recognizes the "European Critical Infrastructure" (ECI) as critical infrastructure whose disruption or destruction would have transboundary effects in the Member States, and which should be referred to as such in a joint procedure. The evaluation of security needs in such a case should be performed with the least common approach, through bilateral cooperation schemes. Information regarding such critical infrastructure should be (safely) classified in accordance with the requirements of common and national legislation.

As different sectors have specific experience, expertise and requirements in relation to the protection of critical infrastructure, the Community approach to critical infrastructure should be developed and implemented taking into account sectoral specifics and existing measures, including those already in place at Community level, national or regional level, and where relevant mutual assistance agreements between owners / operators of critical infrastructure are already in force. Given the significant involvement of the private sector in monitoring and risk management, business continuity planning and disaster recovery, community access should encourage full private sector involvement. In accordance with the Directive, the primary and ultimate responsibility for the protection of ECI falls on the Member States and the owners / operators of such infrastructures. Operator Security Plan – OSP or equivalent measures covering the identification of significant assets, risks, assessment and identification, selection and prioritization of countermeasures and procedures should be in force in all designated ECIs. In order to avoid unnecessary work and duplication, each Member State should first assess

whether the owners / operators of the designated ECIs have relevant operational security plans or similar measures. Where such plans do not exist, each Member State should take the necessary steps to ensure that appropriate measures are taken. Each Member State shall decide on the most appropriate form of action to be taken in connection with this activity. The directive also provides for a special procedure for the determination and identification of critical infrastructure. Article 3 of the Directive lays down the conditions to be taken into account.

In accordance with the procedure set out in Annex III, each Member State shall identify potential ECUs (European Critical Infrastructures) that meet the cross-sectoral and sectoral criteria and meet the definitions set out in Article 2 (a) and (b). The Commission can assist Member States at their request to identify potential ECIs.

The Commission may draw the attention of the Member States concerned to the existence of potential critical infrastructures which may be considered to meet the requirements for designation as ECI. Each Member State and the Commission shall continue the process of identifying potential ECIs.

The cross-sectoral criteria contain the following elements:

- (a) criterion for casualties (estimated in relation to the potential number of casualties or injuries);
- (b) an economic impact criterion (assessed in relation to the significance of the economic loss and / or degradation of products or services, including potential effects on the environment);
- (c) public effects criterion (assessed in relation to the impact on public confidence, physical suffering and disruption of daily life, including the loss of basic services).

The threshold for cross-sectoral criteria will be based on the severity of the impact of the disruption or destruction of a particular infrastructure. The precise thresholds applied to the cross-sectoral criteria are determined on a case-by-case basis by the Member States affected by a particular critical infrastructure. Each Member State shall report annually to the Commission on the number of infrastructures by sector discussed in relation to the thresholds for cross-sectoral criteria.

While helping to strengthen European cooperation in the area of critical infrastructure, the Directive mainly encourages bilateral engagement by member states rather than producing a genuine European forum for

cooperation. On the other hand, the majority position of the community is that the general awareness of the protection of critical infrastructure and the level of cooperation in the EU has increased through various activities and forums organized under the Directive, especially in the energy and transport sectors.

Although the Directive is generally welcomed, some actors have criticized it for being counterproductive to the EU's overall efforts. In general, and due to the fact that some critical infrastructures are related to defense, the EU work in this area will have to find a way to overcome the reluctance of member states to provide information, especially if here Member States refrain from exchanging sensitive information due to suspicions. for the obligations of others. Lack of trust is an important notion as the Directive gives national governments a great deal of freedom to evade their responsibilities by simply creating a minimal list of designated critical infrastructures or failing to enforce rules for private operators (Argomaniz, 2013).

RIGHT TO ACT

Although there are several sectoral legal bases for the protection of critical infrastructure at EU level (for example, in the transport and energy sectors), the founding agreements do not directly address critical infrastructure protection issues directly. Initial initiatives in the area can be made under the Treaty on European Community (Treaty establishing the European Community) from 2002 which in Article 2 identifies a number of objectives, the achievement of which can be facilitated by strengthening the protection of critical infrastructure in Europe:

- to promote harmonious, balanced and sustainable development of economic activities;
- to promote a high degree of competitiveness;
- to promote a high degree of protection and improvement of the quality of the environment;
- to promote raising the standard of living and quality of life;
- to promote solidarity among member states.

The Lisbon Treaty (TREATY OF LISBON, 2007) has largely introduced the solidarity clause in Article 222, which calls on member states to act together and to assist one another in the event of a terrorist attack or a natural or man-made disaster. In addition, Lisbon introduced

the formula for additional EU competence in Article 196 to foster cooperation between Member States in order to improve the effectiveness of protection and rescue systems against natural or man-made disasters (Even before the Lisbon Treaty entered into force in 2001, the Commission began coordination to establish the Civil Protection Mechanism and assistance provided by Member States to another Member State which has suffered a disaster (Boin, Rhinard and Ekengren, 2014). The Emergency Coordination Center (ERCC) was set up within the European Directorate for Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection to facilitate coordination and respond more quickly to disasters both inside and outside the EU.

In addition, the competence for the internal market referred to in Article 114 of the TFEU enables the adoption of sectoral measures for security and protection. Importantly, this did not prevent, or perhaps better yet, prompted the Commission to set up various informal networks and centers within the Directorate-General, including networks of national contact and early warning points. The Commission has further developed a knowledge-building approach on how to better protect critical infrastructure by seeking a common approach to basic scientific methodologies and assessments of seemingly less political issues.

To reach this goal, it funds various projects to provide expert knowledge and a deeper understanding of protection at all levels. Examples of this are risk assessment studies and management methodologies. Furthermore, Article 308 of the Treaty provides that if, during the functioning of the common market, Community action is necessary to achieve one of the objectives of the Community and the agreement does not provide the necessary powers, the Council shall act unanimously on a proposal from the Commission and after consultation. with the European Parliament, will take appropriate measures.

The EU's right to act has been recognized by the Council, which in this case has asked the Commission to develop a program to improve the protection of critical infrastructure in the EU. The legal analysis in the context proved that the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality are satisfied.

CONCLUSION

Despite the fact that there are differing opinions on the effective improvement of security, the Directive is a striking example of how the existence of a legal instrument has encouraged policies to protect national critical infrastructure. This has resulted in concrete actions, such as the creation of specific national policy bodies. In the energy sector, there is progress in risk management and protection measures in cooperation with operators

Given the fact that in recent years the security environment of the European Union has changed dramatically, the Union is also trying to provide more coherent responses to security threats, which directly or indirectly include the protection of critical infrastructure. Key challenges to peace and stability in the EU's eastern and southern neighborhoods continue to underscore the need for the Union to adapt and increase its capacity, with a strong focus on the close link between external and internal security. Many of the current challenges to peace, security and prosperity stem from instability in the EU's immediate neighborhood and changing forms of threats.

Within the EU, member states have defined their critical infrastructure differently according to their own needs, so that, for example, some countries do not have an official list at all, some are indicative and some are tactical. With regard to the central authority, the practice is also very fragmented. European critical infrastructure does not enjoy special protection and no central coordinating body for monitoring activities or implementation monitoring mechanism and therefore relevant data is difficult to obtain even for academic purposes.

The European Union has recognized the need to integrate critical infrastructure protection into overall risk management. Risk management in the protection of critical infrastructure has a number of specifics. Risk assessment should be recognized as one of the elements of regulatory decisions in addition to "other legitimate factors" such as social, ethical and political issues at national and EU level. How risks are assessed is not just a technical matter that it can be left to the institutions, but it is a political issue whereas risk management can be fueled by risk assessment and expert advice, but political responsibility cannot be hidden or delegated to scientific experts (van Asselt, Vos and Wildhaber, 2015).

In addition, there is a wide range of horizontal activities aimed at enhancing security and directly related to the protection of critical infrastructure. However, some experts are of the opinion that horizontal activities lack consistency. Horizontally consistent policy response means that it will ensure that its various components follow the common goals set out in the joint programming documents.

Hence, as the resistance of national governments to moving processes rapidly in some areas is unlikely to soften in the near future, a potential aspect for EU institutions to increase their contribution may be to work on better coordination of institutional actors in critical infrastructure protection, transport, critical information infrastructure protection and security as research fields.

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MASS MEDIA'S ETHICAL IMPACT ON CHILDREN

Mensur Nuredin, Abdulxhemil Nesimi , page 21-30

ABSTRACT

The phenomenon of media since its emergence has been influential on people and the society. The size of this effect has changed in direct proportion to the accessibility level of the media. While the media activities which took place only in written form in the first periods were effective on very few people, the formation of audio and visual media structures over time had expanded the influence of the media. Today, the media has gained the feature of being effective on large masses, thanks to the ease of access, interaction feature and the conveniences provided in these areas of the social media structures created in the virtual environment. The social media structure plays a decisive role on the individual and then on the social structure. Although this determination is sometimes unconsciously, in general it is an undeniable fact that the media has a directing effect on society.

When it comes to the effects of communication tools, one of the most discussed issues is the effect of media content on children. It is accepted that since the child has not reached full maturity both physically and mentally, he is more open to influences and needs special protection from the effects that may harm his development. In the context of the media, the protection of children shows a dual structure: protecting children from the exposure to content that may harm their development and protecting children who are the subject of the media content. While providing the aforementioned protections is tried to be realized by laws, on the other hand, solutions are sought with ethical rules to the problems that arise.

Key words: Media, child, morality, psychology.



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INTRODUCTION

Ethics, which is defined as the criteria that individuals generally use to distinguish between right and wrong, has gradually become one of the important research topics of social sciences. The main reason for this is that ethics deals with rules about how individuals should behave or what they should and should not do. Developments in technology due to globalization have deeply affected all areas of social life. In this context, the state-citizen relationship has started to change and as a natural consequence of this, citizens have started to adopt a more active and critical approach towards the state and its institutions, as well as the public bureaucracy.

Ethics, which is defined as the criteria that individuals generally use to distinguish between right and wrong, has gradually become one of the important research topics of social sciences.

Sometimes, there may be violent preferences in social media, and since children are in the period of receiving all messages, it is inevitable that they will receive negative messages as well. Here again, the biggest duty that needs to be taken is by parents. The cartoon characters they watch may enter the world of our children over time, causing them to break away from real life. This affects our children in very different ways at all ages.

Until recently, children were introduced to the media and computer at a later age, while today's children meet with a phone, tablet or television when they are 5 or 6 months old. This greatly affects the development of our children. We put the phone in the hands of our children, who are trying to get to know our world gradually, and prevent their development. Thanks to the developing technology and smart phones, cartoons are the savior of mothers and fathers almost everywhere.

When this is the case, cartoons have become indispensable for children. Cartoons affect our children so much that while accepting the main characters as role models, they begin to exhibit the same behaviors. However, we parents have a great role in choosing cartoons in this regard.

1. CHILDREN'S ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT

TODAY

Early childhood education and special education have an important place in child development and education. The first years are critical years in which child development is rapid. One of the developments whose foundation was laid in these early development years is the ethical development. Ethical development; aims to adapt the individual to the environment he lives in by gaining the value judgments of the society and to form his own principles and value judgments. This system of values develops the individual over time. The characteristics of cognitive development and moral development periods emerge in parallel with each other. As the cognitive development of children in early childhood increases, their ethical development progresses in parallel. When pre-school education institutions are examined closely, there is a need for information on supporting the ethical development. In this critical period when children's personalities are rapidly shaped, they help them learn the rules of nature and the intricacies of social life in line with the interests, rights and freedoms of other individuals as well as themselves. The social learning experiences provided to the child and the models that he sees as examples are effective in moral development. The happiness of the society, the provision of justice and equality in the society, ethical rules and ethical education should be given to people in every part of the society. In this module, you will be able to help children's development in this area effectively by learning the moral development characteristics of children. Guided by the sample activities and tools given on moral development, you will gain new knowledge and skills in order to prepare original tools by choosing the appropriate activity and using your creativity.¹

The pre-school period, when children are just beginning to realize the rights and feelings of others, is an important beginning for moral development. As children expand their social experience as well as the development of their cognition and language, they are increasingly able to express their thoughts ethically independently. Studies have shown that babies develop awareness of social and moral rules from the first years of their lives. Based on people's explanations of their intentions, the three-year-olds say, that a malicious person deserves more punishment than a well-meaning person. When children make social judgments given the

information he uses about consequences and behavior, two important points stand out. First, children do not judge the person causing bad consequences harshly when their intentions are not clear. Second, both outcomes and intentions are significantly affected by children's deliberate inferences. Children around the age of 4 can tell when someone is lying. While children at this age approve of telling the truth, they do not approve of lying even when it is not noticed.

In early childhood ethics begins with a focus on harming one self and others. Ethics of the young children is not yet structured by a mutual understanding of justice. Therefore, children have difficulty in making ethical judgments when the needs of more than one person are in danger. For example, even if a person has ethically logical reason for stealing and lying, they are more likely than older children to claim that such actions are always wrong. As children's understanding of social cooperation develops, their ideas about what to do when people's desires and aspirations conflict also change. This shift is in the direction of finding balanced solutions to interpersonal problems such as increasing levels of right, honesty and justice, where both sides mutually benefit.

Piaget argued that cognition and language support preschool children's ethical understanding, but social experiences are also very important in ethical development. According to him, ethical development requires individuals to develop beliefs about how they should treat others and to make judgments accordingly. These judgments arise from children's experiences of social interaction with the adults and peers. Parents are the most important and the first models in upbringing the children. As they are important for all areas of development, they also have an important place in formation of the character, the acquisition of values, the emergence of ethical emotion, behavior and cognition.²

Praising good behavior is one half of fostering moral behavior, while reacting to bad behavior is the other half. When children cause harm (when they commit a crime), they experience one or two kinds of moral feelings: shame or guilt. These emotions are often thought to be used interchangeably, but according to research by psychologist June Price Tangney, these emotions have very different causes and consequences. Shame is the feeling of "I am a bad person" while guilt is the feeling of "I did something bad". Shame is having a negative opinion of one's core

personality, which is very destructive. Shame makes the child feel small and worthless. In this case, children prefer either aggression or escaping from the environment. Guilt, on the contrary, is having a negative opinion about the behavior and can be compensated with a good behavior. When children feel guilty, they feel remorse and empathy with the person they hurt and try to make up for what they did. In an experiment led by psychologist Karen Caplovitz Barret, parents measured their 2-3-year-old children's tendencies to feel shame and guilt. They gave each of the children a rag doll and their legs were severed while the children were playing alone. The children with a tendency to shame ran away from the researcher and did not admit that they had cut off the baby's leg. The children with a tendency to guilt tried to fix the doll, they did not escape from the researcher and tried to explain how it happened. Embarrassed children avoided, guilt-ridden children tried to make amends.

If we want our children to be helpful, we must teach them to experience guilt rather than shame when they misbehave. He found that the feeling of shame arises when parents get angry, withdraw their love, and try to show their power by threatening to punish the child.

2. MEDIA'S ETHICAL NORMS

According to experts, it has been revealed that the widespread use of social media has caused irreversible damage to the indispensable values of the society. Psychiatrist Prof. Dr. Nevzat Tarhan said that "social media has started to change moral norms seriously. Our society has forgotten to be ashamed, thanks to Facebook and Twitter. Internal control is not innate, but later shaped by social teachings, and social media has begun to change these social teachings". It also erodes ethical norms. In addition, it has a disruptive effect on human relations and harms the sense of privacy. People think first and then do. Whereas, the opposite happens in social networking sites. People do first, think later. There is a greater risk for impatient, impetuous people with a lack of attention. Because it's natural, people lie more easily. As a result, people's sense of respect and privacy is impaired. It also has an encouraging effect as it makes it easier to turn to crime. Children encounter the sexuality earlier by means of the internet. Thus, the excitability of children increases, children should be taught the

limits of privacy at a young age and privacy education should be given to the child in the family. A child who learns the moral rules and the importance of privacy at home will always continue to protect these values in his life. He will determine his time and boundaries in social media in a healthy way according to these measures and will benefit from social media in a positive way. 1

But it seems that in the digital world, it doesn't take long for any tool to deviate from its main function. As the popularity of Youtube increased, the concept of a youtuber, which was especially used by elementary school children, came into our lives. What are our children watching: It is not educational or instructive at all, it does not contribute to the productivity or education of children. While the channel increases the number of subscribers and advertising revenue, children leave their most precious time and mind to those channels that they think are free. Worse still, many kids try to become youtubers by following the trend and starting a channel. Some parents are also trying to create a youtuber from their own children and make money on it.

The culture of altruism, which has been on the rise in the digital age, and the commercial and technological effects of the internet have destroyed privacy. Interestingly, people no longer want their private lives to be under their protection. What they want now is for as many people as possible to witness their private lives and even their daily routines.

Moreover, no one cares whether what is presented is right or wrong, useful or useless, as long as it has spectacle value.

The increase in published videos is based on this situation. Social media is a big market, everyone wants their share of the pie. The shortest way to this is to be popular.

3. CHILD INTIMACY LIMITS

Another point is to teach children the limits of privacy at a young age. The limits of intimacy are not learned through words or advice. If the child is walking around the family wearing a beach outfit or a nightclub outfit, the child cannot learn the limit of privacy in this family. He accepts this as natural and cannot develop safe behavior because he cannot say no because he cannot set limits when he enters other environments.

Therefore, the limits of privacy should be taught in the family. There are families who live with the toilet door or bathroom door open and the bedroom open. There are families without special borders and this unfortunately affects our children negatively. Accordingly, it is important for children to feel that their dignity and consent, which is the basis of privacy, is respected, which everyone who uses or shares children's photos should give priority to these concepts.

