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EDITORIAL

FIFTEEN YEARS OF DEFENDOLOGY
Thirty-first issue …life for truth…

The jubilee fifteen years of Defendology, fifteen years of the Association of defendologists of the Republic of Srpska, which changed its name in 2007 into the Defendology center for security, sociological and criminological research, and which again changed its name in 2011 into European Defendology center for scientific, political, economic, social, security, sociological and criminological research. There is a slow, thorough and confident shift towards global expert and scientific network of European and scientific knowledge, science and knowledge in general. The introduction of the first issue, of your and our journal Defendology, from fifteen years ago, contains the title Journal of new age, where among other things there is a quote which says: ...“In front of you is a journal, the first of this kind in the Republic of Srpska and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. This journal represents a testament of those people who have stayed with their people and shared the good and bad in these turbulent times. We are committed to investing into our own intellect, for the intellect of others is expensive. The subject of the journal is and will be our past, present and the future. The issue of Balkanization processes, late politogenesis on this territory, the issue of outside actors, foreigners on the Balkans, the state of “armed peace” and “balance of fear”, are questions which require founded answers. The first issue actually shows the width of the topics the journal encompasses, the agendas of multidisciplinary character, such as the military and police in multi-party legal countries, martial courts, the antimony of war and peace, IT and contemporary movements, special war, terrorism as the problem of new age, causing and managing of crises and many other. We think that any other journal, including this one, can be put in order but not perfected into infinity. Our journal is of free spirit, multidisciplinary in its character, accessible to everybody. The debut stands in front of you.” Therefore, then, fifteen years ago, the scientific team of the Defendology center saw what others could not see, it had a precise, objective and true vision and mission which is still valid and sought today. Defendology journal remains true to its program orientation, which is multidisciplinary in its nature. Topics such as: organized crime, traumatic stress, strategic approach to management of human resources, functioning of prison and resocialization of convicted persons, social support and unemployment, and the economy of transitional countries and reforms, have marked the 31st issue of the journal Defendology and crowned the jubilee of 15 years of existence, duration, challenging and annual publishing. To be able to, to know and to want to, are the guarantees for the future of Defendology, which in a cultural and scientific way contributes to general wealth, development, existence and prosperity of the Republic of Srpska. As for the future of international relations and security, basic principles and postulates, which they are based on, Defendology will try to keep up with expert and scientific achievements, and with realistic movements, tendencies and trends. Of course, special attention will be given to the state, roads and perspectives of the
Republic of Srpska and Bosnia and Herzegovina. This is a huge commitment and obligation, a difficult task. Difficult, because here, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, we are incapable of communication. Education is collapsing, especially higher education, which is destroying national integrity and dignity. Education needs to restore its reputation. We need really educated people and not formally educated people (certified ignorant people), we need the wise and educated, because a true dialogue and way of thinking and living in the Republic of Srpska and Bosnia and Herzegovina should result in absence of dogmas among thinkers, fanatics among religious believers, and tyrants among politicians. Resistance to a critical way of thinking should be reduced, abolished, and open doors to free opinions provided by the Constitution, freedom of speech, freedom of scientific work. Scientific associates and friends of Defendology did, are doing and will continue doing this, and the results so far show that the journal Defendology is in the first category of classified national journals in the Republic of Srpska. Let the fair-play competition continue. Everyone has a chance, and differences are thus best perceived. Let the differences be wealth…, because the more diversity there is the greater the selection…

Editor-in-Chief
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ORGANIZED CRIME
ABSTRACT:

Organized criminality, as a criminal phenomenon, is definitely a subject of scientific research. Many sciences are involved in the research of the problem of organized criminality. For instance, criminology studies organized criminality from an aspect of its etiology and phenomenology (statics, dynamics and typology), criminal/legal sciences from an aspect of criminal incriminations of behaviour and other activities that create organized criminality (for example, an organization of a criminal group), as well as procedural aspects of suppression of organized criminality. Criminalistics is involved in the application and finding of new methods and means to oppose (in preventive and repressive ways) organized criminality. Also, the problem of organized criminality is scientifically observed from the aspect of other sciences, such as sociology, political sciences, security sciences etc. Therefore, it is clear that the subject of the scientific research of organized criminality is multidisciplinary one. It is for this reason that there is a need to systemize coherent knowledge by establishing a scientific discipline that would have organized criminality as its subject of research. In that regard, in this paper we will discuss the outlining of a teaching subject called Organized Criminality and its relationship with related teaching subjects and disciplines.

Key words: organized criminality, scientific research, criminology, criminalistics, criminal law, criminal procedural law.

INTRODUCTION

In the context of general negative social manifestations organized criminality takes up a special place concerning its presence and a trend of constant expansion, including its tendency to express itself through new manifestations with a high degree of organization, secrecy and internationalization, adapting itself to socio-economic and political relations...
of every country. Organized criminality, as such, appears in all countries, in those well developed and constituted, and those socially unstable and disorganized ones, with organized criminality equally affecting the state and its constitution and social and private interests of its citizens, including their lives, through the use of various forms of violence\(^3\).