4. THE EFFECT OF PHOTOS UPLOADED ON SOCIAL MEDIA

Stating that the photos uploaded to social media platforms are almost permanent digital tattoos, the author emphasizes that the children should get permission to share in the digital environment. Considering that social media has become a fact of life and some of its gains are taken into account, it does not seem likely to expect parents to leave social media completely. Social media is a lifesaver, especially for young mothers who need support and understanding. Sharing photos of their children on social media turns into a communication tool with other adults for mothers who are raising their children in a busy work schedule and in a lonely environment. However, in this process, parents need to take into account the possible negative effects of the photos they share on their children. Indeed, in the coming years, children may feel shame, anxiety and discomfort due to the shared content.

Moreover, not every child who is dissatisfied with the public's access to their photos cannot object to this situation by opposing their parents. Therefore, due to the content shared without consent, parents can damage their relations with their children.

Recently, the children of some bloggers and Instagram stars have become more recognizable than the children of closest friends and relatives. So much so that it is no longer strange to see these children sleeping, shouting in anger, having a bath or changing their diapers. Even blurry, black-and-white ultrasound images are shared after their children are born, before the umbilical cord is cut or before their digital archive is created without their knowledge. For the sake of increasing the number of followers, it has long been considered inappropriate for parents to share such photos on social media and earn income from these shares. However, this issue has attracted attention especially recently. Sometimes even

showing a photo in our family album to guests disturbs our children, who have reached a certain level of consciousness, while informing ourselves and then our children about how detectable and vulnerable the footprints they leave in the online world will make, and taking some simple precautions. Getting it will make a big difference.

Expressing that he does not agree with the idea that today's children are raised without a sense of intimacy, Livingstone adds that only the conditions of privacy have changed as a result of both the children's own actions and the attitudes of others. According to this, It is important for children to feel that their dignity and consent, which are at the core of privacy, are respected, which everyone who uses or shares children's photos should prioritize these concepts. Von Lob, who conveys that they learn the behaviors of children in the digital environment from their parents, who are the primary role models, draws attention to the importance of parents' exemplary behavior. In this context, parents who satisfy their need for socialization, being seen and approved through their social media posts about their children cause them to learn their sharing as a form of approval as a bad example to their children. It seems unlikely to expect them to leave social media completely. Social media is a lifesaver, especially for young mothers who need support and understanding. Sharing photos of their children on social media turns into a communication tool with other adults for mothers who are raising their children in a busy work schedule and in a lonely environment. However, in this process, parents need to take into account the possible negative effects of the photos they share on their children. Indeed, in the coming years, children may feel shame, anxiety and discomfort due to the shared content. Moreover, not every child who is dissatisfied with the public's access to their photos cannot object to this situation by opposing their parents. Therefore, due to the content shared without consent, parents can damage their relations with their children. It is critical that they pay attention to the content of the photos and in which digital media they are shared.⁹

CONCLUSION.

When the addiction is mentioned, everyone shudders, the worst scenes unfold before our eyes. We rate dependencies according to ourselves and decide for the worst. As addiction, most of the society first thinks about drugs, then addictions such as alcohol, cigarettes and gambling. Unfortunately, we do not take the addiction of our age, which is seen in a new and large audience, very seriously.

If it is foreseen that the digital environments that constantly reach new individuals will affect the whole world population in the coming years, all healthcare professionals, especially physicians, should have information about all the new diseases of this digital age described in detail above, increase their equipment regarding the defined diagnostic criteria and treatment protocols, raise awareness on the subject. their possession is inevitable. Because I think that there will be an increase in the number of applications due to the new diseases of the digital age in our polyclinics.

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FROM PEER BULLYING TO CYBER BULLYING

Şehida Rizvançe Matsani, page 31-47

ABSTRACT

In this study, the concepts of "Peer Bullying" and "Cyber Bullying", which is in the form of a literature review, is discussed. In recent years, the number of studies on peer bullying are increased, which is the most common type of aggression among students at schools. This is because, the peer bullying have psychological, social and physical consequences over the children who bully as well as those who are exposed to being bullied. In addition, the development of the educational technologies, the use of the internet and mobile devices became a part of school of their life, have also led to an increase in the number of cyberbullying cases. Today, it is seen that the peer bullying among students is becoming more intense in virtual environments, such as the internet and mobile phones.

Identifying the overlapping between bullying and cyberbullying or revealing and examining the similarities and differences of these two phenomena is one of the important research topics in this field. In this study, it is aimed to contribute to the literature by reviewing the definitions of peer bullying and cyberbullying, which are very common and important problems in most cultures, the similarities and differences between both types of bullying, and the studies conducted around the world on this subject.

Key words: bullying, peer bullying, cyberbullying.



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1. Introduction

In recent years, peer bullying, which is the most common type of aggression among students in schools, and with the development of educational technologies and becoming a part of the school life, the number of cyberbullying cases are being increased day by day and caused to have become a global problem. Since peer bullying and cyberbullying have both psychological, social and physical consequences on bullying and bullying children, the number of studies on these issues is increasing. In this research text; The word “peer bullying” is used in quotations from studies involving only students and in the comments specific to this study, and the word “bullying” is used in quotations from studies that deal with students as well as other people. In the literature, online violence is also referred to as electronic bullying, cyber bullying, internet bullying, cyber threat, cyber victimization or cyber harrasment behaviors is used as cyber bullying in this study.

Definition of peer bullying

The number of studies on peer bullying, which is the most common type of aggression among students in schools, have increased in recent years and have become one of the important research topics that researchers have focused on. Peer bullying affects negatively to the lives of both of those who perform bullying and the children who are exposed to be bullied, as well as their families, other students who witness bullying, also affects the lives of teachers and administrators negatively and leaves permanent traces. (Pişkin, 2002; Perren, S. et al., 2010; Eroğlu and Güler, 2015).

The concept of bullying is an ongoing problem from the past to present. Studies done on aggression date back to ancient times in the literature. The first systematic studies on peer bullying started with the research of Dan Olweus (Atalay, 2014).

Olweus (1993) defined bullying as the repetitive negative behavior of one or more people against someone weaker than themselves. Pişkin (2002) examined many definitions of bullying and as a result, bullying; He defined it as “a type of aggression in which one or more students intentionally and continuously disturbs weaker students and in which the victim is unable to protect himself/herself”.

1.1.Types of peer bullying

While there is a common view among researchers about when to define an aggressive behavior as bullying, it is striking that there are different approaches in distinguishing this type of behavior (Burnukara & Uçanok, 2012). Types of bullying are not limited to physical bullying. Many behaviors that harm and hurt the other person can be grouped under different groups and considered as bullying (Gökler, 2009).

Bullying always aims to harm and hurt the victim and mainly occurs or happens in three ways: direct physical bullying; direct verbal bullying and indirect bullying (Smith et al., 2008; Craig et al., 2009; Pereira, 2002, cited in Zequinão et al. 2016).

Direct physical bullying is the behavior against someone with the intention of slapping, pushing, kicking, spitting, damaging objects and physically harming the other person.

Direct verbal bullying is behavior performed with the aim of harming the other person without physical bullying, including nicknames, humiliation, teasing, threatening, bad names, racist, offensive or derogatory comments.

Indirect bullying is the behavior carried out by means of isolation and social exclusion within the social group, preventing the relationship of the victim with their peers or harming the social position of the victim through rumors, ignoring the existence of the victim or threatening others to play with the victim (Sullivan & Sullivan, 2004, cited in Ciminli, 2016; Pereira, 2002, cited in Zequinão et al. 2016).

Pişkin (2005) discusses the types of bullying in five categories. These are; physical bullying, verbal bullying, exclusion-isolation, spreading rumors and damaging the individual's property and possessions (for example, tearing the child's books and notebooks, tearing them apart, etc.). Later, Pişkin and Ayas (2007) added the dimension of sexual bullying in addition to the five dimensions listed above as a result of their studies on adolescents.

Technological developments in recent years and the fact that people live together with technology have brought along a different type of bullying called "cyber bullying" (Akbaba & Eroğlu, 2013; Kavuk & Keser, 2016). In addition to these types of bullying, racial bullying-racial

bullying types are also defined for ethnic origin, race and immigrants (Scherr & Larson, 2009; Topalova, 2012;).

1.2.The prevalence of peer bullying

Although the findings from studies examining the incidence of peer bullying have shown different results, it shows that bullying is seriously high in almost every country. The results of studies investigating the prevalence of peer bullying and victimization show that the rate of students who bully varies between 2% and 72%, and the rate of students who are victims of bullying varies between 2.6% and 84% (Perren et al. 2010; Pişkin, 2010; Stavrinides et al. 2010; Topalova, 2012; Isolani et al. 2013; Gümüşler- Başaran, 2014; Sismani-Papacosta et al. 2014; Malta et al. 2015; Hesapçioğlu ve Yeşilova, 2015; Rao et al. 2019; Gökkaya and Sütçü, 2018; Doğan Çevirgen, 2018; Özada, 2018; Накова, 2018; Nazır, 2018; Iziğır, 2019; Gökkaya and Tekinsav Sütçü, 2020; Gür et al. 2020; Shahrour et al. 2020).

Some studies on the incidence of peer bullying reached as a result of the literature review are included in chronological order. Pişkin (2010), in his study with 1154 students attending primary school, found that 35.1% of the students were "victims", 30.2% were "bullies", and 6.2% were "both bullies and victims". In a study conducted by Stavrinides et al. (2010) in Southern Cyprus, it was determined that only 5.4% of the students were bullies and 7.4% were the victims. In a comprehensive study conducted on approximately 45,000 high school students aged between 15 and 18, studying in 78 state and 22 private high schools in the USA, it was determined that approximately 50% of the students were bullied and 47% of them were subject to one of the types of bullying (Josephson Institute, 2010; cited by Ayas and Pişkin, 2011). Topalova (2012), in her study on 155 primary school 7th and 8th grade students in North Macedonia, determined that 50.32% and 1.94% of the students stated that there was peer bullying in their schools, and 41.29% and 0.65% of the students stated that they had engaged in bullying acts. In another study conducted in Southern Cyprus by Sismani-Papacosta et al. (2014), it was found that 17% of the students were victims and 7.7% were bullies. In a study conducted by Gümüşler-Başaran (2014) with 917 students to determine the type and prevalence of peer bullying in high schools, it was found that total bullying was 72.6% and total victimization was 84.3% in

all students. In a study they conducted with high school students, Hesapcıoğlu and Yeşilova (2015) stated that 24% of 1373 students were bullied and 29.3% of them were bullies. Another study conducted with a total of 1003 students from the Kashmir region of India revealed that approximately 25.8 percent of the students were exposed to verbal bullying, which is the most common type of bullying, in the past month (Nazir, 2018). In another study conducted with 1112 (540 female, 572 male) students attending between 6th and 12th grades, it was determined that 7.7% of the students were victims of bullying and 4.3% were bullies (Doğan Çevirgen, 2018). When the findings of the research he conducted with 827 Palestinian students in Hanani (2018) were examined, 25.8% of all students stated that they were victims, 14% were bullied, 15.7% were both bullied and victimized, 44.5% neither bullied nor It was determined that they were bullied. It was determined that 16.2% of them were bullying. In the study conducted by Iziğir (2019) with 3220 high school students, it was determined that 22.5% of them were exposed to bullying and 16.2% of them were performing bullying. Gökkaya and Tekinsav (2018) investigated the prevalence of peer bullying among secondary school students. It was determined that 2.8% of them were the bullies whereas 34.9% were the victims, 27.0% were the bullies-victims and 35.3% were the spectators.

1.4. Cyberbullying

It has been seen that the development of educational technologies, the use of the internet and mobile devices has become a part of school life, and the peer bullying among students is being experienced increasingly in the virtual environments such as the internet and mobile phones. Although bullying is not a new phenomenon, this bullying behavior, which can be carried out independently of time and place, has taken a new form and the concept of "Cyberbullying" has been added as a new dimension to the studies on bullying. Cyber bullying, which is called as the dark side of technology, is also mentioned in the literature with names such as online bullying, digital bullying, electronic bullying and internet bullying (Kowalksi & Limber, 2007).

Cyberbullying is defined as a type of bullying that includes intentional and hostile behavior by an individual or group using information and communication technologies to harm others through digital communication means such as e-mail, text message or mobile phone

(Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Akt. Inselöz and Uçanok, 2013; Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004; Li, 2007; Smith, Mandhavi et al. 2008; Özdemir and Akar, 2011). As the use of technology in schools increases, students' access to technology will be faster and easier, and it is inevitable that cyberbullying will become widespread day by day and new ways of bullying will be provided (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007; Yılmaz, 2011). In addition to negatively affecting the academic performance of people who are exposed to cyberbullying events, psychological effects such as depression, loneliness, low socialization, low self-esteem, social anxiety, negative self-perception, sadness, anger, fear, anxiety, paranoia and suicidal thoughts have been observed (Korkut 2004; Kowalksi & Limber, 2007; Schneider et al., 2012.; Batmaz & Ayas, 2013; Akbıyık & Kestel, 2016; Kağan & Ciminli, 2016; Peker, Eroğlu & Ada, 2016; Hinduja & Patchin, 2018; Mikhaylovsky et al. 2019; Akgül, 2020; García, et al. 2020; Núñez et al. 2021).

1.5.Types of cyberbullying:

There are many behaviors that can be considered as cyberbullying and the different types that can be considered as cyberbullying can be grouped as follows: (Willard, 2007; Akça ve Sayımer, 2017).

1.5.1. Flaming: Usually is used aggressive, angry, rude and plain language; They are discussions such as insulting and sometimes threatening. Flares often occur in the public communication environments such as discussion groups, chat rooms, or games.

1.5.2. Harassment: It is the repeated sending of offensive, offensive and hurtful messages to a targeted person. These offensive messages are usually sent using personal communication channels such as e-mail and instant messaging.

1.5.3. Denigration: It is the sharing of harmful, untrue and cruel words about a targeted person. These conversations and messaging usually take place online. In scribbling behaviors, messages are generally aimed at reaching others.

1.5.4.Impersonation: By impersonating the cyberbully's target, posts the content that will make her/him look bad by pretending to be her/him or harm her friendship relations.

1.5.6. Outing and Trickery: Disclosure refers to the public posting or posting of private or embarrassing information, secrets, or images of an individual. In deception, the cyberbully can learn their secrets and share it with others, or threaten to share it, by making the target believe that there is a sincere communication between them.

1.5.7. Exclusion: Exclusion can occur in the form of intentionally removing or not including the target person from the group, in the online gaming environment, group blogs or any other password protected environment.

1.5.8. Persistent Cyberstalking: The persistent sent of messages that threatens to harm a targeted person, are offensive, intimidating, or are extremely offensive or intended to extort money. The virtual stalker may try to tarnish the victim's reputation and disrupt friendship relations.

1.6. The prevalence of cyberbullying

Although the findings obtained from studies examining the incidence of cyberbullying have shown different results, it shows that cyberbullying is seriously high in almost every society. The results of studies investigating the prevalence of cyberbullying show that the rate of students who engage in cyberbullying varies between 2% and 59.4%, and the rate of students exposed to cyberbullying varies between 2.6% and 63.6% (Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Arıcağ et al. 2008; Özdemir et al. Akar, 2011; Kocahasan, 2012; Schneider et al. 2012; Erođlu et al. 2015; Peker et al. 2016; Lee and Shin, 2017; Uluçay and Melek, 2017; Taştekin and Bayhan 2018; Matos et al. 2018; Dođan Çevirgen, 2018; Başak & Baştürk, 2019; Iziđır, 2019; Mikhaylovsky et al., 2019; Sarı & Seferođlu, 2019; Kaygısız, Çakır, 2020; Tuđ Karođlu & Çılđın, 2020 ; Zhang, Han and Ba, 2020; Özer, Şad, 2021; Gómez-León, 2021). As a result of the literature review, some studies on the incidence of cyberbullying are given in chronological order.

Özdemir and Akar (2011) found that in a study conducted with 336 students, 14% of the participants were exposed to cyberbullying in the last month, and 10% of them cyberbullying others. Schneider et al. (2012), in a study conducted with 20406 high school students, it was determined that a total of 15.8% of the students had been cyberbullied in the last 12 months. The study conducted by Peker (2013) revealed that 46% of secondary school students showed cyberbullying behavior and 65% of

them were exposed to cyberbullying behavior (Cited by Uluçay & Melek, 2017). In the study conducted by Doğan Çevirgen (2018), with 1112 students, it was determined that 5% of the students were victims of cyberbullying, 2% were bullies, 5% were bullies/victims, and 88% were non-interfering. Matos et al. (2018), in a study of 3525 students in 23 Portuguese schools, showed that 7.6% of students were cyber victims and 3.9% had cyberbullied others at least once in the past year. 7-12 in 24 middle schools and 24 high schools across South Korea by Lee and Shin (2017). In the study examining the prevalence of cyberbullying among 4000 adolescents studying in their classrooms, it was determined that 34% of the students were involved in cyberbullying, and 6.3% of them were bullies and 14.6% were victims.

2. Similar and different aspects of peer bullying and cyberbullying

It is one of the important research topics in this field to determine the overlap between the peer bullying and the cyberbullying or to reveal the similarities and differences of these two phenomena. Today, most of the children develop and maintain their social relations through electronic-based communication tools, so it is emphasized that there is a significant connection between the school and the internet environment. They (the children) spend most of the day at school with his friends, and the same communication continues on the internet when they come home. For this reason, such communications that occur in the internet environment, most researchers support the view that bullying, which consists of the situations and behaviors experienced, is not appropriate to position cyberbullying separately from peer bullying (Burnukara & Uçanok, 2012).