Issues of suppression of organized criminality have been actualized in the last several decades on a global level; however, it is of great importance to suppress it institutionally on a country’s internal level. In that context, there are many international conventions, declarations and other international legal acts citing the necessity to suppress organized criminality, as well as appropriate measures and actions, i.e. recommendations for the suppression of organized criminality on an international level\(^4\), including numerous national laws and bylaws for the suppression of organized criminality on a national (state) level. Also, there are joint activities of some countries in the field of the fight against organized criminality, reflected as various projects and initiatives such as „Budapest Project“, „Albanian-Balkans Initiative“, „Bridge Project“ etc., whose goals are to establish communication between states, collect information about organized criminality, create joint operational groups etc., as well as exchange of information on efficiency and success of modern methods for discovery and investigation of criminal acts of organized criminality (Sikman, 2011).

In regard to the above said we can identify a necessity to research a phenomenon of organized criminality in order to successfully and efficiently react to this extremely dangerous and harmful social occurrence.

**ORGANIZED CRIMINALITY AS SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINE**

Starting from the aforesaid established facts, the problem of organized criminality must be scientifically studied too, in order to obtain systematized, objective and substantiated knowledge about organized criminality. In that context we can discuss essential constituents of organized criminality as a scientific discipline: a subject of organized criminality, theory and attitudes with coherent scientific facts, methods for the cognition of a subject and language, i.e. a conceptual-categorial apparatus used to explain the subject of a research (Šikman, 2011).

* A subject of organized criminality, as scientific discipline, is a phenomenological and etiological dimension of organized criminality, as well as methods for the suppression of organized criminality. The phenomenological dimension of organized criminality encompasses the statics and dynamics of organized criminality and its typology too. Etiology of organized criminality observes the conditions and causes that lead to manifestation and expansion of organized criminality. Methods of fighting organized criminality represent the totality of preventive and repressive measures and actions used to suppress and control organized criminality, viewed from criminal, procedural

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3 As an illustration of this ascertainment it is enough to cite a fact that 1,000 new organized criminal groups were identified in 2000 in Europe alone, i.e. according to Europol there were about 4,000 organized criminal groups in the EU in 2002, with approximately 40,000 members (Bejatovic, 2005).

4 The best example is *the Convention of the United Nations against Transnational organized Criminality* adopted in Palermo in 2000 and three additional protocols (*the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air; and the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition dated 31 May 2001*) which supplement the aforesaid convention.
and criminalistic aspect. However, efficient opposition to organized criminality cannot be realized through the sole application of classical methods but it is necessary to use contemporary methods based on scientific and technical achievements that must be procedurally permitted, which is logical considering the fact that organized criminality uses the accomplishments of other sciences as the method of its criminal functioning (Bošković, 2004). Namely, better results cannot be achieved with the use of traditional criminalistic methods, i.e. operational-tactical and investigative actions in the discovery and investigation of criminal acts of organized criminality. That is why it is necessary to institutionalize and apply modern methods for the discovery and investigation of criminal offence of organized criminality. There is a fact to support this understanding that modern methods in the opposition to organized criminality are greatly used throughout the world, both in theory and in practice, and that the success in the discovery and investigation of criminal offences of organized criminality is evident and obvious.

Theory and attitudes with coherent scientific facts represent a system of basic general and special knowledge and attitudes about organized criminality, which are not only systematized but communicated by them (theories and attitudes) as well. Most of researches on organized criminality have a criminological and criminal/legal character, which is logical concerning the subject of the research. These researches are especially dominant with some authors such as: Howard Abadinsky, Jay Albanese, Joseph Albini, Alan Block, William Chambliss, Donald Cressy, Michael Maltz, Ernesto Savona, Klaus von Lampe, James Finckenauer, John Conklin, Günther Kaiser, Frank Hagan, and from our speaking area the works that stand out are the ones by Đorđe Ignjatović (Serbia), Mićo Bošković (Serbia), Milan Škulic (Serbia), Darko Marinković (Serbia), Bojan Dobovšek (Slovenia), Metodije Angelski (Macedonia), Željko Sačić (Croatia) and many others. There is a consensus among these authors concerning the key features of organized criminality such as corruption, violence, perfidiousness and covertness, continuity (a tendency towards the longest possible operations), structure, discipline, variousness of criminal organizations, non-ideological commitment, highly developed distribution of work (planned activity) and participation in legitimate business. For instance, Abadinsky starts from non-ideological character of criminal organizations and highly developed distribution of work – so highly developed that the way of organization could serve as a model for better operations of legitimate companies (Abadinsky, 2002). Albanese and Hagan claim that the key feature of organized crime is corruption, which enables its functioning for a long time, parallel to legitimate state institutions (Albanese, 2002; Hagan, 2010). Conklin accepts such attitude, stressing the ability of those kinds of criminal organizations to survive and last from generation to generation (Conklin, 2010). However, if we observe contemporary methods of opposition to organized criminality we come to a conclusion that they are most developed and most frequent in the scientific literature of the Western countries, the United States of America above all. It is relatively new theoretical trend which observes the opposition to organized criminality from an aspect of use of contemporary methods of discovery and investigation of criminal offences of organized criminality. Also, in the contemporary contemplation on organized criminality, as opposed to security oriented authors who perceive criminality as a threat to liberal democracy, economical stability and possibilities for the suppression of organized crime, American scientist Louise Shelley deems that the perception of organized criminality should be focused on changes in the society which are necessary for the development of strong institutions. She thinks that organized criminality represents the new, non-
state form of authoritarianism and that organized criminality, as well as traditional authoritarianism, influences all social aspects, including economical relations, political structures, legal institutions, state-population relations and human rights (Shelley, 1997).

As for the earlier research on organized criminality in our region, the first papers on this form of criminality appeared in our literature in the nineties of the twentieth century and the first monographs on the subject were published in 1998 by the Police Academy in Belgrade. Since then, there have been more papers in this field which may be categorized in several categories. Most of them are about organized criminality through the interpretation of normative of positive criminal law which refers to its control and the specifics of actions of formal social control bodies (primarily the police). The following group is dedicated to the protection of human rights in that process and the third to transnational organized criminality (Ignjatović, 2005). Besides, the scientific research of these issues has become very actualized over the last few years, what is reflected through the individual work of researchers on writing master’s and doctor’s theses, as well as through the group scientific research work in scientific research projects etc.

The method of subject cognition comprises scientific methods of social and natural sciences, adjusted to the cognitive need of the subject of studies and its conceptual-categorical means, with the purpose of representing coherent unit with other constituents of this discipline of science for thorough access to the research of organized criminality and methods for its suppression. Hence, there are universal scientific methods used, such as: analytical-synthetic method (analysis, synthesis, dialectical analytical-synthetic method), inductive-deductive method (induction, deduction, dialectic inductive-deductive method), definition and classification, other general scientific methods (observation, description, measuring, comparison, experiments), as well as other methods for collecting data (modelling and model experiment method, statistical method, historical-comparative method, document analysis method, method of respondent interview, etc.)

Also, there are special methods of related sciences used for the needs of studying this research subject (methods formed in certain science or its branch), such as methods of criminology, criminalistics, criminal law, sociology, security sciences etc. Besides all the aforementioned, it is important to look back on the method-technical part, whose purpose is to render relevant knowledge on an immediate implementation of scientific method (techniques, procedures, instruments) in the research practice. With this part, the methods are further specified (adjusted, concretised), depending on the cognitive nature of the research subject (organized criminality). In this particular part, the methods are recognized as special (individual) methods of this scientific discipline. That is the way to reach to specific method, regardless of its multi-scientific implementation.

Nevertheless, collecting relevant information and data on organized criminality is faced with many problems, including significant methodological problems (Rawlinson, 1999). Some previously conducted researches on organized criminality indicate the existence of challenges which are non-existent in some other areas of criminological studies (Finckenauer, Waring, 1995). Although parallel research of organized criminality trends represents the challenge for research and analysis, it is not well developed yet. Parallel studies of characteristics of organized criminality in various societies are very rare.

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The language of this scientific discipline is a cognitive-categorical apparatus that precisely and clearly researches, systematizes, classifies and explains the subject of research. The lingual determinateness is required to comprehend the lingual sense in which certain symbols, terms and language sources are used. The meaning of all terms must be exactly determined if they have one, single, meaning, especially if they are ambiguous and precisely determined in their meaning and consequently used in the same sense. It is necessary to strive toward the objective meaning and general adoption and avoid random and subjective understandings. Special difficulty in the process of developing the language of the scientific discipline which we study is an abundance of synonyms, homonyms, foreign words and acronyms, amongst which is necessary to find adequate terms for related terms and their practical correlates. The difficulty is also frequent alteration of terms, when all these (alterations) must be taken into consideration, i.e. must be exactly determined. Finally, without neglecting other semantic criteria, it is necessary to follow the criteria of literature and vocational language, because that is the way to preserve the real meaning of terms and their place in coherent cognitive-categorical meaning of this scientific discipline (Šikman, 2011).

ORGANIZED CRIMINALITY AS A TEACHING SUBJECT

Organized Criminality, as a teaching subject in higher education institutions, has become a trend in the last couple of years. This trend was followed by some universities in the Republic of Srpska. As a special teaching subject Organized Criminality is taught at the Advanced School of Internal Affairs in Banja Luka, as well as at the Faculty of Security and Protection in Banja Luka. Organized criminality rose as a necessity in the teaching of actual issues of preventing and discovering criminal activities in the field of organized criminality and corruption. The starting point was that efficient confrontation to organized criminality is impossible to realize by means of classical methods only; it is necessary to use contemporary methods, based on scientific and technical achievements, which must be approved by the process, which is logical since the organized criminality uses the achievements of other scientific branches as the methods of criminal activities. Due to that, the aim of teaching this subject is to familiarize students with basic terms on organized crime, key international and domestic material and procedural provisions which regulate the issues, structure, organization and forms of organized criminal groups’ actions, as well as methods and means for preventive and repressive actions of formal social control subjects in the prevention and suppression of organized criminality.