In the studies reached as a result of the literature review there are many similarities between peer bullying and cyber bullying (Doğan Çevirgen, 2018; Kocahasan, 2012; Burnukara & Uçanok, 2012; Schneider et al., 2012; Katzer et al., 2009; Topçu, 2008; Dehue, Bolman & Wollink, 2008; Juvonen & Gross, 2008; Smith et al., 2008; Li, 2007; Ybarra, Diener-West, & Leaf, 2007). There are many similarities between peer bullying and cyberbullying Although at different rates, it has been determined that there are significant relationships between these two types of bullying,

Researchers used the criteria they used in traditional bullying to define cyberbullying. As with peer bullying, the most important features of cyberbullying are malicious intentional violence, repetition and power imbalance. In cyberbullying, as in peer bullying, there are malicious bullies who like to harm other people directly or indirectly, openly or secretly, or who gain profit (Patchin and Hinduja ,2006; cited in İnelöz and Uçanok, 2013).

2. Implications

Within the scope of this research, the literature was examined on peer bullying and cyber bullying and the information obtained was compiled. Precautions to be taken about peer bullying and cyberbullying and creating environments that will improve communication skills for educators and education administrators, students who play a primary role in responding to bullying, it may be appropriate to give due importance to psychological counseling and guidance activities and to raise awareness of the families of students who are both bullies and victims. Informing parents about bullying and cyberbullying and strengthening their supervisory functions can be a useful step in preventing peer bullying and cyberbullying. In this context, it is among the issues that are frequently emphasized in the studies that education, seminar and guidance services should be provided to both students, teachers and parents among preventive activities. It is important to work to intervene against peer bullying and cyberbullying, to reduce the types of bullying, to recognize the concept of bullying and cyberbullying, and to gain coping skills.

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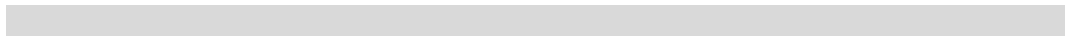
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EXAMINING THE LEVEL OF SAFETY AND SECURITY THROUGH THE PRISM OF VIOLENCE AND ABUSE AMONG WOMEN PRISONERS

Dragana Kostevska, page 49-64

ABSTRACT

To specifically define the term security, whether we are referring to a situation, place, individual, or process, we need to look at many aspects, link many concepts, analyze numerous studies and conduct a number of projects and researches and again it would be impossible to give a universal definition to define security as a term. On the other hand, security finds daily application even in the simplest interpersonal relationships.

Starting from this position, we wanted to examine the level of safety and security through the prism of degree of vulnerability in the only female prison in the Republic of Northern Macedonia. For this purpose, we conducted research within a five-month project, which was implemented in the Idrizovo Penitentiary, specifically in the Women's Department. It involved 52 women convicts. Namely, the results of our research confirmed that a large number of women were victims of violence. Although these are women who have committed a crime, however, the results confirm the thesis that a large percentage of them were victims before committing the crime. If we add to this various risk factors that have led to the previous state of victimization, such as education, economic status, lack of professional qualifications and competencies, addictions, place of residence, previous criminal record, we assume that (un) security and victimization only gain momentum.

Keywords: security, human security, victimization, violence, women prisoners.



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INTRODUCTION

To specifically define the term security, whether we are referring to a situation, place, individual, or process, we need to look at many aspects, link many concepts, analyze numerous studies and conduct a number of projects and researches and again it would be impossible to give a universal definition to define security as a term. Security is a sub-discipline of international relations, among other things; it is an integral part of international history, international law, international political economy, and regional studies (Hough, 2008).

On the other hand, security finds daily application even in the simplest interpersonal relationships. Starting from this position, we wanted to examine the degree of vulnerability in the only female prison in the Republic of Northern Macedonia. In essence, through the prism of all batteries of questions, we elaborated on the concept of human security in the penitentiary system, expressed through the formulation of how safe women prisoners feel while serving a prison sentence. For this purpose, we conducted research within a five-month project, which was implemented in the Idrizovo Penitentiary, specifically in the Women's Department. It involved 52 women convicts. Although convicts are perpetrators of crimes, the possibility of women prisoners being exposed to various forms of violence and abuse on a daily basis in a penitentiary institution is not ruled out. If we add to this various risk factors that have led to the previous state of victimization, such as education, economic status, lack of professional qualifications and competencies, addictions, place of residence, previous criminal record, we assume that (un) security and victimization only gain momentum.

CONCEPTUAL SECURITY ANALYSIS

Conceptualizing security indicates that it is impossible to understand the world of politics if this notion is not placed in the center of events. Namely, every day in different parts of the world, people are killed, tortured, raped, imprisoned, disgusted, or, on the other hand, in the name of security, they are denied certain rights and freedoms guaranteed by the constitution and the law. Hence the indications that security is an

unusually interesting, to a large extent catastrophic, but always important topic (Vilijams, 2012).

Despite the complexity in terms of the precise and concise conceptual definition of security, it is necessary to establish an analytical framework for the study and understanding of security issues (Duric, 2013). Useful and perhaps even the most adequate frameworks for safety analysis as a term have been developed in the works of David Baldwin, Paul Williams and Rhonda Powell. Certain authors point to the basis for understanding this term, through the prism of given answers to previously asked questions. For example, Baldwin affirms that the answers to the following seven questions are the basis for the concept of security, and they refer to *Security for whom; Security for which values; Quantity of security; From what threats; In what way / By what means; At what price; In what time quantum* (Baldwin, 1997).

Namely, Balvin's synthesis in terms of common features of different types of security is the basis for further scientific research. On the other hand, although we answer the previous questions, we still come to the view that it is very difficult to assess the subjective attitude of how safe one feels, which goes in favor of the thesis of a unified definition of security.

According to Paul William, in terms of the "intellectual basis of security", one can get through the prism of the following questions: *What is security; Security for whom; What a security issue is; How security is achieved* (Paul, 2012). We note that the answers to these questions do not lead to a unified and simple definition, but security refers to the increase in scale in terms of mitigation or eventual elimination of threats to common values. This mitigation or removal is also applicable when analyzing the security of individual, different types of collectivities, or the international system.

Author Powell points out that security is a relationship between certain factors in a clearly defined context. It considers that those points of connection should be sought when answering the following questions: *Security for whom; Security of what; Security from what; Security from whom (protection provider)* (Powel, 2008).

Hence, the part of the paper entitled Conceptual Security Analysis cannot be closed without referring to that metaphorical determination by

Joseph Nye. Namely, the author draws a parallel in terms of meaning in terms of safety, where he compares this term with "oxygen, i.e. when safety is already lacking or absent, we cannot think of anything else" (Nye, 2003).

Among other things, the difficulty of simply conceptualizing this term comes from the multidimensionality and multidisciplinary itself, i.e. various security phenomena are often developed in similar scientific disciplines: sociology, criminology, psychology, criminology, victimology, medicine, and others.

THE IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN SECURITY IN RECONCEPTUALIZATION IN SECURITY DISCOURSE

The crucial question in the concept of human security concerns how secure and free man as an individual is (Bajpai, 2000). Namely, the supporters of the concept of human security believe that this is the key to properly defining security as a term. However, this concept would not be rightly ignored for a long time in an international context. Namely, the reconceptualization of security takes place after the end of the Cold War.

The traditional focus on state security is shifting to the security of the people and the planet (Owen, 2004). Since the 90s of the last century, seven domains of human security have been developed in the highest European institutions, in the areas of the economy, food, health, environment, personal safety, community, and political security (Duric, 2013). If we take into account that poverty, disease, natural disasters can take more victims than wars, genocide, and terrorism, and then we rightly confirm the thesis that the concept of human security is the essence of security itself.

The multidimensionality of human security, including environmental security, personal security, economic, political, and social security, as well as adequate satisfaction of these parameters, leads to personal and collective security.

SURVEY ON THE DEGREE OF VICTIMIZATION IN THE WOMEN'S DEPARTMENT IN THE IDRIZOVO PENITENTIARY

Assessment of the degree of victimization in the only female prison on the territory of the Republic of Northern Macedonia was examined with a survey questionnaire. The aim was to understand the challenges and problems that these women face. It is clear that they are perpetrators of crimes, in fact, that is why they are where they are, but we believe that in many cases there are certain risk factors that have had a special contribution in a particular situation. On the other hand, through the prism of their answers, it is seen what would improve the penitentiary system in the Republic of Northern Macedonia.

Considering that the process of resocialization starts from entering prison, i.e. preparing the person for complete resocialization, rehabilitation, and reintegration into the outside world, then the original transmission of their answers is crucial. From the batteries of questions asked in the research, for the purposes of this paper will be fully shown only certain answers of women prisoners from which the current situation in penitentiary institutions can be greatly assessed, as well as the fact how women serving prison sentences feel safe and secure before the entry, but also during the stay there. The full research can be found in the Handbook "Reducing Vulnerability in Female Prisoners" (Kostevska, 2021).

Table 1. Disadvantages of women prisoners in the penitentiary system

* frequency (F)	F	%
* percentage (%)		
They did not answer	11	21,2
Any daily activity, even cleaning, sports, any educational corner, and most importantly, regular medical therapy that we need.	1	1,9%
I'm new to prison, but what I have seen so far is that there are no activities other than cooking, TV, no way to pass the time.	1	1,9%
To practice, to play.	1	1,9%
Exercise, medicine, sports field, and much more.	1	1,9%
To practice, to be engaged in work, to conduct school, to have a craft like sewing.	2	3,8%
Medicine, occupation, friendship, and work for years that befits.	1	1,9%
Medicines, warm words, peace.	1	1,9%
Love from family.	1	1,9%
Love, brain, sports, washing machine, hot water, showers, whirlpool.	1	1,9%
Love, mind, medicine, hot water, laundry, showers, hygiene products, justice, mercy, harmony, peace, tranquility.	1	1,9%

Washing machine, dryer, more daily activities.	2	3,8%
There is no psychologist because there is everything here, but there is no humanity. From a material point of view, computer work, library, hot water.	1	1,9%
We miss a gym.	1	1,9%
Laundry room.	1	1,9%
More activities and communication with the home, and not to share the women we are with smaller sentences example 6 months and less.	1	1,9%
More activities and cooperation from all kinds of education, sports, courses, lectures.	1	1,9%
More activities, sports above all, friendship and work, learning any craft.	1	1,9%
More time in the yard, sports, conversations.	1	1,9%
More space and time for walking, bigger yard, gym, creative activities.	1	1,9%
Work engagement, education, improvement of the conditions in Idrizovo, renovation of the women's department, activities that will fulfill the everyday life of the convicts, at the same time, at the end of the day they will be tired from their obligations. True resocialization. The current composition of women is, unfortunately, the worst so far, the conditions are already known, many things are missing that would be a phenomenal way out of the confusion that leads women to mood bipolar disorder :(1	1,9%
Various activities, good food	1	1,9%
Resocialization for uneducated grown up on the street, and for educated and educated workshops, conversation, introduction to the rights of prisoners.	1	1,9%
Resocialization when they come out to be able to get a job, for example, the boy who is my extramarital friend is a waiter, he is hired several times and fired, because he is convicted of drugs, and the police see where he works and go to the boss and tell him, and from the beginning they stigmatize him and he is elected, and he wants to work and cries when this happens to him	1	1,9%
Resocialization of the person, lack of personal hygiene, laundry, dryer.	1	1,9%
I just want to be free.	1	1,9%
Boasts, more time to rest.	1	1,9%
Everything mostly lacks harmony.	1	1,9%
All that you have listed.	1	1,9%
Freedom.	2	3,8%
Sports, activity, languages, and books.	1	1,9%
Sports, education, conversation.	1	1,9%

Sports activities, washing machines, dryers, several donations in the field of cosmetics, food, and household appliances in a word are all that a woman needs so that she is not neglected even in prison.	1	1,9%
Phone, family love.	1	1,9%
Gym, sports.	1	1,9%
	1	1,9%
Conditions, hygiene, better food.		
Functional staff for resocialization, health space for a gym, internet, functional staff for understanding, without prejudice, humiliation, and degradation.	1	1,9%
	1	1,9%
Hygienic conditions should be improved, medication, care, physical activity.		
Sewing, sports, fitness.	1	1,9%

Table 2. Improving life in the penitentiary system

*frequency (F)	F	%
*percentage (%)		
They did not answer	16	30,8%
Activities for cooking, sports, yoga.	1	1,9%
Blocks to be divided.	1	1,9%
Weekends, to work more with women on resocialization and literacy.	1	1,9%
To have 2-3 women in a room, to have water, toilet, TV, and internet in the rooms in order to have the opportunity to learn new things.	1	1,9%
Let everyone be employed, let there be justice, let there be no quarrels between the women and the commanders.	1	1,9%
To have the right to express our position and opinion, and to improve the conditions that are relatively bad.	1	1,9%
Occupation, vitamins, physical activity, and fewer women in the room - I have no air.	1	1,9%
Courses, creative workshops, bigger and better communication with employees.	1	1,9%
Interpersonal relationship.	1	1,9%
It can be improved, for all women to be employed, for there to be no quarrels, for there to be harmony between women and commanders.	2	3,8%
Behavior, to have a division of wards, minors in another ward, adults in another.	1	1,9%
Opening treatment groups, go home faster.	2	3,8%
	1	1,9%
More activity, in any case, space for exercise, walking.		
More activities.	1	1,9%

More activities to make our day pass faster.	1	1,9%
More activities of different types, for example, courses and sports.	1	1,9%
More activities in order to have contact with the outside world and to be familiar with each area.	1	1,9%
More activities, courses, languages, education.	1	1,9%
They no longer see us as people and not as animals, and when we are sick they leave us in bed so we can lie down, set up cameras because it is stolen life, some certain prisoners have the privilege of everything and the commanders know it.	1	1,9%
More work, physical activity. I think that the time should be filled with any physical activity, even if it is cleaning all day.	1	1,9%
More engagement with creativity and less lost free time.	1	1,9%
Better hygiene conditions, workshops where we will learn something new, better living conditions, better health, finding companies that employ and resocialize women when they jump out.	1	1,9%
The meaning of the word resocialization, renovation of the entire women's ward, and admission ward should be considered first.	1	1,9%
During a pandemic - without chairs, without TV, without a toilet, for which commanders should be called, lack of water and conditions in which even animals would not survive.	1	1,9%
Work, sports, games, entertainment.	1	1,9%
Workshops and be taken care of after being released from prison (shelters, employment).	1	1,9%
Regular conversation with experts, any activity that will fulfill the time, listening to the everyday problems that bother us, and we have no one to share them with.	1	1,9%
Regular communication with us by officials who is not here.	1	1,9%
In my opinion, you need a space where you can use your time, for sewing, reading, cooking.	1	1,9%
Sports.	1	1,9%
Sports, activities, social entrepreneurship.	1	1,9%
Sport, contact with animals, any job in the profession to be useful and have some resocialization.	1	1,9%
Sports field, drugs, resocialization.	1	1,9%
Gym, organization of some activities, humanitarian aid.	1	1,9%
Reading, freeing the heart and brain, knitting, music, and much more.		

- Women prisoners answered questions about whether they felt safe in the penitentiary system. 3 women did not answer (5.8%). 6 women prisoners feel a little safe (11.5%), 10 women prisoners feel safe (19.2%),

4 women prisoners feel very confident (7.7%), and 29 women prisoners feel insecure (55, 8%). They were also asked if they feared they might be victims of crime. 3 women did not answer (5.8%). 26 women prisoners are afraid that they could be victims of crime (50%), and 23 women prisoners are not afraid that they could be victims of crime (44.2%). The women who answered yes to this question also answered the following question regarding the origin of the fear of crime. The responses of the women prisoners who responded are shown in full in Table 3.

Table 3. Origins of fear of crime

*frequency (F)	F	%
*percentage (%)		
They did not answer	27	51,9%
Do not kill me.	1	1,9%
I'm afraid of the people in the institution.	1	1,9%
At the moment, the cameras are not working in the women's ward, inexplicable things are happening that I am afraid to write about.	1	1,9%
I do not know what awaits me outside.	1	1,9%
I do not feel safe when others argue.	1	1,9%
From the inside of the soul.	3	5,7%
From women.	1	1,9%
From prisoners who have mental problems and are not isolated from others.	1	1,9%
From the prisoners.	1	1,9%
From experience.	1	1,9%
From the people, I am surrounded by every day.	1	1,9%
From many factors related to everyday life, depending on what environment you live in.	1	1,9%
Out of ignorance.	1	1,9%
From here (probably from prison).	1	1,9%
From the convicts themselves.	1	1,9%
From everywhere, first from the convicts and then from the employees.	1	1,9%
From the social status and mental state of the convict.	1	1,9%
The environment around me gives me such insecurity.	1	1,9%
	5	9,6%
Fear comes from everything.		

- Regarding the physical victimization, the female prisoners answered that: 11 female prisoners were beaten with their hands or feet (21.2%), 15 female prisoners were slapped (28.8%), 10 female prisoners were pulled by the hair (19, 2%), 5 women prisoners received a knife or

gun threat (9.6%), 6 women prisoners were pushed to the floor (11.5%), 2 women prisoners were stumbled (3.8%), 9 women prisoners were spat on (17.3%), 5 women prisoners were forced to stay in bed or chair (9.6%), 7 women prisoners were forced to stay in a room or locked up (13.4%), 5 women female prisoners were deprived of the prescribed dose of drugs (9.6%), 10 female prisoners were restricted in their freedom of movement (19.2%), 3 female prisoners were drowned or strangled (5.8%), 1 female prisoner responded that all of the above happened to her (1.9%).

- Twenty-eight women prisoners did not answer whether they had ever been a victim of financial abuse. Theft of money, valuables, or pensions occurred in 8 female prisoners (15.3%), sale of property without consent occurred in 3 female prisoners (5.8%), coercion to transfer ownership of property or money to a third party happened to 2 women prisoners (3.8%), allocation of power of attorney happened to 2 women prisoners (3.8%), lying about the real price when buying something happened to 6 women prisoners (11.5%), Signing of documents occurred in 4 women prisoners (7.7%), and change of will without knowledge occurred in 2 women (7.7%).

- When asked about the alleged abuse in the family circle of women prisoners, 3 women (5.8%) did not answer this question. 10 women (19.2%) experienced physical abuse, 10 women (19.2%) experienced psychological abuse, 5 women (9.6%) experienced financial abuse, 4 women (7.7%) experienced sexual abuse, neglected 5 women (9.6%) and 22 women answered that they had not experienced any abuse (43.3%).

- Women prisoners were asked how they felt after being the victim of a crime. The responses of the women prisoners who responded are shown in full in Table 4.

Table 4. How did you feel after the case in which you were a victim of a crime

*frequency (F)	F	%
*percentage (%)		
They did not answer	24	46,2%
Hopeless, helpless, as if the world had collapsed above my head, losing the will to live in general, miserable, worthless, confusing, discouraged.	1	1,9%
In shock, scary.	1	1,9%
Terrible and helpless.	1	1,9%
I desperately needed a psychiatrist, I felt insecure and useless.	1	1,9%
Depressive.	1	1,9%

Like an idiot.	1	1,9%
Bad and hard.	3	5,7%
I think about my work - the case affected my future life in every aspect and only the support of my family completely and completely helped me to endure and endure.	1	1,9%
Very bad and painful mental feeling.	1	1,9%
Very bad, worn out. I had to work to make that money.	1	1,9%
Very bad, difficult, helpless.	1	1,9%
I was unhappy.	1	1,9%
Powerless and helpless because of the threat of child abduction.	1	1,9%
Lonely, suffocating.	1	1,9%
Desperate.	3	5,8%
Calmer with the home team.	1	1,9%
Disappointed, scared, murdered man in me, the pain of injustice / selective justice.	1	1,9%
I was scared, but I saved myself from many years of domestic violence.	1	1,9%
I felt bad, I did not have enough money.	2	3,8%
I felt betrayed.	1	1,9%
Sad, painful, tired, fear, insecurity.	1	1,9%
Bad, nervous, upset.	1	1,9%
I still feel terrible and I will never forget.	1	1,9%

- The answers to the question of whether they reported the case to an institution are striking. Namely, 17 women prisoners (32.7%) did not answer, 11 women prisoners reported the case (21.2%), and 24 women prisoners did not report the case (46.1%). We notice that a total of 78.8% of women did not report the case to the law enforcement authorities, i.e. the crime went unpunished. To the question from those who reported the case, we received the following answers: 1 woman reported the case to the police, both to the public prosecutor and to the center for social work (1.9%), 1 woman reported the case only to the public prosecutor (1, 9%), 6 women reported the case only to the police (11.5%), 1 woman reported the case to the police, and on the SOS telephone, and in the center for social work and in a women's association (1.9%). 1 woman reported the case to the police and the center for social work (1.9%) and 1 woman reported the case only to the center for social work (1.9%). Additionally, those who reported the cases were asked how the case ended after it were reported to an institution.

The responses of the women prisoners who responded are shown in full in Table 5.

Table 5. Completion of the case after reporting

*frequency (F)	F	%
*percentage (%)		
They did not answer	40	76,9%
Yes, completed.	2	3,8%
My case with imprisonment is over.	1	1,9%
My case, unfortunately, has remained unsolved to this day, as time and years go by, my traumas have left deep traces, from which there is no escape, the shadows of the past follow me forever. The cover was when on top of that my father checked me out of the address where I was on my ID card, now from March 2019, I am without it because I live in rent, I can not take it out, now I got a chance I am here again hoping that things are out they will change and I will be able to help myself while I am here. There is a way.	1	1,9%
Not reported.	1	1,9%
Nothing was taken.	1	1,9%
By no means did they take action.	1	1,9%
Nothing was ever done, there was no evidence, no charges were brought.	1	1,9%
With a simple warning.	1	1,9%
With repeated warnings, the police only warn him and everyone knows him and does nothing to him.	1	1,9%
With a lawsuit.	1	1,9%
By murder.	1	1,9%

- Also, those who did not report the case to an institution were asked why they did not. The responses of the women prisoners who responded are shown in full in Table 6.

Table 6. Reason for not reporting the case

*frequency (F)	F	%
*percentage (%)		
They did not answer	36	69,2
Because it still happens in the family and I would not like to report it.	2	3,8%
It was reported on each occasion.	1	1,9%
Yes	1	1,9%
For children not to be like us, to be good.	1	1,9%
For the sake of the family, keeping the family secret.	1	1,9%
Embarrassed.	1	1,9%

Because my life may be in danger.	1	1,9%
Because he is my father and the other is my partner.	1	1,9%
Many times I have not reported due to fear and threat and normally, I am afraid.	1	1,9%
I do not want problems.	1	1,9%
I did not want things to escalate.	1	1,9%
Some things can not be changed.	1	1,9%
Out of fear.	2	3.8
Because I was a child and I did not have the support and the side to be with - I was alone.	1	1,9%
Fear of being hurt again or hurting my loved one.	1	1,9%

• In this questionnaire, women prisoners were asked to list at least three risk factors for victimization in prison (Table 7). 22 or 46.8% of women prisoners did not answer this question. The others gave their views on what could be a risk factor in prison. The answers were conveyed in full, as the women prisoners stated.

Table 7. Risk factors for victimization in prison

	F (фреквенција)	% (процент)
They did not answer	22	46.8
Insult, violence, sexual	1	2.1
Controlling weaker persons, theft, blackmail	1	2.1
Theft, physical violence, not taking measures	1	2.1
Theft, violence	1	2.1
Theft, violence, verbal violence	1	2.1
Many women in a cell, disrespecting prisoners	1	2.1
Very difficult conditions, disease	1	2.1

Violence, quarrels, lack of conditions	1	2.1
Violence, psychological harassment, overcrowding	1	2.1
Violence, stress, overcrowding	1	2.1
Violence, difficult conditions	1	2.1
The relationship of the commanders with us, the lack of a doctor, the status	1	2.1
Loneliness, peace, security	1	2.1
Psychological and physical violence	1	2.1
Psychological and physical violence, material violence	1	2.1
Mental and physical, sexual violence	2	4.3
Psychological stress	3	6.4
Psychological violence	1	2.1
Stress	1	2.1
Stress, nervousness, brutality	1	2.1
Beating, degradation, psychological torture	1	2.1
Beating, shouting, misunderstanding	1	2.1
Total	47	100.0

CONCLUSION

Namely, the results of our research confirmed that a large number of women were victims of violence. Although these are women who have committed a crime, however, the results confirm the thesis that a large percentage of them were victims before committing the crime. In addition to this are the 78.8% of the respondents who did not report the case. Furthermore, the results showed a significant rate of violence suffered within the family, but also outside of it. If we go back to the reasons for not reporting violence, a large percentage is due to traditional stereotypes of women in their role as good spouses, mothers who, despite providing maximum care for their children, are responsible for the household, as well as caring for dependent members of the family. On the other hand, there are cases in which these women took the law into their own hands and judged the perpetrator. Analyzing this, women prisoners in prison are doubly dangerous, on one hand for breaking the law, and on the other for violating the traditional role in the family. In this sense, women face intense feelings of guilt and loneliness due to the lack of intimate relationships they have with family and children.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

In order to reduce the victimization rate and improve the level of safety of women prisoners, it is necessary to consider and apply the following:

- The redistribution in the rooms should be in accordance with the current health, intellectual or social capacities, which would reduce the risk of violence;
- Given that a large percentage have been victims of violence and are experiencing post-traumatic stress disorder, the need for psychotherapeutic treatment is essential;
- Employment of additional professional staff that would support the rehabilitation and resocialization of women prisoners - victimologists, family pathologists, social workers, psychologists, sports coaches, educators;
- Creating creative treatments and productive studios for rehabilitation and resocialization of these women;
- The essential need for programs for additional training or retraining of current education according to the needs of the labor market;

- Establishment of mandatory physical activity in accordance with their current health condition;
- Special programs for working with juveniles as perpetrators of crimes;

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QUALITY COSTS CONCEPT AND MEASUREMENT – DOES A REAFFIRMATION IN A NEW DIRECTION NEEDED?

Cvetanka Velkoska , Mite Tomov, page 65-80

ABSTRACT

This study primarily aims at presenting a realistic picture of the utilitarian nature of quality costs in companies around the world. This has led to researching the quality costs applications levels, the percentage share of the total quality costs, the percentage share measuring the quality costs categories, as well as the measured percentage shares of the quality costs in the companies. The analytical research methodology relies on an integrated chronological, comparative, logical and systematic analysis of scientific literature, complemented by inductive and deductive methods. The research results confirm the need to raise the awareness for, determination, and commitment to a broader application of the quality costs concept through an understanding and integration of the new societal values of contemporary operations, whereby the understanding of the application of the quality costs concept will deepen and the quality costs concept itself will shift from the margins of a purely theoretical concept. We expect that the contemporary ambitious concepts such as *Sustainability*, *Industry 4.0*, *Quality 4.0*, *Business Process Reengineering*, *Circular economy – Remanufacturing*, *Innovation 5.0* will contribute to the development a higher level of quality maturity which, in turn, will make the application of quality costs more attractive. In particular, as this will reflect on the redesigning and redefining the quality costs' structure to include new modernized elements of quality costs, and the quality costs concept will be reaffirmed in a new direction and will become recursive.

Keywords: quality, quality costs, measurement, PAF model, Industry 4.0, sustainability.



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INTRODUCTION

Within the contemporary approach to quality, we must consider the quality costs as a separate group of costs for activities to improve the product quality. The quality costs by definition mean all the costs to prevent poor quality, as well as costs incurred as a result of poor quality (Omurgonulsen 2009, 547), or which could be explained as the difference between the actual and the ideal costs to achieve quality (Czajkowski 2017, 352).

However, the awareness of the existence and the identification of quality costs, in itself has no impact on the improvement of quality in the companies (Pires et al. 2013, 785), if the companies do not take advantage of the benefits resulting from the measurement of the quality costs (Yang 2008, 176). This means that the quality costs measurement process not only enables the identification of weaknesses in the operations of companies, but also creates opportunities to undertake appropriate preventive or corrective measures in the process of improving quality, thereby strengthening the quality control, and evaluating the effects of quality management (Trehan, Sachdeva, and Garg 2015, 70; Yang 2008, 190).

The inevitability of measuring quality costs became a requirement reflected in the literature in the 1950s, through the work of Joseph M. Juran (Giakatis, Enkawa, and Washitani 2001, 181), whose importance was specially emphasized in the philosophy of Total Quality Management and its practical implementation (Jaju, Mohanty, and Lakhe 2009, 1076). Therefore, measuring quality costs is a feature of any company working to improve the total quality (Tye, Halim, and Ramayah 2011, 1303), expressing the quality using the language of money in order to draw the attention of top management and motivate managers to commit to an in-depth understanding and substantive implementation of the quality costs measurement system (Starcević, I. Mijoč, and J. Mijoč 2015, 247), as well as the attention of the other employees to raising the level of intradepartmental cooperation within the companies (Trehan, Sachdeva, and Garg 2015, 81).

However, not every company measures quality costs in practice (Gupta and Campbell 1995, 47) and most companies deliberately avoid and ignore it, or apply it inappropriately without a systematized approach to measuring and monitoring quality costs (Yang 2008, 176). The difficulties

in understanding and identifying quality costs, the excessive number of quality costs elements, double or multiple tracking, the inability to measure parts of quality costs make many companies to doubt and resist the application of quality costs (Pursglove and Dale 1995, 569-570). In addition, people have noticed an inclination of the company employees to hide the costs of quality because they knew that the quality costs “speak” about the inefficiencies of the processes, activities, and systems in the company (Trehan, Sachdeva, and Garg 2015, 79-80).

Quality costs measurements should rely on a structured approach and a systematic measurement of the quality costs, that ensures the timeliness, accuracy, reliability and cost effectiveness of the data and quality costs related information (Velkoska, Tomov, and Kuzinovski 2018, 65-66). This marginalizes the accuracy and objectivity of the assessment of the quality costs category elements (particularly opportunity costs) which has always been questioned (Cheah, Md. Shahbudin, and Md. Taib 2011, 414-415). On the other hand, the lack of sufficient resources, the way the quality costs are identified and tracked, which differ from the existing forms of accounting systems, can limit the proper and consistent implementation of quality costs measurement systems (Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 447).

This, as well as all known difficulties and benefits of implementing quality costs benefits motivated the authors of this paper to present the utilitarian nature of the quality costs in the companies that use them. The research in this paper primarily aims at systematizing and analyzing the findings from the available existing research studies in order to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What is the scale of cost of quality in companies, as a percentage of sales, production costs and the sales contract?
- 2) What is the percentage of companies implementing the quality costs?
- 3) What is the percentage of companies that measure or track, or report of quality costs categories?
- 4) What is the percentage of measured values of quality cost categories in the companies?

The findings in this research should present the current state of affairs about the extent to which companies apply quality costs, which quality costs categories do the usually measure, as well as the quality costs measured values.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research employs a methodology that integrates a chronologic, comparative, logic, and systematic analysis of the scientific literature, complemented with inductive and deductive methods that should provide answers to the research questions and, at the same time it should lead to new knowledge, assumptions, as well as considerations for future research.

ANALYTIC RESEARCH

Unlike the development of the scientific thought about quality costs, its verification in the area of empiric results from actual quality costs implementation, represents a feature of a modern age (Daunoriene and Staniskiene 2016, 121). Out of all generic models, the most frequently applies quality costs models (Velkoska, Kuzinovski, and Tomov 2018, 162) in the existing studies include PAF (Prevention-Appraisal-Failure) model and the Crosby Dichotomous Categorization Model: costs of conformance or non-conformance with the requirements.

During the period from 1975 to 2014, 42 research studies were published. These studies showed that the quality costs values usually range from 16.91% to 26.9% of the company revenues, and the lowest quality cost value ranges from 2.81% to 3.85% of the company revenues (Mahmood and Kureshi 2015, 13-14).

For the purposes of the research, the authors of this paper systematized and analyzed the already published studies about the value of quality costs. The analysis showed that the percentage share of the quality costs ranges between 4%-38% of the sales value (Banasik and Beruvides 2012, 10; Chopra and Garg 2012, 503; Cheah, Md. Shahbudin, and Md. Taib 2011, 413; Giakatis, Enkawa, and Washitani 2001, 181; Glogovac and Filipovic 2018, 1524; Kirlioglu and Cevik 2013, 94; Mantri and Jaju 2016, 498; Omachonu, Suthummanon, and Einspruch 2004, 279; Starcević, I. Mijoč, and J. Mijoč 2015, 232; Sower, Quarles, and Broussard 2007, 122; Sansalvador and Brotons 2013, 380; Yang 2008, 175-176; Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 445), between 7%-40% of the value of production costs (Banasik and Beruvides 2012, 11; Giakatis, Enkawa, and Washitani 2001, 181; Jafari and Rodchua 2014, 223; Omar and Murgan 2014, 397; Starcević, I. Mijoč, and J. Mijoč 2015, 232; Yang 2008, 175;

Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 445), and between 18%-33% of the value of the sales contracts (Jafari and Rodchua 2014, 223).

The large span of the interval of the quality costs percentage share, reflects the different company sizes, the business type, the existence of quality programs, the quality system the company maturity, the culture of continuous quality improvement in the companies, (Glogovac and Filipovic 2018, 1303), as well as the improper and untimely identification and measurement of the quality costs (Schiffauerova and Thomson 2006, 664).

Research shows that it could be expected that companies that have greater quality requirements and work in the area of highly productive technologies and electronics, show a higher level of awareness about measuring quality costs and a much smaller share of quality costs, as opposed to companies from the service sector which show much higher values (Schiffauerova and Thomson 2006, 656-660; Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 445).

Some of the researchers of quality consider that 2.5% - 5% of the sales value can be expected for the total value of quality costs in order to achieve an optimal level of quality (Jafari and Rodchua 2014, 223). Implementation of the quality program in many companies, have decreased the quality costs to 2% of sales (Trehan, Sachdeva, and Garg 2015, 72). Nevertheless, there are serious dilemmas about the “typical scale of the value of quality costs” (Glogovac and Filipovic 2018, 1525). Table 1 provides findings derived from the analyzed research studies, related to the percentage shares of surveyed companies applying quality costs (Ayach, Anouar, and Bouzziri 2019, 100-105; Biadacz 2021, 1; Glogovac and Filipovic 2018, 1524; Gupta и Campbell 1995, 43; Omurgonulsen 2009, 547; Porter and Rayner 1992; Prickett and Rapley 2001, 215; Rabfeld et al. 2015, 1074; Sower, Quarles, and Broussard 2007, 122; Starcević, I. Mijoč, and J. Mijoč 2015, 242; Tye, Halim, and Ramayah 2011, 1303, 1307;

Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 447; Yang 2008, 176).

The data analysis shows that the application of quality costs in approximately one third of the surveyed companies in the period from 1981 to 2009, suggests that the companies in the world did not broadly accept the quality costs concept. However, in the past decade this percentage has noticeably increased in particular in Germany, Malaysia, Croatia, and Serbia.

Table 2 shows an overview of published research studies that registered the percentage share of companies that measure quality costs by relevant categories. The data analysis suggests that the companies mostly measure the costs of internal and external failures, which reflects the domination of the retrospective aspect of quality costs. A positive surprise is the measurement supplier quality costs, environmental quality costs, and social quality costs, in a more recent research study which indicates that the sustainable operations elements are integrated in the quality costs concept.