The basic mission of this subject would be to gain adequate level of knowledge, thus enabling students to, along with an adequate practical training, apply methods and knowledge of criminal methodology in discovering, solving and proving criminal offences of organized criminality. The curriculum for this subject is adjusted to realization of this subject’s aim and mission. In accordance with that, the teaching subject should include: the term and the definition of organized criminality, problems of defining organized criminality, institutional and extra-institutional definitions of organized criminality,

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6 The curriculum displayed in the paper is the one of the subject Organized Criminality, which is, under the same name, taught at the aforesaid college institutions. The author of this paper is a professor on this subject, teaching at the Advanced School of Internal Affairs and Faculty of Security and Protection in Banja Luka.
characteristics of organized criminality and etiological and phenomenal dimension of organized criminality. Besides that, the curriculum should also include the overview of the relation between organized criminality, corruption and “white collar” criminality, relation between organized criminality and terrorism, relation between organized criminality and other forms of criminality. The curriculum should comprise the actions of organized criminality related to narcotics (world narcotic smuggling trends, narcotic smuggling trends in the Republic of Srpska), smuggling as an action of organized criminality (smuggling of weapons and ammunition, smuggling and illicit trade of cultural goods, smuggling and illicit trade of other valuable goods), human trafficking as an action of organized criminality (human trafficking for the purpose of prostitution, children trafficking for the purpose of child pornography and prostitution, human organs trade, smuggling migrants), organized criminality in economical-financial area, money laundering as an action of organized criminality, violence in organized criminality, organized vehicle thefts and corruption as an action of organized criminality.

The other part of this subject curriculum should cover the criminal law, criminal procedural and criminalistic approach in the suppression of organized criminality. The items considered were criminal acts of organized criminality from the aspect of criminal law, procedural aspects of the opposition to organized criminality, as well as strategic approach and strategic analysis of organized criminality, criminalistic-intelligence work in the opposition to criminality, as well as criminalistic approach in the suppression organized criminality which includes basic cognitive sources and measures for criminal acts of organized criminality, basic indicative facts that point out to the existence of criminal acts of organized crime, implementation of indicative method in solving and proving criminal acts of organized criminality, criminalistic and tactical measures and activities in the opposition to organized criminality. There are specially prepared contemporary methods for the discovery and investigation of criminal acts of organized criminality in the RS and BiH, as well as international legal grounds for the implementation of special investigational techniques, comparative demonstration of contemporary methods of the discovery and investigation of criminal acts of organized criminality in other countries and legal regulation for the implementation of special investigational actions in the Republic of Srpska and BiH including: telecommunication equipment for surveillance and technical recording, access to computer systems and computer data comparison, surveillance and technical recording of premises, secret trailing and technical recording of persons, undercover investigator and informer, simulation of purchase of goods and simulation of ransom and monitored transport and delivery of goods.

The teaching subject Organized Criminality is realized through theoretical teaching, theoretical and practical exercises, consultations, papers, partial exams and final exams.

THE RELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZED CRIMINALITY AS A TEACHING SUBJECT AND OTHER RELATED TEACHING SUBJECTS

Organized Criminality, as a teaching subject, is closely connected to related subjects. This relation may be considered as an immediate one with subjects from the area of criminalistic science, as well as indirect relation with other subjects, firstly with those from the area of legal (criminal law and criminology) science. In that context, it is necessary to consider the relation between Organized Criminality and Criminalistics
(tactics, techniques, methodology, operations, and strategy), Criminal Law, Criminal Procedural Law and Criminology. This relation should be considered starting from the research subject of the specific scientific discipline which is Organized Criminality (phenomenological and etiological dimension of organized criminality, as well as methods for the suppression of organized criminality), theory and aspects with coherent scientific facts on organized criminality, subject cognition methods and the language of this scientific discipline, as well as the curriculum of this teaching subject (the aim of this subject), and its connection with the alleged scientific teaching subjects.

**The relation between Organized Criminality and Criminalistics** – Criminalistics is a science that studies, adjusts and perfects the most adequate methods and procedures, with the purpose of discovering and solving criminal offences, discover a perpetrator, collect and provide material and personal evidence, all this with an aim of establishing the truth, successful start and finalization of a criminal procedure, as well as with a goal of preventing criminal offences. In its practice, Criminalistics uses its empirical methods, but also the methods of other sciences adjusted to its needs, thus, through adjustment and perfection, giving them the criminalistic character (Krivokapić, 1996). Criminalistics with its disciplines (criminalistic tactics, techniques, methodology and operations) studies and perfects methods of discovery, investigation and proving of all criminal offences, thereby criminal offences of organized criminality. Newer tendencies in the sphere of criminality, above all the expansion of organized criminality, as well as the development of science and technology (primarily computer technology), influenced the inclusion in the term of organized criminality, one that has the key role in the opposition to organized criminality of which more details will be given in the further text. Criminalistic methods implemented in the operational actions of the discovery and investigation of criminal offences of organized criminality stipulate the most efficient and the most rational ways of performing operational and tactical actions taken by the police agencies thus harmonising their actions with basic criminalistic principles as well as “golden issues of criminalistics”, according to operational and tactical situation and all this with an aim of quicker reaction in discovering and solving criminal offences of organized criminality, its perpetrators and reaching the truth as an elementary goal of criminal tactics, i.e. operational criminalistics as well as prevention of criminal activities.