Table 3 presents the suggested and measured values of the quality costs categories, as a percentage of the total quality costs. We can conclude that the PAF model structure features a high percentage share of the internal and external failure costs relative to the appraisal costs and prevention costs. This trend is changing in the last two decades, which register a growth of the percentage share of the appraisal costs and the prevention costs, which confirms the development of the preventive aspect of the quality costs.

Table 1. An overview of published research studies that registered percentage shares of surveyed companies applying quality costs

Surveyed companies (year of research study publication)	Findings of research - percentage shares of surveyed companies applying quality costs	
<i>National Survey in manufacturing companies (1981)</i>	33%	Collecting the quality costs.
<i>Companies in United Kingdom (1985)</i>	33%	Collecting the quality costs.
<i>20 manufacturing companies in the North of England (1992)</i>	35%	Made effort to monitor quality costs.
<i>Companies in Western Michigan (1992)</i>	38 %	Have established system for measuring of quality costs.
<i>250 manufacturing companies in United Kingdom (1995)</i>	78%	Understanding the quality costs.
	59%	Reporting the quality costs
<i>Manufacturing companies in USA (1995)</i>	33% (40%)	Calculating the quality costs (from two surveys).
<i>An experimental study with marketing managers (1996)</i>	50%	Calculating the quality costs.
<i>Manufacturing companies (1996)</i>	40%	Performing the quality costs analysis.
<i>The surveys of quality costs conducted in various countries (1998)</i>	33%	Collecting the quality costs.
<i>Companies in USA (2000)</i>	33%	Calculating the quality costs.
<i>1000 Manufacturing companies in North-East United Kingdom (2001)</i>	33%	Application of the quality costs.
<i>Various companies (2003)</i>	33%	Have established system for measuring of quality costs.
<i>393 companies in USA (2007)</i>	34%	Systematically tracking the quality costs.
<i>107 manufacturing companies in India (2009)</i>	79%	Determine and use the cost quality system.
<i>30 food manufacturing companies in Turkey (2009)</i>	23%	Measuring the quality costs.
<i>63 manufacturing companies in Malaysia (2011)</i>	82,5%	Application of the cost quality system.
<i>215 manufacturing and service companies in Germany (2015)</i>	66%	Systematically measuring the quality costs.
<i>48 companies in Croatia (2015)</i>	71,7%	Measuring the quality costs.
	58%	Determining the quality costs.
<i>186 manufacturing and service-based companies in Serbia (2018)</i>	72%	Analysis or usage of the quality costs.
	35.5%	Implemented quality costs system.
<i>234 various industrial companies in Marocco (2019)</i>	35.5%	Implemented quality costs system.
<i>400 companies from manufacturing, services and production sectors in Poland (2021)</i>	9.75%	Application of the quality costing.
	39.25%	Undertaking some actions towards accounting the quality costs.

Table 2. An overview of published research studies that registered the percentage share of companies that measure quality costs by relevant categories

Surveyed companies and country/ reference	Findings of research - the percentage share of companies that measure quality costs by relevant categories	
<i>330 manufacturing organizations in the North East of United Kingdom</i> (Prickett and Rapley 2001, 216)	93%	Internal failure costs
	88%	External failure costs
	73%	Appraisal costs
	60%	Prevention costs
<i>52 manufacturing companies in Malaysia</i> (Tye, Halim, and Ramayah 2011, 1307)	44.2%	All four categories of the PAF model
	19.2%	The three categories of the PAF model
	30.8%	The two categories of the PAF model
	5.8%	One category of the PAF model
<i>136 small and medium-sized manufacturing organizations in Slovakia</i> (Šatanová et al. 2015, 1152)	67%	External failure costs
	39%	Internal failure costs
	30%	Prevention costs
	26%	Appraisal costs
<i>140 manufacturing and service companies in Germany</i> (Rabfeld et al. 2015,1077)	63.4%	External failure costs
	61.3%	Internal failure costs
	18.3%	Prevention costs
	11.3%	Cost of conformance
	3.5%	Cost of non-conformance
	4.2%	Opportunity costs
<i>134 manufacturing and service-based companies in Serbia</i> (Glogovac and Filipovic 2018, 1533)	46.3%	Total quality costs in all processes
	55.9%	Total quality costs in production processes
<i>83 various industrial companies in Marocco</i> (Ayach, Anouar, and Bouzziri 2019, 107)	49.4%	Total quality costs at all processes
	26.5%	Total quality costs in production and some other processes
	24.1%	Control total quality costs in production processes
	34.5%	Cost of non-conformance
	16.8	Stock management costs
	14.8	Over-consumption costs
	10.4	Supplier non-quality costs
	7.6%	Environmental non-quality costs
	8%	Social non-quality costs
<i>39 companies from manufacturing, services and production sectors in Poland</i> (Biadacz 2021, 22)	30%	Costs of prevention activities
	41.75%	Costs of quality assessment
	31%	Costs of internal deficiencies
	36.5%	Costs of external complaints
	18.75%	Costs of external quality assurance

Table 3. An overview of published research studies that registered the suggested and measured values of the quality costs categories

Reference	The suggested and measured values of the quality costs categories expressed as percentage of total quality costs			
	PC	AC	IFC	EFC
<i>Proposal for optimal proportion</i>				
(Su, Shi, and Lai 2009, 1398)	0.5-5 %	10-50 %	25-40 %	20-40 %
	5-10 %	20-25 %	65-70 %	
<i>Published quality costs data for manufacturing companies in the booklet the Urwick Group</i>				
(Plunkett and Dale 1988, 1722)	2-5 %	10%	85-87%	
<i>Expected percentage of the quality costs</i>				
(Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 449)	5%	95%		
<i>The data draw from the national Council for Quality and Reliability - UK</i>				
(Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 449)	5 %	30 %	65 %	
<i>Studies conducted in manufacturing company</i>				
(Giakatis, Enkawa, and Washitani 2001, 181)	3.3%	40.3 %	56.4%	
	6%	14%	80%	
<i>Quantitative data taken from quality-costing literature</i>				
(Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 450)	5%	28%	67%	
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing industry</i>				
(Williams, van der Wiele, and Dale 1999, 451)	22%	30%	48%	
<i>Study conducted in automotive industry in Shanghai</i>				
(Su, Shi, and Lai 2009, 1403)	4.8 %	26.5 %	44.4 %	24.3 %
<i>Study in a manufacturer of coatings for industrial applications</i>				
(Pursglove and Dale 1995, 572)	18%		68 %	14%
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing industry in USA, for the first year of quality program and the latest year of quality program</i>				
(Ittner 1999, 119)	18.4%	27.3%	38.9%	16.2%
	(23.9%)	(28.7%)	(34.8%)	(13.3%)
<i>Summary of reported quality costs in studies published in the period of 1972-1995</i>				
(Burgess 1996, 12)	3.3%-20%	8%-45.3%	46%-79%	

	PC	AC	IFC	EFC
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing industry in Malaysia</i>				
<i>(Cheah, Md. Shahbudin, and Md. Taib 2011, 413)</i>	16.8 %	17.5 %	65.7 %	
<i>Study conducted in water utilities in Texas</i>				
<i>(Banasik and Beruvides 2012, 7,10)</i>	15.5 %	29%	55.5%	
	27.3%	31%	41.7%	
	22%	28.8%	49.1%	
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing industry in Turkey</i>				
<i>(Kirlioglu and Cevik 2013, 95)</i>	14.1 %	39.8 %	35.2 %	10.9 %
<i>Study conducted in woodworking company in Slovakia</i>				
<i>(Sedliacikova et al. 2015, 79)</i>	27.38 %	22.67 %	41.34 %	8.61 %
<i>Study conducted in small and medium-sized manufacturing organizations in Slovakia</i>				
<i>(Šatanová et al. 2015, 1152)</i>	24%	41%	16%	19%
<i>Study conducted in Indian manufacturing organizations</i>				
<i>(Mantri and Jaju 2016, 503)</i>	11.55 %	39.96 %	45.07 %	3.43 %
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing organization</i>				
<i>(Holota et al. 2016, 124)</i>	14%		86%	
<i>Study conducted in manufacturing company in South-East Asia</i>				
<i>(Omar and Murgan 2014, 412)</i>	13.5 %	Production invisible quality costs		
	49.5%	Visible quality costs		
	36.9 %	Opportunity costs		

Note: PC – Prevention costs, AC – Appraisal costs, IFC – Internal failure costs, EFC – External failure costs.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Irrespective of the many dilemmas and polemics related mostly to the structuring and determination of the quality costs elements in the quality costs definition models, the existence of quality costs is justified. The data shown in the analytic research, sufficiently corroborate that quality costs represent a serious economic category that most closely and inexorably reflects the state of quality and should not be neglected since they represent a huge opportunity to provide financial savings to the company by improving quality, which in turn increases profits.

The research presented in this paper confirms the need to raise the awareness, the determination, and the commitment to a broader

application of quality costs. This can be provided by integrating the new societal values in contemporary operations which will not only shift the quality costs from the margins of a purely theoretical concept, but will also contribute to deepening and modernizing the theoretical findings.

Considering that modern management science is fully committed to the management of the overall quality in order to generate sustainable benefits for companies, there is an inevitable synergy of the quality costs with methodologies such as Six Sigma, Total Quality Management, Lean Production etc., the standardized quality management systems, environmental protection, health, and safety at work and other standards, as well as the social responsibility standard.

Future research should involve continuous study of the contribution of the contemporary ambitious concepts such as *Sustainability*, *Industry 4.0*, *Quality 4.0*, *Business Process Reengineering*, *Circular economy – Remanufacturing*, *Innovation 5.0*, to the development of a higher level of quality maturity in the companies, which will make the application of quality costs more attractive. This will help redesign and redefine the quality costs structure with new and modern quality costs elements and the quality costs concept will be reaffirmed in a new direction and become recursive.

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TECHNIQUES AND METHODS FOR MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES

Elizabeta Stamevska, page 81-91

ABSTRACT

One of the biggest problems that employers face today is employee motivation. Highly engaged employees are more motivated to be proactive and achieve their goals, enabling the organization to increase productivity. Individual or employees could be motivated through the rewards, leadership, incentives etc. Motivation in any organization is concerned with actions that should be taken to improve and sustain the level of performance of workforce or employees.

Many managers struggle to keep employees motivated and engaged in the work environment because they know that motivation is one of the key factors for a company's success. The issue of employee motivation and forms of motivation is directly related to the need to provide the so-called moral and material satisfaction in the work. The synergy of these two components shapes and represents the business and managerial relationship, in its essence.

Keywords: strategies, motivation, management, employees, companies.



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INTRODUCTION

Employee motivation is the inner desire to take action that usually stems from some form of selfinterest. According to David and Anderzej (2010), can be understood as cognitive decision making in which the intension is to make the behavior that is aimed at achieving a certain goal through initiation and monitoring. Motivation in the workplace translates into energy, energy into action and action into results. It is a critical element of employee morale and performance gains. Motivation is related to the ambition of employees, increases their initiative and gives direction, courage and perseverance to pursue goals.

Human resource management is based on personnel policy and its proper implementation. Often, managers and leaders continue to motivate the same people who are top performers or, worse, ignore them because they think the employee is motivated enough.

Motivation is needed for all employees. Since there is no one way to motivate workers, it is necessary to apply various strategies until the right one is found. The most effective motivation strategies include individualization in the approach to employee development, giving the opportunity to choose goals, as well as continuous support from immediate managers. Motivation have effect on employees as individuals to achieve and as well as ability to be innovative because they believe in themselves which will benefit the organization to succeed (Yang Jie, 2010).

To increase the business success of the company, the management needs to answer the question: How to keep the team motivated? Managers, while working to find the best motivation strategies, should dedicate themselves to the employees in the company and do not forget that every employee who enjoys coming to work is a worthy investment.

A well motivated workforce will exhibit greater employee engagement, enhanced teamwork and collaboration, productivity gains, reduced absenteeism and (ultimately) more profitability. According to Kumar and Singh (2011, p.12), job satisfaction (or the lack thereof) depended on the employee's perception of the degree to which his work delivers those things that he desires – how well outcomes are met or expectations perhaps even exceeded. Regardless of the actual

circumstances and situation, job satisfaction is an emotional response that cannot be seen, only inferred. Jehanzeb, Rasheed, Rasheed and Aamir (2012, p.274) held a similar view, defined job satisfaction as „a sensation employees have about their work environment and their expectations toward work”.

There typically needs to be some form of reward, incentive or benefit for the individual or team, otherwise they will not be motivated or driven to act over and above the mundane call of duty.

1. Reasons for demotivation of employees

Employee demotivation is a big problem, represents a "silent protest" by employees who feel frustrated and unmotivated in their work. This results in long-term alienation from the company. Employee demotivation occurs for several reasons, some of which may be the following:

1) Feeling of underestimation

It is a mistake to think that employees will continue to work with the same intensity and continuously invest the same effort if they feel underestimated. Employers should therefore recognize their efforts and show appreciation through tangible and intangible rewards, appropriate to the employee's labor.

2) Inadequate responsibilities in relation to the working abilities of the employee

When employees are not able to best complete the assigned tasks or use their skills, they feel dissatisfied with the job. They feel that the duties entrusted to them are below their capabilities, which in turn quickly creates frustration for them.

3) Inequitable distribution of workload

When employees' workload is excessive, especially if it is far greater than their co-workers, it can lead to dissatisfaction. It should always be borne in mind that not all employees will seek help when they feel resentful or dissatisfied. Therefore, employers must be aware and pay attention, without expecting employees to react immediately when given too much work.

4) Unequal approach of managers

This can easily happen if managers do not have the same approach to performing their duties. For example, if there are large differences in how company policies are implemented in different departments, this may lead to the feeling that some working groups receive more benefits than others.

5) Constantly changing business goals

Employees feel frustrated if business goals change too often. It is one thing if the whole business is facing change, but it is quite another if the organization or management is constantly changing goals and making employees feel meaningless. Example: the employee goes to the manager and asks for a salary increase, and the manager explains that in order to get that, the employee needs to improve the level of profit. The following year, the same employee works hard, works diligently, performs tasks more efficiently, increases profitability, and again seeks promotion. This time, the manager says that the employee, now, has to increase the profitability of his team and does not grant him a raise again, although that was not his initial request and his initial goal. When goals and requirements are constantly changing, as in this case, employees lose motivation, desire, perseverance to try and meet the set goals and objectives.

6) Personal and family problems

If an employee is experiencing personal problems or difficulties at home, this may affect their ability to be fully engaged and perform their business duties. Thus, he becomes depressed, moody, defocused and can not concentrate on the assigned work tasks, which reduces the motivation to work.

7) Feeling that the manager does not trust the employee

This question can be the root of many problems. If the employee thinks that the manager sets too many restrictions or allows too little freedom to make decisions, he feels that the manager does not trust him. This condition leads to a decrease in employee satisfaction, morale and motivation.

Figure 1: Unmotivated vs. Motivated Employees



It can rightly be noticed that employees performance and motivation depend on the factors like performance appraisal, employee satisfaction, training and development, job security, compensation, organizational structure etc. Employee's motivation is highly influenced by employee performance and for getting the desired outcomes, an organization needs to design motivation programs effectively (Dobre, 2013).

3. Employee motivation techniques

Motivation techniques are internal or external influences that contribute to productivity, satisfaction at work and meaningful contribution to projects. When employees need to feel excited to work harder or believe in their value to the company, managers can use motivational tools to help encourage and inspire their teams. Here are some motivation techniques:

1) Ask for employee input

Regularly survey employees for their satisfaction. Conduct anonymous polls to show employees that you care about their opinions and value their input. Ask for suggestions of ways that you can improve working conditions. You also have to take action after getting the results of your poll back. This will show employees that you truly value their opinion, want them to be happy in their positions and will take the steps necessary to make that happen. It will show that you are loyal to them just

as you want them to be loyal to you, which will go a long way towards motivating them to perform at their best.

2) Offer personal enrichment programs

Creating a personal enrichment program could mean that you offer tuition reimbursement or send employees to workshops and seminars where they can improve their skills. This will allow you to more easily promote from within. Look for opportunities to encourage employees to engage in professional development.

3) Validate good work

Help inspire the efforts of your team members by validating their good work. And show your appreciation in person compliments or expressions of gratitude usually have the most impact in this fashion. Give specific examples of the things that they did that benefited the team, the organization or you personally. You may also want to consider taking the time to write a handwritten thank-you note on stationery, as this extra effort will have a bigger impact on the recipient.

4) Set intermittent goals

Smaller, measurable goals are a valuable way to stay motivated during work on a project. Whether your team has a system to keep track of completed work or you develop a tracking system of your own, helping your team to set goals that are reasonable and achievable can keep employees motivated and encouraged when they hit notable milestones.

5) Celebrate milestones and achievements

Particularly if a project has a long-term goal, celebrating smaller milestones along the course of the project can help everyone on the team stay connected to the work and focused on the larger goal. Gratitude and validation are an important part of recognizing those milestones, but tangible rewards can also help. Financial bonuses, a lunch party, time off or a gift certificate for meeting milestones can motivate everyone.

6) Radiate positivity

Creating a positive culture is a great way to maintain the motivation of your employees. The easiest way to do this is to radiate

positivity yourself. Play music, joke around, play games, laugh and just have fun. Research shows that happiness can significantly boost the productivity of your workplace. Enjoy being in the office and consistently showcase high energy.

7) Create a mentorship program

A good mentor can offer encouragement, advice and understanding about the trials and successes employees encounter. If employees work in a specialized field that friends and family do not understand well, a mentor can be invaluable in helping them sort through concerns and appreciate their successes. Create a mentorship program within your department where you pair more experienced employees with ones who have less experience to guide them along their career journey and offer words of advice and encouragement daily.