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7 Criminalistic tactics represent the basic fundamental part of Criminalistics that studies and perfects the general criminalistic rules and working methods with the aim of its practical implementation during the supression of criminality, i.e. with the aim of detecting and solving criminal offences, as well as its prevention. (Krivokapić, 1996).
8 Criminalistic techniques are part of Criminalistics and deal with the perfection and implementation of exact scientific and technical methods for the registration and identification of persons and goods and discovering, fixating and interpreting the material trails with the aim of supressing criminality, detecting perpetrators and solving criminal actions and events (Maksimović, Todorović, 1995).
9 Criminalistic methodology is a discipline of criminalistics that investigates and studies the specifics, which is valid for discovery, investigation and solving of certain type of criminal offences (Bosković, 1998b).
10 Criminalistic operations, as a discipline of Criminalistics which studies operational work, can be viewed in broader or narrower sense. The term of operational work in its broader sense encompasses all criminalistic tactical and technical actions and measures, investigative actions, special investigative techniques and operational connections, while in narrower sense from all the aforesaid criminalistic measures and actions carried out by the police includes only special investigative techniques i.e. special investigative actions and operational connections that are approved in a special procedure, with the police authorized for its application (Bošković, Matijević, 2007).
Relation between Organized Criminality and Criminal Law – It is a common thing to comprehend Criminal Law in a unique way, by combining its material and formal components. In that respect, Criminal Law represents the system of legal regulations that foresee criminal acts and criminal sanctions for perpetrators of those acts, with the aim of protecting certain social relations (Čejović, 2006). The subject of criminal law defined in this way is comprised of three elements: criminal offence, its perpetrator and criminal sanction. The purpose of Criminal Law is the suppression of criminality, i.e. as efficient as possible, protection of certain social relations, goods and values from violating or endangering behaviours (Stojanović, 2002). In accordance with conceptual determination of crime, its object and goals, we may also observe criminal/legal aspects of organized criminality. In that sense we can speak of criminal offences of organized criminality, being the offences that in their total make up organized criminality i.e. criminal offences that have features of organized criminality; forms of collaboration that manifest the execution of individual criminal offences of organized criminality and criminal sanctions for the perpetrators of criminal offences of organized criminality. Criminal offences that in their total make up organized criminality represent its primary criminal essence, while the forms of collaboration that manifest the execution of individual criminal offences of organized criminality represent criminal/legal manifestations of demonstration i.e. immediate realization of that essence (Škulić, 2003). A criminal sanction for the perpetrators of criminal offences of organized criminality should be added to this relation, as an appropriate social reaction to committed criminal offences that display features of organized criminality.

A relation of Organized Criminality and Criminal Procedural Law – criminal procedural law can be observed from several aspects, which conceptual determination of criminal procedural law depends on. In that regard, we may speak of criminal procedural law as a branch of legislation, we can also speak of criminal procedural law as a branch of positive legislation that regulates criminal procedure and, finally, we can speak of Criminal Procedural Law as a science. Determination of criminal procedural law as a branch of legislation can be defined as a collection of legal regulations which proscribe judicial acts, their form and internal value, and specify special subjects as executors of those acts and their legal position (the concept of criminal procedural law with criminal procedural act). Besides that, criminal procedural law can be defined as a system of legal regulations which determine criminal procedural subjects and regulate their criminal procedural relations for the purpose of clearing up and resolution of criminal matter and criminal/legal protection of the society, i.e. state (the term of criminal procedural law and criminal procedural relation). Finally, there is a definition of criminal procedural law which defines it as criminal procedural law with judicial act and criminal procedural relation. In that sense, criminal procedural law can be defined as a system of legal regulations which determine criminal procedural subjects, regulates the content and form of their activities and criminal procedural relations for the purpose of clearing up and resolution of criminal matter and criminal/legal protection of the society i.e. state from criminality (Milosevic, Stevanović, 1997).

Based on the aforesaid, criminal procedural aspects of organized criminality, i.e. procedural aspects of the opposition to organized criminality can be viewed from the aspect of basic elements or features of criminal procedural law as follows: criminal procedural subjects, judicial act, criminal procedural relation and subject of criminal procedural law. When we discuss the relation of organized criminality and criminal procedural law, we can
speak of procedural aspect of the opposition to organized criminality, while some authors insist that with the creation of quality criminal procedural mechanisms and provisions of other branches of law we can obtain certain, very significant results in the suppression of organized criminality. However, the characteristics of organized criminality, its etiological roots and phenomenological features, together with some specifics of the modern society and ruling legal systems, enable, to a certain extent, the control and possible reduction of organized criminality to the lowest possible level, but without the possibility to fully eliminate it in any case (Škulić, 2003). Just the insistence on such attitude reflects the essence of criminal procedural aspects of organized criminality. It means that with the use of criminal procedural mechanisms, intended for criminal offences of organized criminality, we can make a decisive move in the opposition to organized criminality, while the further opposition to this occurrence should be continued on an international level, with joint activities of several states, and with wide social reaction.