8) Create a comfortable and inspiring workspace

Establish an office environment that is both comfortable and inspirational. Add color to the walls and put up motivational posters. If your workplace uses cubicles, encourage your employees to decorate their own space in a way they enjoy. Also, encourage your team to keep their workspaces clean and tidy, as clutter can rapidly begin to feel chaotic.

9) Encourage mindfulness

Encourage employees to de-stress and take breaks during the workday. This could mean a brief walk outside on a nice day or a trip to a nearby coffee shop. You might consider offering yoga or meditation classes over a lunch break or encourage your team to participate in these activities when they feel stuck about the direction of a project or need to take a short break. Sometimes just taking a few moments of quiet can provide the motivation they need to meet tight deadlines.

10) Take benefits to the next level

Employees generally expect standard benefits like paid time off, health insurance and even flexibility. You can motivate employees by taking your benefits to the next level. Add game rooms to help employees de-stress throughout the day, a snack bar to keep energy levels up or even implement a work-from-home day each week or month. Childcare or wellness compensation plans are also a great way to incentivize

employees. These kinds of benefits boost health, increase team motivation and encourage people to stay with your company longer.

11) Offer an incentive program

Create an incentive program that rewards employees for consistently working hard—separate from celebrating milestones or successes. You could implement non-financial incentives like extra vacation days, compressed work weeks or a choice of parking spots. Your incentive program doesn't even have to be connected to performance.

2. Methods of motivation

The techniques of motivation refer to different methods of motivating employees. All such methods are based on an application of different motivation theories. Some of the important methods or types are as follows:

1) Participation

Participation refers to an activity involving employees in management decision making and planning activities. Participation of employees in formulating corporate plans and policies provides the feeling of belonging, recognition, acceptance, accomplishment, and responsibility. As a result, employees will be motivated for a higher level of performance.

2) Behavioral motivation

This refers to the process of enhancing employee's behavior. Because the changed behavior of employees can motivate themselves towards the higher level of performance. This also increases their job responsibility.

3) Money and financial benefits

Money and financial benefits are generated externally. They are provided in terms of pay, incentives, benefits, and other tangible services. This works as a 'carrot' for motivating employees.

4) Work group

Employees are categorized into different work units to fulfill their different societal needs. Then the employees are allowed to work in the group, and they discuss the quality and productivity thereby finding out the causes of deficiencies. Hence, employees are self-motivated and self-directed towards the attainment of organizational jobs and responsibilities,

5) Profit sharing plans

It is another way of motivating employees by allowing them a certain percentage of profit. When employees directly participate in the profit of the company, they can be motivated towards earning the better profit.

6) Skill-based pay

This method of motivation is concerned with paying employees on the basis of skill held by them while performing the tasks. By doing so, highly skilled employees will be directly motivated towards a higher level of job performance. Similarly, employees with lower skills are induced to improve their skills and knowledge.

7) Flexible return

This means the designation of a pay system or incentive plan which is based on attempt shown by the employees in the actual workstation. If individual's efforts and attempts are recognized by some sorts of considerations they can motivate themselves for the higher level of performance.

8) Representation

It is another important form of motivating employees. Under this method, employees are appointed in management committee to participate in decision-making activities. If the employees get representation in the management, they can present their opinions, feelings, ideas, and views clearly. Ultimately, this leads them towards their commitment to work.

Conclusion

Motivation is the reason for people's actions, desires, and needs. Motivation is one of the essential aspects of HRM which is concerned with the process of inducing, inspiring, organizing, and stimulating employees to do the better job in the organization.

Every team and individual is unique and different. Therefore, there is not just one universal motivation strategy that can be implemented in any organization, but managers need to find the best strategies that work in a specific work environment. Inconsistency in the motivation model can destroy employee morale.

Motivation is the active process, which could be achieved if an employee has a sense of belongingness towards it organization, because through rewards system when employees know that their organization value them and appreciate their performance, then their performance could be effective and they will trust them. (MUOGBO, 2013). By showing employees they are appreciated through some form of reward or recognition, their confidence will take a boost which will motivate them to make a big difference in the workplace.

For the positive employee behavior, the win-win situation is compulsory and that is only possible through motivation and implementing reward system (Osabiya, 2015). The purpose of the awards is to increase the motivation and quality of fulfillment of the work task. To keeping workplace productivity and performance high, it's important to keeping the employees energized and motivated. An engaged employee will allow to create an entire culture where employees are motivated to grow and succeed in their roles.

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RELATIONS AND CONTROL MECHANISMS BETWEEN THE LEGISLATURE AND THE EXECUTIVE BODIES IN THE MACEDONIAN CONSTITUTIONAL ORDER

Azam Korbajram , page 93-108

ABSTRACT

In the Macedonian constitutional order, which is close to the northern European type of government, the parliamentary government systems, where there is a soft separation of powers and the powers, especially the legislature and the executive, are intertwined in places, also have the authority to supervise the execution of the legislature in accordance with the spirit of parliamentarism. In other words, it is envisaged that the legislative executive has powers such as questions, interpellation, research and investigation commissions, and vote of confidence. In accordance with this philosophy and spirit, the Macedonian Constitution of 1991 gives these supervisory powers to the legislature, namely the parliament. However, in the face of these powerful and effective powers, the self-annulment of the legislature, that is, the institution of self-annulment. Therefore, in this article, these powers are briefly discussed one by one and it is discussed that it may be beneficial to rectify the legislative's self-dissolving power as the executive's power to dissolve the legislature in accordance with the principle of equality of powers. In this way, the constitution's distribution of powers is in any case in line with the nature of the parliamentary government system and the understanding of the theory of separation of powers. The change in the traditional understanding of the parliamentary system hindered the active participation of political parties in the constitutional order and tended to change the balance. Particularly, disciplined parties are effective in this regard and have a great influence on the legislature. In this respect, we think that handling and arranging some legal regulations in the constitutional dimension can be effective in terms of the dynamism and distribution of authority of the system.

Keywords: 1991 Constitution Republic of North Macedonia, Separation of Powers Theory, Legislative Control Over the Executive, Parliamentary Authority and Power, Level of Authorization.



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INTRODUCTION

One of the essential features of the parliamentary system of government is the soft separation of the legislative and executive powers. Even though the legislative and executive powers are carried out by two separate organs, these organs are not completely independent from each other. The peculiarity of this system is that it consists of a soft separation of powers and mutual cooperation.

As a requirement of the parliamentary government system, which envisages soft separation of powers, the legislative power of the legislature to oversee the executive, that is, the parliamentary government, is regulated by the norm provisions of the 1991 Constitution.¹

That is, the parliamentary system is a form of government organization in which relations between state bodies are based on the principle of flexible separation of powers, which is expressed through equality and cooperation of state authorities. When we look at the separation of powers in the Macedonian government system, it is seen that the legislative and executive are separated from each other in a soft way. It is clear that the relations of the legislature with other organs of the state are based on the 1991 Constitution in general and abstractly, and more concretely on the Bylaws of the Assembly (Rules of Procedure). As stipulated by the Constitution, with the regulation that the people exercise their sovereignty through the representatives they choose, the members of the Assembly and the President are directly elected by the electorate. In this case, the two bodies are kept at the same level as they derive their legitimacy directly from the people.²

Although the relationship of the Macedonian Assembly with the Presidency is limited, it consists of the power to speak in the Assembly at least once a year and the delaying veto power regarding the operations of the President of the Republic. By first authority, it expresses its views on laws, either on personal initiative (when it needs it) or upon the assembly's normative authority upon the invitation of the Assembly. The second authority is realized by using the delaying veto power by not ratifying the

¹ Article 72-76 of the 1991 Constitution of the Republic of North Macedonia

² Klimovski, Deskoska, Karakamiseva, *Ustavno Pravo i Politicki Sistem*, Prosvetno Delo Press, 2012, p. 450.

laws on the grounds that they are against the public interest or inconsistent with the Constitution. Namely, the constitutional provision from Article 71 stipulates that every MP, the Government and at least 10,000 voters have the right to propose a law. But in practice, almost all of the legislative proposals are given by the government. The Assembly can also request an opinion on the transactions under the President's authority in terms of determining how the President uses her constitutional powers. For example, the Presidents who served between 1992-1998 were presenting detailed information to the Assembly about the work they had done during the year when the end of each year was approaching. However, this tradition was interrupted in 1998 and it appears as a duty that has not been implemented since its responsibility is not clearly specified by the Constitution and the law. The Assembly has the authority and power to determine its responsibility for the President. Thus, it becomes clear that the President is responsible to the Macedonian Assembly. On the other hand, when we look at the relations of the Assembly with the Government, it can be stated that there are mechanisms of mutual interaction. So much so that, in addition to the control mechanisms that the Assembly has over the executive, it is possible to overthrow it with a vote of confidence/non-confidence. In the classical and traditional parliamentary system, this authority has been specified on the basis of the principle of reciprocity, and the executive also abolishes the legislature. However, in the Macedonian constitutional order, the executive branch was not given the authority to dissolve the legislature.

This situation is interpreted by Constitutional lawyers as a deficiency in terms of ensuring the balance.³ In terms of law (code)-making, although it is stated in the Constitution as a right granted to the Government and the public, as well as the members of the Assembly, the competent and competent Government comes to the forefront as the organ that prepares the texts of the laws. In other words, although the executive emerged as being obliged to implement the laws enacted by the legislature, over time the executive branch was ahead of the legislature in making laws. Due to the system, the organs should be intertwined and in cooperation, however, it is stated that the authorities actually strengthen the executive body as a result of the weakness of the working bodies,

³ Vankovska B, *Politicki Sistem na Republika Makedonija*, 2014, p. 231.

namely the commissions, working within the Assembly, and in practice, this leads to a shift of power (authority).

PARLIAMENTARY OVERSIGHT

A. Parliament's power to elect the government

The method of exiting the executive from the legislature, which is specific to the parliamentary government system, is also included in the government system of the Republic of Macedonia. With the 13th paragraph of Article 68 of the Constitution, the Parliament has been given the authority to elect the government. The Assembly elects the government in accordance with the procedures set out in the Constitution and the provisions of the Rules of Procedure. The political party that receives the majority of the votes is given the authority to form the government within three days from the receipt of the notification by the President, and the Prime Minister candidate is introduced and informed to the deputies by the Speaker of the Parliament. The Prime Minister candidate has to submit (deliver) the list of names of the members of the Council of Ministers and the government program to the Assembly within 20 days from the day she is given the authority to form the government. The staff of the Council of Ministers is presented in written form.

The proposal includes the names and surnames of the Prime Minister and Ministerial candidates along with biographical data. The Speaker of the Assembly immediately presents the staff that will form the government and the proposal for the formation of the government program to the members of the Assembly. The session for the election of the government shall be held within 15 days from the date of receipt of the proposal for the formation of the government and the programme. The Prime Minister candidate explains the government and the Council of Ministers. A single session is held regarding the government program and the members of the Council of Ministers and lasts for a maximum of two days. The order of participation of the Assembly members in the discussion is determined by the Speaker of the Assembly in such a way as to ensure the participation of the Assembly members from the different political parties represented in the Assembly. Voting for the election of the government is done by open voting method, in which the government as a whole is considered. Voting takes place after the end of the general meeting and until 24:00 at the latest.

With the majority vote of the total number of members of the Assembly, the government is elected and the Speaker of the Assembly informs the President about the government election. Pursuant to the second paragraph of Article 89 of the Constitution, the Prime Minister and Ministers are clearly prevented from being deputies. In this way, it has been tried to separate the legislative and executive organs from each other, and to implement a method in which these two organs, which are intertwined in parliamentarism, are independent from each other and control mechanisms can be operated.

B. Political Responsibility of the Government to Parliament

Before moving on to the subject, we see that the mechanisms of parliamentary interrogation, general discussion, interrogation and research/investigation commissions are clearly regulated as the mechanisms to control the government in the “legislative section” (Chapter III. Article 72) of the Constitution. At this point, additionally, since there are institutions that are not included in the Constitution but have a function as a supervisory mechanism, those mechanisms will also be included. For example, the general debate is regulated by the Law of the Assembly, even though it is not included in the Constitution. In addition, the vote of confidence against the government is included as a control mechanism in the Macedonian Constitutional legal doctrine. The control mechanisms envisaged in the constitutional law doctrine and envisaged in the sense of democratic constitutionalism for the purpose of overseeing the executive were also regulated in the 1991 Constitution.

Accordingly, there are control mechanisms for oral and written questions, general discussion, parliamentary inquiry/parliamentary investigation, question of no-confidence motion (interpellation) and confidence vote. Oral and written question, which constitutes the main control mechanism of the legislature against the executive branch, refers to the method of obtaining information from the Prime Minister or Ministers, who constitute the responsible wing of the government, about their work, which the Deputies have the right to ask in writing or orally. **Article 72** – *“An interpellation may be made concerning the work of any public office-holder, the Government and any of its members individually, as well as on issues concerning the performance of state bodies. Interpellation may be made by a minimum of five Representatives. All*

Representatives have the right to ask a Representative's question. The mode and procedure for submitting and debating on an interpellation and Representative's question are regulated by the Rules of Procedure.”

The Bylaw of the Assembly regulates the subject of control mechanisms in detail. Deputies have the right to ask the head of government of the Republic of Macedonia (Prime Minister), a member of the Cabinet and public officials with responsibility to the Assembly about their work. The question should be short and precise. The deputy must clearly state to whom the question was asked, and minutes are kept of each question asked.⁴ The question, which has the nature of a political control method, is expressed orally in the session when it is asked orally. If the question form is written, then the question is asked to the addressee through the Speaker of the Assembly. If the question concerns a senior non-government official, the MP must report the matter to the Speaker at least 24 hours before the start of the session. A special session is held on the last Thursday of each month to ask questions in parliament.

The government wing consisting of prime ministers and ministers and other senior public officials, who are expected to be asked questions in advance, are obliged to be present at the session. If the Prime Minister needs to leave the session for objective and urgent reasons, his absence cannot last more than an hour. The deputies has the right to ask a maximum of three questions in one session. The answer to the oral question asked is also limited and is determined as 10 minutes. Paragraph 2 of Article 40 of the Bylaws (Official Newspaper of the Republic of Macedonia no. 119/2010): *The Speaker of the Assembly makes the order of the questions to be asked together with the Coordinators of the party groups. However, this ranking should be determined to cover all party groups.* Exceptionally, if the Prime Minister or the relevant Minister or public official declares that, for justifiable reasons, he cannot give an oral answer in that session, he has to reply in writing within 20 days. The written response is immediately sent to the Speaker of the House to send the question to the sender and to all deputies, and then the deputies are informed to pose their questions in the first session. The deputy who asked the question has the right to ask an additional question for three (3) minutes after receiving the answer. If the answer concerns a question that

⁴ Article 37 of the Rules of Procedure of the Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia

has the status of state secret, the government or public official may request that the answer be given in non-public hearing.⁵ The Assembly decides on such a proposal in accordance with the provisions of the Rules of Procedure.⁶

The plenary meeting, which was determined as a second control mechanism, the Parliamentary Law (2009), which was made in order to eliminate the deficiencies in the laws that were not regulated by the Constitution and the Rules of Procedures, made the plenary meeting mechanism under Title V (Supervisory Negotiation) in the 20th, 21st and 22nd regulated by its articles. With the introduction of the Parliamentary Code in August 2009, the general negotiation mechanism has been actively taking its place in the Macedonian legal order to this day in continuity under the umbrella of the legislature.⁷

The general negotiation is a path of audit designed and used to obtain information and expert opinions on issues within the scope of the parliamentary labour body regarding issues such as the politics implemented by the government, the execution of laws and other activities of the governing bodies of the state. The general negotiation is held by the working body of the Parliament and has the authority to invite authorized representatives from the government or state governing bodies to request the information and explanations that are subject to discussion in the session. Other people who can provide information on the topics subject to the general negotiation can also be invited to the sessions. Invited authorized representatives are obliged to attend the session where the general negotiation will be held. The President of the Working Body informs the Speaker of the Parliament about the general meeting. President of the Assembly (speaker) informs the government in writing.

Upon notification, the Speaker will ask the government to specify authorized representatives to provide information on the issues to the *general negotiation*. The head of the relevant labour body invites the competent representative of the Government or public administration to

⁵ Article 39 was amended by the Amendment to the Rules of Procedure of the Republic of Macedonia ("Official Newspaper of the Republic of Macedonia" No. 119/2010))

⁶ Skarikj S., Siljanovska G., *Ustavno Pravo*, Matica Press, 2009, p. 591.

⁷ A bilingual study prepared by the Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia: *Politička Kontrola i Nadzor Na Sobranieto Nad Vladata I Nad Drugi Nositeli Na Javni Funkcii* (Mart, 2014). *Sobranie na R. Makedonija*.

the meeting of the working body in writing and may request information, opinions and opinions on the subject and request that he submit it in writing no later than 3 days before the day of the meeting.

The financial funds required for the general negotiation sessions are provided from the funds envisaged in the Parliament's Budget for the Republic of Macedonia. The public is informed about the meeting to be held through the Parliamentary Channel and the Parliamentary website. An application can be made by "a member of the working body" regarding the general negotiation. The working unit decides to negotiate with a majority vote of the current number of members and by at least 1/3 of the total number of members. If a general meeting is requested by the head of the labour body through the Speaker of the Assembly upon written requests of 15 deputies under the roof of the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia, he must immediately call a meeting of the head of the labour body. Together with the Speaker, Vice Presidents and the coordinators of the Parliamentary party groups, they can make recommendations to the head of the working body and its members for the general negotiation. At the time of the general negotiation, members of the relevant working body and deputies who are not members of the relevant labour body have the authority to ask only relevant questions to the competent representatives of the Government or representatives of the public administration bodies invited to the negotiation. The parliamentary work body decides the duration of the interview and is tasked with ensuring that each member of the main working body is present at the meeting.