Relating Organized Criminality and Criminology – Criminology can be defined as a science that, by using the knowledge and research procedures of human and social sciences, empirically studies criminal phenomenon, i.e. crime, its perpetrator and victim, criminality and the way the society reacts to criminal behaviour (Ignjatović, 1998b). From such definition it follows that criminology is independent, unique and synthetic science of theoretical-empirical character, marked by its interdisciplinarity and multidisciplinarity. The topic of criminology is crime, crime perpetrator, victim and criminality (as a totality of crime in specific time and spatial dimensions). Significant part of criminology refers to three dimensions of criminal phenomenon: the first one, phenomenological dimension of criminal manifestation, the second one, etiological dimension of criminal manifestation, and the third one, victimological dimension of criminal manifestation. Phenomenological dimension of criminal manifestation comprises data on criminality (statics and dynamics of criminality), structure of criminality and typology of criminality. Etiological dimension of criminal manifestation, usually causality in criminology, is explained by the interaction of factors of criminal behaviour which are external (ambiental) factors and internal (individual) factors. Finally, the victimological dimension of criminal phenomenon considers this phenomenon from the victim’s angle, including the consensual criminal acts (a delict without victims). In that regard, criminological aspects of studying organized criminality comprise its phenomenological, etiological and victimological dimension. Phenomenological dimension of organized criminality is when it’s considered from the aspect of behavioural structure which we mark as organized criminality, alterations of that structure and types of organized criminality manifestations. In that context, we can speak about statics and dynamics of organized criminality, as well as about the typology of its manifestations. Hence we may form a perception about the manifestations of organized criminality and attempt to resolve one part of its criminological phenomenon (besides etiological and victimological). In practice, there are certain forms of organized criminality manifestations already profiled (drugs smuggling, human trafficking, cyber crime, etc.), which primarily have transnational character which makes this form of criminality especially dangerous. Also, organized criminal groups are more and more diverse in terms of organization, ranging from traditional hierarchical criminal groups to organized network types. Etiological dimension of organized criminality is considering causes and conditions suitable for the origination and development of organized criminality. These studies (etiological) are especially significant if one bears in mind the capability of adjusting to socio-economic changes in the society (Šikman, 2011).
CONCLUSION

Establishing the new scientific discipline is not at all and easy and simple task. On the contrary, it is a long and difficult journey that needs all the knowledge methodically collected and systematically processed in the specific area of scientific research, such as criminal phenomenon of organized criminality. On that journey, it is necessary to provide the uniqueness of discoveries and proofs, methods and systems, investigations and declarations, objectively, logically substantiated and systematised knowledge on legalities, facts, causes and manifestations in reality, gained and confirmed through exact observation, repeated experiments and valid contemplation about organized criminality. Besides, it is required to establish the theoretical concept of collecting and processing data that enables the presentation of ideas and results in a way that the others can repeat and confirm them independently. Finally, realisation of scientific researches on the problem of organized criminality that should provide answers to many questions, as well as contribute to the creation of scientific theories on this crime phenomena, is especially important.

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CONFLICTS
AND TRAUMATIC STRESS
A REVIEW OF THE CURRENT CLINICAL LITERATURE ON TRAUMATIC STRESS SINCE THE GULF AND BALKAN WARS

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Abstract: The clinical definition of traumatic stress has changed since it first surfaced in 1980 in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual – Third Edition (DSM-III). These differences not only reflect the changing United States combat situation in Iraq and Afghanistan but how trauma affects civilians caught up in war, terrorism or natural disasters as well. Our meta-analysis looks at the different focuses of Western societies relevant to two different scenarios – the on-going Gulf War versus the Balkan Wars – both which began in the early 1990s and continue to the present as either full-fledged wars or as “peacekeeping” missions.

INTRODUCTION:

New dimensions of traumatic stress have surfaced since the classification of the Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) first appeared in 1980 in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders – Third Edition (DSM-III). The DSM-III, PTSD classification was mainly a response to a large number of impaired Vietnam veterans plaguing mental health facilities in the United States, notably Veterans Administration hospitals. While Vietnam, as well as the aging Korean Conflict and World War II, veterans still comprised a significant portion of clients seeking treatment for PTSD, new dimensions of this anxiety classification have emerged based on a wider array of traumatic events effecting both combat and civilian clients alike. Civilian trauma includes disasters such as hurricanes, floods, earthquakes and since, (09/11/01) – terrorist attacks. Trauma associated with military service has changed dramatically with the advent of extended tours of duty and the hazards of suicide bombings and unsuspected roadside IED (improvised explosive devices) attacks. Moreover, more females now serve in the U.S. military, many serving in Iraq and Afghanistan, resulting in more causality within this population as well as a greater incidence of reports of sexual abuse. Another post-Vietnam era conflict, involving

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U.S. forces within the umbrella of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), was the Balkan Wars (1991-1999). Here, war was waged among the member states of the former Yugoslavia from 1991 until 1999 with peacekeeping forces still engaged in Bosnia-Herzegovina, Serbia and Kosovo. This conflict was the worst conflict Europe has experienced since the end of World War II. Thus the Balkan war provides insights into civilian as well as military victims of war-related trauma.

**DIMENSIONS OF COMBAT STRESS**

– USA & COALITION FORCES

For the United States the Gulf Wars differed from previous major conflicts, including the Second World War, the Korean Conflict and the Vietnam War, in that the Gulf Wars did not rely on the draft and instead were fought using the “all-volunteer” military. While this was not a problem during the short First Gulf War, it did place a considerable strain on the Second Gulf War fought in Iraq and Afghanistan. Greater reliance on the National Guard and Reserve units coupled with multiple deployments and extensions led to a multitude of social and psychological problems. Added to this mix is a vague distinction between “combat” and “peacekeeping” roles, especially with the National Guard personnel, which, for the first time, saw the largest deployment of female military personnel into a war zone. The use of suicide bombers and improvised explosive devices (IEDs) brought the potential for attacks and death and injuries to all coalition forces regardless of their role as infantry, transportation, trainers or military police. All in all, these circumstances led to a heightened level of hypervigilance and, consequently, stress among all those deployed to either Iraq or Afghanistan.