Another audit mechanism is the mechanism of parliamentary inquiry and parliamentary inquiry. In the doctrine of Macedonian Constitutional law, parliamentary research and parliamentary inquiry are conducted in the same manner under the same heading. To elaborate, it means a review through establishing special commissions to obtain information on a particular subject. The Parliamentary Inquiry is conducted by special commissions established according to the number of representatives of the political parties in parliament, which have consequences that require the political and criminal responsibility of the Prime Minister and Ministers. Looking at Article 76 of the 1991 Constitution, it is seen that it is regulated as follows:

“The Assembly sets up permanent and temporary working bodies. The Assembly may set up survey commissions for any domain or any matter of public interest. A proposal for setting up a survey commission may be submitted by a minimum of 20 Representatives. The Assembly sets up a permanent survey commission for the protection of the freedoms and rights of citizens. The findings of the survey commissions form the basis for the initiation of proceedings to ascertain the answerability of public office-holders.“

As it can be understood from here, *special commissions* with this method of audit are equipped with both investigative and investigative powers and serve as both research and investigation. Therefore, we believe that it would not be wrong to call this title research-investigation commissions. These special commissions may request data and information from public administrations and other institutions and organizations in order to fulfill their duties and duties within their scope. In addition, it can invite scientists, experts, local government representatives, public institutions, trade unions and other organizations, institutions and associations to a meeting to give opinions on the issues discussed at the meeting. Work bodies can set up workgroups to study specific issues within their workplaces or to draft laws. Members of working groups are elected from among members of the working body, deputies, scientists and experts, as well as representatives of public administration bodies. During the decision-making process, the voting rights belong only to the deputies, the other participants do not have the right to vote. However, with their participation in the meetings, they contribute a lot to the work of the Commission by expressing opinions on the issues they are experts in. Working groups are obliged to report to the working unit and, depending on the establishment of the Commission, the procedure of determining the responsibility and opening the necessary cases to the aforementioned authorities is initiated.⁸

Commissions do not fall under the jurisdiction of the courts while doing work on their duties. In accordance with the principle of separation of powers, the truth is that the legislature determines the responsibility and

⁸ Klimovski, Deskoska, Karakamiseva, 2012, p. 380-381.

leave the part of the case that will continue in the following courts to the independent courts of the country.⁹

The other control mechanism envisaged in all constitutional democracies is the *interpellation* mechanism. The interpellation question originated from the Latin word “*interpellatio*”, which means to ask, to attack, to protest. The 1991 Constitution is regulated by Article 72. According to this article, a interpellation can be submitted about the duties and work of senior public staffs, the Prime Minister and each of the Ministers. At this point, the Macedonian Constitution has moved out of the parliamentary system of government and extended this method, which is intended exclusively for prime ministers and ministers, to include all public senior staffs. The interpellation motion can be submitted by at least five (5) deputies. The Parliamentary Rules of Procedures regulations were made with articles 45, 46, 47, 48 and 49. Accordingly, the interpellation can be submitted by at least five deputies for each of the members of the Public Senior Officials, the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers, separately, on matters related to their work. The interpellation will be submitted in writing with the signature of the deputies. The motion is submitted to the Speaker of the House and the President will immediately submit it to the person in question and to the members of parliament. The subject of motion of the interpellation has the right to give a written response to the Speaker within 15 days of receiving the motion at the latest. The interpellation is put on the agenda of the next session of the Parliament 15 days after it is sent to the Parliament and its members. If the necessary answer does not come within the prescribed period, the discussion about interpellation is held on the agenda of the first session of the Parliament. One of the deputy who submitted the interpellation has the right to explain the statement during a 20-minute session of Parliament. The person to whom the interpellation is directed is invited to the session and will have the right to respond verbally within a 20-minute period of time. Discussions on the interpellation question will last one working day and will be decided by 24.00 at the latest (with the subsequent amendment, the part of “it will be decided by 24:00 at the least” has been removed from the text.¹⁰

⁹ Skarikj S., *Ustavno Pravo*, Kultura Press, 2015, p. 787-790.

¹⁰ Rules of Procedures of the Assembly, Article 49

Members of parliament (deputy) are required to inform the Speaker of the House about their participation in writing within 24 hours of the meeting. In the meeting to be held regarding the interpellation question, the ordering method will be determined in a way that will enable the members of the parliament to participate in the discussions from different parliamentary groups, in agreement with the Parliamentary Groups Coordinators.¹¹ As a result of the interpellation, it results in the government being ousted by a no-confidence vote or the minister being removed from his post due to dissatisfaction with his work. Finally, it takes its place as a very effective method of control in constitutional democracies as an effective method of auditing the vote of confidence given to the Government. In a parliamentary-only system of government, the most effective control mechanism for the executive of the legislature is the vote of confidence in the government. This mechanism leads to the resignation of the government if the result is concluded by a no-confidence vote. Macedonia 1991 Constitutional regulations were regulated by article 92 under the executive order.

The *confidence vote* control mechanism in which the general framework is drawn up in this way is more comprehensively regulated by articles 214 to 218 of the Rule of Procedures of the Assembly. A no-confidence vote by the government could be submitted with the signature of at least 20 deputies. The question of a vote of confidence in the government should be presented and justified in writing. In addition, the Prime Minister may bring up the motion to hold a no-confidence vote against the government in writing or verbally during the Parliamentary session. The Speaker immediately refers the issue of a no-confidence vote against the government to lawmakers, the government and the President, but when the question of the government's vote of confidence is raised verbally by the government, the Speaker immediately informs the President. The government's no-confidence vote could be withdrawn until the start of the Parliamentary session, where the government's trust issue will be discussed. The Speaker immediately holds a session on the trust of the government. The session is held on the third day from the day the vote of confidence motion is submitted in writing. The time limit specified in

¹¹ These amendments to Article 49 were made by the Charter (Official Newspaper of the Republic of Macedonia) no. 119/2010, which amended the Charter of the Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia. (“Службен весник на Република Македонија” број 119/2010).

paragraph 1 of this article will start the day after the day when the government's trust issue is raised, so the next day¹².

If the government's vote of confidence comes to the agenda, a general discussion will be held in the Parliament. One of the deputies, who submitted a parliamentary question for a period of 30 minutes, has the right to explain the matter of a vote of confidence to the government. The ranking of the members of parliament who are not organized in parliamentary groups and parliamentary groups (independent members), the order of the members of parliament who will participate in the debate is determined by agreement with the coordinators of the parliamentary groups and the Speaker of the Parliament before the start of the meeting. During the debate, the deputy is entitled to speak several times for a total of 15 minutes and the coordinator of the party group for a total of 20 minutes. Parliament is giving no-confidence vote in the government after the end of the third day following the day the trust issue was raised. If the government's interpellation is raised verbally by the head of the government in the Parliamentary session, parliament will vote on the government's no-confidence vote in the same session without a general meeting. The Prime Minister has the right to address Parliament before the vote. Article 92 of the Constitution stipulates that a interpellation cannot be submitted within 90 days upon the submission of the interpellation directed to the minister or the general government in paragraphs 4 and 5. The exception is that if the absolute majority of the full number of members of the Parliament has submitted such a question, then there is a no-confidence vote again. If a no-confidence vote against the government results in distrust, the head of government submits his resignation to Parliament within 24 hours of the no-confidence vote. The Speaker urgently informs the President of the no-confidence vote that led to the government and the resignation presented. Since 1991, five or six times since 1991, 1992, 1993 (twice a vote of confidence motion has been submitted), 1994, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2005, 2006 (three votes of confidence have been submitted), 2007, the last vote of confidence question motion was submitted by opposition lawmakers in 2018.¹³

¹² The 1991 Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, Article 92 and Article 215 of the Rulef of Prosedures of the Assembly.

¹³ For detailed information about the no-confidence vote and sample question proposals, see Skarikj, Siljanoska, 2009, 598-600.

THE RELATIONSHIPS THAT THE TWO-WINGED EXECUTIVE HAS IN ITSELF

The existence of the two-headed executive structure, which constitutes one of the characteristics of the parliamentary government system, and how the relations between the two-headed executive are regulated are also very important. It is seen that the powers of the President representing the irresponsible wing of the executive branch and the Government, representing the responsible wing on the other hand, are intertwined in certain areas based on the powers granted by the Constitution and laws. In other words, it is observed that powers are intertwined, especially in the field of national security and defense, in the field of international politics and international agreements, and in the field of diplomacy. In the field of national security and defense, Article 79 of the Macedonian Constitution states that the President of Macedonia is the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. However, section III of the Law on Defense¹⁴ shall detail the distribution of authority in this area in articles 19-21 and divide it between the President, the Council of Ministers and the Ministry of Defense. It is clearly seen that the issues related to the management and internal functioning of the Armed Forces are within the authority of the Council of Ministers and especially the Ministry of Defense. The President has the power to appoint and dismiss the Chief of Staff (for a 3-year term) and Generals. Article 27 of the Defense Law, according to paragraph 2, "The Chief of The General Staff" against the President and the Minister of Defense, and the situation regarding accountability clearly contrasts with which institution. Another important issue between the Presidency and the Council of Ministers is that in cases where the Assembly cannot convene under Martial Law and the State of Emergency, its powers and the authority to issue decree laws are vested in the Council of Ministers, not the Presidency.

The fact that this situation is not regulated in the way stipulated by the parliamentary system of government is in contrast to the legal framework.¹⁵ From a responsible point of view, the issue of which office (Prime Minister or Council of Ministers) and which body to be responsible

¹⁴ Law on National Defence: URL: <http://www.morm.gov.mk/wp-content/uploads/ZAKON-ZA-ODBRANA-Precisten-tekst.pdf> (23.12.2019)

¹⁵ Ibid, p. 237.

for is not clearly regulated and there is a clearness of law. The issue of the authority to make and sign international treaties also comes across as a power granted to the President on behalf of the Republic of Macedonia in Article 119 of the Constitution. However, the Council of Ministers is also authorized to make international treaties on the issues regulated and envisaged by law. In fact, the 1998 Law on Conforming International Treaties clearly states that the President has the authority to sign "agreements dealing with international law issues"

By enumerating the powers of the Prime Ministry, which are stated as exceptions but held on a large scale, one by one, "in the field of economy, finance, science, culture, education, sports, communication and relations, environment and urbanism, construction, nature protection, agriculture, forestry, social policy, states that it has the authority to sign treaties on human rights, diplomatic and consular relations, defense and security.¹⁶ In other words, the fact that the authority of the international treaty in almost every field of daily life is granted to the Council of Ministers, in fact, it is seen that the exception has become the general principle and there is a shift in authority. Third, i. e. when looking at the distribution of authority in the fields of foreign policy and diplomacy, the need for cooperation of the Presidency and the Council of Ministers is foreseen as a basic principle. In other words, the representatives to be sent to foreign countries representing the state are appointed by the President upon the proposal of the Council of Ministers. In this case, academic circles emphasize that the Council of Ministers has the primary authority to determine and appoint individuals, provided that they have done the necessary work, while the President has made appointments by playing the role of concluding elections made solely as a formality, away from the original role. The acceptance of foreign state representatives and accredited letters is made by the President.

Generally considered, the fact that the parliamentary government is inherently a system for inter-organ cooperation does not change the fact that presidential powers are much more limited and modest than those held by the Council of Ministers. The Macedonian Constitution presents

¹⁶ 1998 Law on Approval of International Treaties, <https://www.pravdiko.mk/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/Zakon-za-sklucuvan-e-namegunarodni-dogovori-22-01-1998.pdf> (23.12.2019)

as evidence the fact that the government, not the President, is the main element of the executive function.¹⁷ In the above-mentioned cases, it can be stated that the system can work as a result of the cooperation of the two-headedness of the executive body, otherwise it may cause deadlocks or disruptions. Therefore, the Presidency and the Council of Ministers will have the opportunity to fully fulfill their cooperation and duties, which are envisaged within the framework of respect and mutual understanding, within the framework of the authority given by the Constitution and laws on many issues.

CONCLUSION

In line with the information given above and the supervisory mechanisms specified, it is seen that the legislature has important powers such as questioning, interpellation, vote of confidence, establishing research and investigation commissions against the executive in accordance with the spirit of the parliamentary system. However, it is seen that the executive within the framework of asymmetrical weapons does not have the authority to terminate the legislature. Indeed, it seems that the institution of self-dissolution is included, that is, it envisages the institution of self-dissolution of the parliament by majority vote. We defend the view that the executive should also be empowered to dissolve the legislature, despite the fact that the legislature overthrows the executive by a vote of no confidence in accordance with the views expressed by the constitutional lawyers and the spirit of parliamentarism.

In addition, the prevalence of coalition governments at the Macedonian constitutional level, and the signing of a coalition agreement¹⁸ in case the negotiations are agreed before the political parties form a government, will be in line with the understanding of transparent and accountable management. In this way, it will be appropriate in terms of conciliatory democracy to prevent the collapse of coalitions as a result of future conflicts and crises and to secure them with legal documents.

¹⁷ Skarikj S., 2015, 872.

¹⁸ Akartürk A. E., Küçük S. T., Güçlendirilmiş Parlamenter Sistem, Adalet Press, 2017, p. 143.

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COVID-19 PANDEMIC: INFLUENCE OF RELATIONSHIP STATUS ON ANXIETY AND DEPRESSION IN ADULTHOOD POPULATION OF NORTH MACEDONIA

Nita Beluli Luma, page 109-124

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to assess the associations between relationship status and mental well-being during this time when the world is facing with the greatest bio-psycho-social threat known as coronavirus COVID-19 pandemic. Regarding the mental health we have taken two mental issues which have shown to be most common as consequences of the impact of the safety measures and social distance limitations we have been obliged to respect in order to prevent further spread of the infectious disease, which are: depression and anxiety.

Another purpose of our research is to identify whether age stage and gender, moderated these associations. We wanted to understand and examine the impact of relationship status on levels of anxiety, and depression during the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic to identify relationship status groups, divided by their age groups and gender, who are at greater risk of mental health difficulties.

Relationship status during the COVID-19 pandemic has an influence on the mental health of individuals. Our findings highlight relationship groups at risk of mental health problems during the pandemic and for whom treatments and mitigation should be targeted.

Compared to marriage, being engaged or being divorced/widowed were associated with depressive and anxious symptoms at men and women. Early adult males have shown greater levels of depression than all other age stages in adulthood, even exceeding females in all categories as well. Men are more depressed than women in all age stages of adulthood when compared. While late adult woman are the most anxious between the groups and when compared to men as well.

Key words: relationship status, depression, anxiety, mental health, COVID-19.



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INTRODUCTION

Marital status and an intimate relationship are of vital importance regarding mental well-being and they have to be considered as one of the most important aspects of our lives. People, who are more connected to their family members, relatives, friends, colleagues etc., are happier, physically healthier and live longer, with fewer mental health problems than people who are less well connected.¹

Being happily married or in a stable relationship impacts positively on mental health. Many studies have focused specifically on marriage, which has been found to be associated with better mental well-being compared to other relationship statuses (e.g., Bulloch et al., 2017; LaPierre, 2009; Wadsworth, 2016). However, cohabitation and intimate relationships are perceived to produce similar benefits in some studies, as studies have suggested that these relationship statuses are associated with better mental well-being relatively the same way as marriage (Musick & Bumpass, 2012; Rapp and Stauder, 2020, Zella, 2017). Research that have been conducted in this dimension, have found that high marital quality is associated with lower stress and less depression. However, single people have better mental health outcomes than people who are unhappily married (Teo et al.,2016).

Other associated recent studies that have been realized in Ireland and USA have found that negative social interactions and relationships, especially with partners/spouses, increase the risk of depression, anxiety and suicidal ideation, while positive interactions reduce the risk of these issues.²

¹ Edwards,J., Goldie,I., Breedvelt, J, Elliot, I., et al. (2016). Relationships in the 21st century: the forgotten foundation of mental health and wellbeing, *Mental Health Foundation*, Retrieved from <https://www.mentalhealth.org.uk/sites/default/files/Relationships-in-21st-century-forgotten-foundation-mental-health-wellbeing-full-may-2016.pdf>

² T eo, A.R., Choi, H.J., & Valenstein, M. (2013). Social Relationships and Depression: Ten-Year Follow-Up from a Nationally Representative Study. *PLOS One*, 8(4). Retrieved from journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0062396 [Accessed 26/08/16].

The better mental well-being of those in marriage or in intimate relationship have been suggested to be due to the fact that these provide more social support, financial support, and purpose of life (Soulsby and Bennett, 2015, Umberson et al., 2013).³

Since we are living in not so common and normal conditions during the pandemics; having in consideration that the quality of life and the romantic relationship among couples everywhere around the globe, have been challenged and changed we have been doubting if the above mentioned studies are valid and accurate anymore. Latest studies have shown a turn in the relationship matters among the married, the engaged, those who are dating vs. the single ones, and the widowers status individuals. For instance, married couples who during the pandemic have been working from home are those who in the related studies have shown greater levels of boredom, are those who are more concerned about infecting the other members of the family, especially those with children are worried about children's school performance, responding to children's school duties and homework with much more dedication that it was needed before the pandemic, having to divide the home rooms for working purposes etc., have only induced boredom, fights, conflicts of interest inside their homes which would only increase unhappiness, anxiety, even depression.

The pandemic influenced on people's employee status, which further affected family incomes which also impacted on the limitation on family supplies of essential goods, and all these consequences induce frustration and anger (Miles, 2015; Brooks *et al.* 2020), and in some circumstances, result in the stigmatization of affected individuals.

Also, by putting cohabiting individuals (partners, roommates and relative families) in unusually close proximity for a long time in a closed unit, may even worsen existing tensions in relationships. On the other hand, for single individuals, the social distance and isolation during the pandemic may reduce access to previous supports, which may in turn increase their anxiety, even depression levels.

This study therefore aimed to understand the changes in the relationship status and their mental health during these challenged times we are living in.

³ Grundstrom, J., Konntinen, H., Berg, N., Kiviruusu, O. (2021). Associations between relationship status and mental well-being in different life phases from young to middle adulthood. Elsevier, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100774>

1.2. Present study

Our aim was to examine the association between relationship status and mental well-being at different age groups in adulthood, and whether these associations change during the life course for men and women.

This perspective is important as it can provide systematic knowledge of how diverse meanings and expectations of an intimate relationship at different ages turn into variation in how relationship status and mental well-being are linked with each other during the life course.

In short, in this study we aimed to answer two research questions: 1) How is relationship status (i.e. marriage, engagement, single, divorced/widowed) associated with depressive symptoms and anxiety symptoms; 2) Does this relationship changes at three different age stages during the life course in women and men?

Based on previous research, we expected that the associations between relationship statuses and mental well-being are different at different ages during the life course. However, since previous studies have come to mixed results, we have set many hypotheses that follow our beliefs not reliant on those studies. For example, opposite findings have been obtained on whether being single is more strongly associated with depression in young adulthood or later in life. Based on the literature, we also expect that there are gender differences in these associations, especially that the positive association between marriage and mental well-being is more pronounced among men. Regarding the moderating role of relationship quality, we expected that among those with better relationship quality any ill effects of other relationship statuses compared to marriage on mental well-being are smaller or non-existent.

2.METHODS

2.1 Study purposes

The main aim of this study is to examine the association between relationship status and mental well-being at different age groups in adulthood, and whether these associations change during the life course for men and women.

2.2 Measure

2.2.1 Relationship status

Information on relationship status was obtained through a question about marital status, which had five possible categories: unmarried, engagement, married, divorced and widowed.

2.2.2 Mental Health

Aspects of mental well-being were studied using two variables: depressive symptoms and anxiety symptoms.

Mental health, respectively anxiety and depression were assessed through the following questionnaires: Coronavirus Pandemic Anxiety Scale created by dr. Alan Bernardo which contains 15 items, while depression was tested through the Patient Health Questionnaire -9 which contains 9 items. All items offer a 4 point Likert scale .

2.2.3 Gender and adulthood stage

Gender and adulthood stage were assessed through two items about gender identity (male/female) and age which are divided in three categories, early, middle and late adulthood age stage.

2.3 Participants

The respondents were invited personally via a message, asked to willingly fulfill and share the survey link with their contacts through social media. The identity of the respondent was completely anonymous. We decided to add the Respondent Anonymity Assurance in the welcoming message, because we believe that this principle not only protects the identity of the participants but also help us gather more honest opinions or answers, without worrying about the repercussions. We had a total of 900 respondents, the majority of them from Western part of North Macedonia.

2.3 Statistical analyses

Data analyses are processed with psychometric and statistical procedures.

For data analysis, we have been using the statistical software (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 20.0 which facilitated the process of organizing data into table's graphicones and charts for the sake of better visualization of the results and their interpretation.

3. Results

On this part of the research paper we will be presenting the results which we have come to explore regarding the relationship status, adulthood stages, gender and the main variables that refer to the mental health: depression and anxiety.

Table 1
Depression and anxiety levels regarding relationship status

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PHQ_sum	Between Groups	1421.448	3	473.816	9.221	.000
	Within Groups	46038.592	896	51.382		
	Total	47460.040	899			
CPAS_sum	Between Groups	746.786	3	248.929	1.983	.115
	Within Groups	112494.974	896	125.552		
	Total	113241.760	899			

According to the data presented at table 1. we come to an understanding that respondents depressive means among the relationship statuses they hold, are statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.05$). On the descriptive data we were able to find out that engaged participants have shown greater levels of the exhibition of depressive symptoms ($M=19.38$), followed by the divorced and the widowed ($M=19.29$), leaving behind the single participants ($M=18.43$) and the married ones who are less depressed ($M=16.19$).

According to data presented at table 1. we come to a finding that the anxiety means among the respondents relationship status is not supported by the evidences, ($\rho=0.115>0.05$) therefore we accept null hypothesis, that there is no significant difference among the means. On detailed descriptive frequencies we were able to find that divorced and widowed people are mostly more anxious ($M=36.24$), followed by the engaged ($M=31.03$), leaving on the third place the single ones ($M=30.33$) and the last are the married ones which show lower levels of anxiety ($M=29.83$).

According to our findings we were able to come to conclusion that engaged females tend to express significantly higher levels of depressive symptoms in comparison to all other categories ($M= 20.85$), followed by the divorced or widowed women ($M=20.00$). Surprisingly bachelor or single ladies are highly more depressed than married ladies ($M= 19.47 > M=17.23$). At the table below we have applied the ANOVA test in order to confirm whether these differences among these means are statistically significant, and looking at the p-value we confirm that there is strong evidence that supports our hypothesis. The ρ value is ($\rho=0.001$) which is lower than the significance level of 0.05, meaning that we reject null hypothesis.

Table2

Relationship status regarding depression and anxiety levels on female participants

		Anova				
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PHQ_sum	Between Groups	934.725	3	311.575	5.721	.001
	Within Groups	29736.309	546	54.462		
	Total	30671.035	549			
CPAS_sum	Between Groups	519.184	3	173.061	1.334	.262
	Within Groups	70807.451	546	129.684		
	Total	71326.635	549			

a. Gender = Female

We didn't find any statistical support ($\rho=0.262>0.05$) that would help us distinguish the female's relationship statuses as factors for the anxiety levels, therefore we accept null hypothesis, but we can add that if we had to rank them from the highest mean to the lowest achieved means in anxiety levels, that would look like this: Divorced/Widowed ($M=36.57$), followed by the engaged female participants ($M=33.70$), single ladies whom have achieved a mean close to the married ones ($M=31.83$; $M=31.44$).

Results, of the presence of anxiety and depression on men on the other hand, have shown that engaged males experience more depressive symptoms than men in all other relationship status categories ($M=17.36$), and with great advance on the means of anxiety are divorced and widowed men ($M=34.67$) leaving way behind the married, engaged and single men. In both mental health disorders there weren't found statistically significant differences, therefore we must accept null hypothesis for depression among men ($\rho=0.153>0.05$) as well as for anxiety among them ($\rho=0.597>0.05$).

Table3

Relationship status regarding depression and anxiety levels on male participants

		ANOVA ^a				
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PHQ_sum	Between Groups	223.791	3	74.597	1.770	.153
	Within Groups	14581.777	346	42.144		
	Total	14805.569	349			
CPAS_sum	Between Groups	205.447	3	68.482	.629	.597
	Within Groups	37697.813	346	108.953		
	Total	37903.260	349			

a. Gender = Male

A MANOVA test was also conducted for this purpose and we were able to understand that there was a significant difference between males and females when considered jointly on the variables depression and anxiety, Wilk's $\Lambda=0.001 < 0.05$, $F(6.18)=6.73$, $p=0.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.22$.

Table 4

Manova test for relationship status jointly on depression and anxiety levels

		Multivariate Tests ^a					
Effect		Value	F	Hyp df	Error df	Sig.	Partial η^2
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.678	940.568 ^b	2.000	895.000	.000	.678
	Wilks' Lambda	.322	940.568 ^b	2.000	895.000	.000	.678
	Hotelling's Trace	2.102	940.568 ^b	2.000	895.000	.000	.678
	Roy's Largest Root	2.102	940.568 ^b	2.000	895.000	.000	.678
Relation Status	Pillai's Trace	.044	6.701	6.000	1792.000	.000	.022
	Wilks' Lambda	.956	6.735 ^b	6.000	1790.000	.000	.022
	Hotelling's Trace	.045	6.769	6.000	1788.000	.000	.022
	Roy's Largest Root	.040	11.832 ^c	3.000	896.000	.000	.038

a. Design: Intercept + RelationStatus

b. Exact statistic

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

There was a significant difference between respondent's age groups, divided in early, middle and late adulthood when considered jointly on the variables of depression and anxiety, Wilk's $\Lambda=0.98$, $F(4.17)=3.40$, $p=0.01$, partial $\eta^2=0.01$. A separate ANOVA was conducted for each dependent variable, each evaluated at an alpha level of 0.025. There was not a significance level among adulthood stages for depression

$F(2.89)=2.40, \rho=0.09$, partial $\eta^2=0.01$., nor for anxiety $F(2.89)=0.60, \rho=0.55$, partial $\eta^2=0.001$.

Table 5
MANOVA test for adulthood stages regarding depression and anxiety

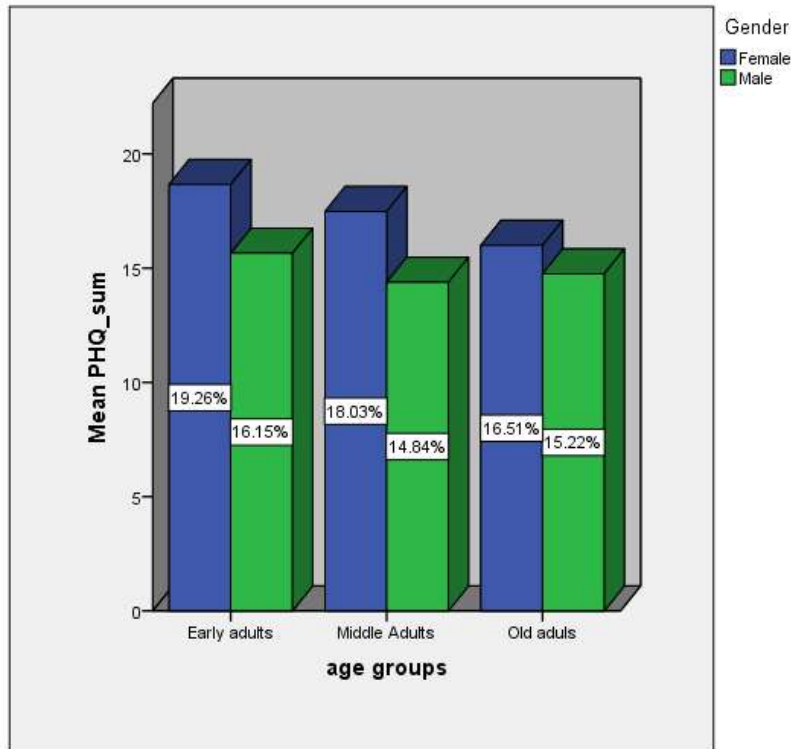
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects							
Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected Model	PHQ_sum	252.995 ^a	2	126.497	2.404	.091	.005
	CPAS_sum	152.301 ^b	2	76.151	.604	.547	.001
Intercept	PHQ_sum	20158.147	1	20158.147	383.033	.000	.299
	CPAS_sum	74931.661	1	74931.661	594.341	.000	.399
AgeG	PHQ_sum	252.995	2	126.497	2.404	.091	.005
	CPAS_sum	152.301	2	76.151	.604	.547	.001
Error	PHQ_sum	47207.045	897	52.628			
	CPAS_sum	113089.459	897	126.075			
Total	PHQ_sum	316406.000	900				
	CPAS_sum	935528.000	900				
Corrected Total	PHQ_sum	47460.040	899				
	CPAS_sum	113241.760	899				

a. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)

b. R Squared = .001 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001)

Figure 1.

Adulthood stage and gender differences regarding depression levels



Looking at the data percentage on the figure1. we can see that male experience greater levels of depression, and especially those that are on early adulthood represented by %=19.26, while females achieve %=16.15 on that life stage. 18 % of Male at middle age adulthood experience depressive symptoms, while 14.84% female experience the same. On the last category of adulthood stage, which is the late adulthood – old male do experience more depression levels than old female’s, exceeding them for 1.29%.

The statistical difference among these means between age and gender differences and the main variables representing the mental health-depression and anxiety, do not exist and on all comparisons we are obliged to accept the null hypothesis. Depression alpha value for females between and within age groups is $\rho=0.33>0.05$; and for male’s is $\rho=3.82>0.05$. Anxiety alpha value for females between and within age groups is $\rho=0.98>0.05$; while for males is $\rho=0.13>0.05$.

Table 6
ANOVA test for gender and age stage differences regarding depression and anxiety

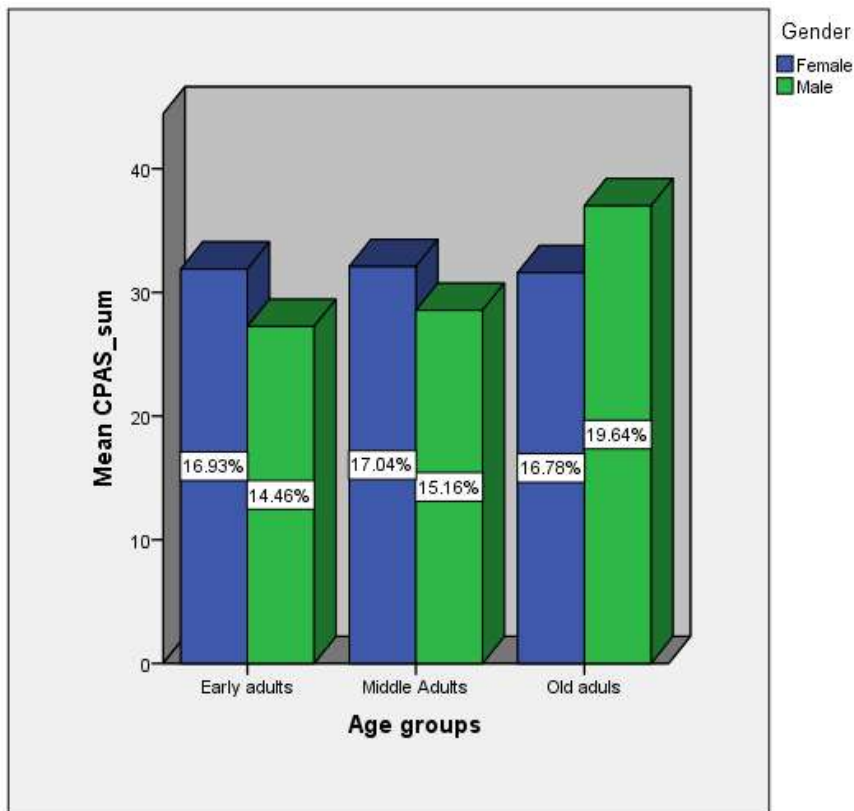
			ANOVA				
Gender			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Female	PHQ_sum	Between Groups	125.536	2	62.768	1.124	.326
		Within Groups	30545.498	547	55.842		
		Total	30671.035	549			
	CPAS_sum	Between Groups	3.312	2	1.656	.013	.987
		Within Groups	71323.322	547	130.390		
		Total	71326.635	549			
Male	PHQ_sum	Between Groups	81.904	2	40.952	.965	.382
		Within Groups	14723.664	347	42.431		
		Total	14805.569	349			
	CPAS_sum	Between Groups	443.543	2	221.771	2.054	.130
		Within Groups	37459.717	347	107.953		
		Total	37903.260	349			

On the graph below we come to controversial findings in comparison to those referring to depression levels (see figure 1). These data show us that female on late adulthood are more anxious than all other respondents in younger life stages (%=19.64). middle adult females are the next scoring with higher levels of anxiety (%=15.16) , leaving behind the youngsters

(%14.46). While on male, the anxiety is shown to be mostly experienced by the middle agers (%17.04), leaving behind old aged male (%=16.78) and youngsters (%=16.93).

Figure 2.

Adulthood stages and gender differences regarding anxiety levels



And the last but not the least results that we have come to discover through the implementation of MANOVA test, show us that divorced middle aged respondents suffer more from depressive symptoms ($M=20.00$) than single, engaged and married people, followed by the engaged in early adult age ($M=19.39$), later on by single ones at early age of adulthood ($M=18.50$) and the last are the married ones at early age of adulthood ($M=16.35$). As for anxiety levels regarding the relationship status plus age stages of life, we came to the next results: the old divorced/widowed participants have achieved the highest mean on anxiety ($M=43.00$), than late adulthood agers that are married take the second place on the anxiety assessment, followed by the early adulthood agers that own the

relationship status as engaged (M=31.02) and the last from the single's category are the middle agers who are still bachelor (M=30.91). The least depressed of all age stages and relationship statuses are the old married people and the less anxious are early adulthood agers who are also married.

4. CONCLUSION

Through the implementation of this research study we were able to come to the following conclusions:

We were able to prove that engaged people have been suffering more from depressive symptoms during the pandemics, followed by the divorced and widowed individuals. While married people have shown lowest points on experiencing this disorder. Anxiety too is mostly detected among divorced/widowed and engaged persons in comparison to single and married one's. Therefore we came to an understanding that being divorced/widowed and engaged are found to be risk factors for depressive and anxiety symptoms.

When looking closely on gender differences regarding relationship status diversity and depression levels, we found out that engaged females show greater levels of depression than all other categories, the same goes for the male population as well, while widowed and divorced tend to exhibit severe anxiety symptoms.

With regard to depressive symptoms, the results were clear that male youngsters (on early adulthood stage) were highly more depressed than middle and late adult agers plus they even exceeded the females on all age stages. Indeed we have been able to prove that male's at all age stages experience higher level of depression than females.

Regarding females age stages and depressive levels we discovered that early adult agers are more depressed than middle and late female agers. While late adult female agers have shown to be the most anxious on all age categories including the comparison with males as well.

Divorced middle-aged participants are the most depressed among the population, while the least depressed were found out to be the late adulthood agers who are married. On the other hand, the most anxious have proven to be the divorced/widowed participants while the least are the early adulthood agers who are married. Taken together married people are more free of depressive symptoms and anxiety in all comparisons and test on this research study, while the most victims of this mental disorders are the engaged, divorced/widowed people.

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