**DIMENSIONS OF THE BALKAN WARS**

Clearly, the actions of the international community, including most members of NATO, did much to ignite the Balkan Wars that, in turn, allowed for the rise of ultra-nationalist leaders, who, by most accounts, did not represent the majority of their populace. In the end, the International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia (ICTY) indicted these ultra-nationalists including Alija Izetbegović, the ultra-Bosniak leader of BiH; Franjo Tudman, ultra-Catholic Croat; Slobodan Milošević, ultra-Orthodox Serb; Radovan Karadžić, ultra-Bosnian Serb; Ramush Haradinaj, ultra-Kosovo Albanian; and Ejup Ganić, ultra-Bosniak from BiH. And charges continue to surface including those against Hashim Thaci, leader of the KLA and Kosovo Prime Minister in 2010 for organ trafficking (human organs taken from prisoners during the 1996-1999 conflict). Another area of concern is the issue of forced prostitution for the pleasure of the international forces stationed throughout the former Yugoslavia.

A conservative estimate is that over 100,000 people died, both combatants and civilians, in these conflicts with another million displaced from their traditional homes, many placed in concentration camps or prisons where tens of thousands, both men and women, were subjected to sexual assaults, starved or beaten. Thousands still remain missing. Over 30,000 mine fields remain active today, many located around Sarajevo.
resulting in continued deaths and injuries inflicting mostly against children and youth. The trauma associated with these conflicts transcends ethnicity or sectarianism – affecting all those involved: Muslims/Bosniaks; Orthodox/Serbs and Bosnians; Catholic Croats/Bosnians and Roma. The dire economic situation in these struggling, emerging states leaves many of these victims and their families untreated resulting in increased social ills, including suicides. While recent efforts have been made by the leaders of Croatia and Serbia to reduce the intensity of sectarianism by publically apologizing for their country’s role in the Balkan Wars, inter-group hostilities continued to be fuelled by the indictments and trials conducted or supervised by the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY). While these are obviously socio-political issues, treatment needs are the same regardless of one’s national, religious or ethnic identification.

METHODS:

Our research involved reviewing the current literature, notably English and Slavic-language professional journals, in order to discern newer dimensions of traumatic stress from the traditional Vietnam veterans’ studies. The literature search produced some 430 responses. Twenty (20) of the responses were books (16 English; four Slavic) while the rest were journal articles. Sixty-three (63) of the English-language articles addressed trauma issues afflicting post-Vietnam veterans, mainly those involved in the first Gulf War or the current conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan. Ninety-six (96) of the articles pertained to the Balkan Wars (1991-1999) including the current NATO (mainly U.S.) peacekeeping forces. Eighty-four (84) were in Slavic-language journals while the remaining twelve (12) were in English-language journals: ten (10) in U.S. journals and two in British journals. The remaining articles continued to address the Vietnam veteran’s cohort. Further content analysis indicated forty-two (42) of the journal articles addressed traumatic stress assessment protocols. Two were in the Slavic-language journals while the rest were found in the English-language journals. And twenty-four (24) of the journal articles focused on neuro-physiological and/or psycho-pharmacologic issues related to traumatic stress. All were in English-language journals (22 in U.S. journals; and one each in British and Canadian journals).

CONTENT ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH VERSUS SLAVIC-LANGUAGE ARTICLES

The content of the English-language journals (U.S., British, and Canadian) focused mainly on combat trauma; its assessment and treatment. The discussion of scales designed to measure traumatic stress focused mainly on five instruments: the Cardiff Traumatic Scale (Bisson, et al., 2003; Eisson, et al., 2003); the Army Post-Deployment Reintegration Scale (Blais, et al., 2009); the Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS) (Blake, et al. 1995; Charney, et al. 2007); and the Mississippi Scale for combat-related PTSD (Inkelas, et al., 2000); and the Primary Care PTSD Screen (PC-PTSD) (Prins, et al., 2004). A sampling of the topics addressing new dimensions on treatment focused mainly on psychopharmacological approaches based on recently discovered neuro-

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PENOLOGY
FUNCTIONING OF PRISON
AND RESOCIALIZATION OF CONVICTS

Nebojša Macanović

Abstract: Prison is an «artificial creation» which has its own rules, regulations, principles and behaviour standards. A system like that is focused on the purpose of punishment and resocialization of convicts. However, it is evident that today in prisons the purpose of punishment is strongly connected to the relation between the formal and informal system. That relation mainly depends on numerous factors which affect psychological atmosphere in prison.

The main goal of this paper is to present the specificity and mutual interconnection of these two systems, and their role in functioning of prison and influence on resocialization of convicts.

Key words: the formal and informal system, resocialization, psychological atmosphere, educational treatment

INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of institutions for execution of criminal sanctions is to deal with education and resocialization of convicts. That goal defines society in its normative system and prescribes certain mechanisms for implementation in practice. However, functioning of prison and execution of institutional educational treatment depends on the relation of the formal and informal system. Also, psychological atmosphere in prison depends on the relation of these two systems. There are many exogenous and endogenous factors in correctional institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina which influence the formal and informal system, but also the functioning of prison. It is for these reasons that we will present in this paper the basic characteristics of the formal and informal system, as well as the factors that have the strongest influence on them.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FORMAL AND INFORMAL SYSTEM

All correctional institutions have formal organization (defined by law) or system to perform its basic function. The formal system is based on prison personnel and normative system (Criminal Sanction Law and Prison house rules). This is artificially created community with direct tasks: formal regulation of behaviour and intermediation in reactions to external world. It is defined through mechanism of constraint, formalism,
routine, templates of behaviour, inertia and formal authority. The work of all departments and manager of correctional institution is focused on convicts who are distributed in educational groups, for more efficient functioning of the institution. Basic functions and tasks of institutions are: realisation of educational treatment, managing external order and internal security, surveillance, satisfying different physical, psychological and other needs, etc. In order to perform these tasks, relevant and trained personnel is crucial, which means: educators who deal with education of prisoners, guards who take care of security, administrative personnel who deal with financial and legal matters, and different technical staff. Also, inside the formal system exists system of standardizes behavior, defined by regulations that represent legal frame for functioning of the institution and achieving its goals.

The legal-formal system defines the conditions of prisoners, their rights and responsibilities, which should be compliant with educational goals. Formal organization of penitentiary institutions represents a designed scheme for coordinated connection of numerous different activities, which make up the general complex of its tasks. The advantage of the system of formal organization lies in the fact that it uses the normative system and many other means for achieving the main task of the institution, as well as problems that appear in performing this task. Means used for creating pressure on prisoners to respect regime rules are numerous and different. There are disciplinary measures, surveillance of prisoners, rewards for good behavior, etc.

This, however, does not mean that there is also the informal system of prisoners, inside these same institutions. The existence of this system is considered a reality, in the same way that reality and prisons are themselves. Inside the informal system informal groups appear. “Informal groups often appear inside a formal group, because the formal group can not satisfy different individual motives and interests. Informal groups are called, by some authors, social groups of residual. This name explains the fact that the informal group covers those motives and interests which are not covered by the membership in the formal group” (Milosavljević, 2001: 62).

The informal system is based on convicts and their mutual relationship in a limited space. It is defined by informal forms of behaviour caused by deprivation of freedom and conditions of life and work inside prison, but also by the struggle of prisores for status, which leads to informal authorities. Although informal, and as such in opposition to the formal system based on its goals and purpose, this system also has a useful function, which comes out of human need to express individuality and reality of “ME”, even in a social environment such as prison. The informal system and its structure represent a reaction of prisoners to the formal system and its structure, and function as the protector of individual identity of the person in conditions of deprivation or divestment created by living inside the correctional facilities, and which is realized and reflected by the formal system.

The main characteristics of the informal system are: antagonism to all demands from the personnel, abandonment of moral qualities, resistance to everything that is approved by the social community and attack on moral integrity of all official representatives whom they contacted before imprisonment, solidarity with every prisoner who is in conflict with the personnel, mutual loyalty and help, antagonism towards treatment, etc.

Collective way of serving the sentence has certain difficulties and problems, especially on communicational level and creating proper interpersonal relations. It is
important to emphasize that there is always a dilemma between prisoners, which system to accept? In order to determine the matrix of relations between the informal convict’s system and the formal prison system we should refer to the book “Man and prison” by Dobrivoj Radovanović, where this realtion is defined as: “In correctional facilities, where a strong orientation to control and keeping the order exists, the formal system itself subconsciously helps in accepting some characteristics of the prison society (the informal prisoner’s system). Because of the obsession by law and order, some parts of that system (management, security service) use informal structure of power to keep that law and order, and in return to carriers of that power (leaders of informal groups of prisoners) give a better job, better accommodation, access to information, etc. In that way the formal system supports and acknowledges the hierarchical and prison organization, and through them social relations which are created inside informal convict groups. Exactly this relation between prisoners and prison management, which manages prison, leads to the fact that control over prisoners becomes the primal function of prison, and education and resocialization is put in background.” (Radovanović, 1992: 35).

Prisoners contact prison personnel every day, and come in contact with the formal organization, its regime and normative system that represent an external frame within which informal relationships are created. These interactive relations of the two systems show a constant tendency of mutual influence, suppressing and neutralization. It can be said that there is a traditional divergence between prisoners and prison personnel, which is presented through conflict of two systems of values, norms and attitudes. On one side there are values, norms and attitudes of the prison personnel from the formal system, with goal to educate prisoners. On the other side is the informal system with prisoner’s code of behavior, which tends to distract prisoners from demands and respect of the formal system. This disproportion is reflected, and sometimes deepened, by the organization and regime of the institution itself and the convicts.

Conditions of serving a sentence, different deprivation and limitations, prescribed norms, standards of behavior and similar issues, create repulsion towards prison administration, conventional system of control and its employees. Also, it is well known that prisoners look at prison staff as representatives of society, which judged and reject them, and put them in inferior life conditions. This creates a ground for hostility towards prison staff, and also between prisoners, which can lead to negative group mood and open conflict, and which can be found in prisoner’s value system, norms and behavioral code (Radovanović, 2007).

All stated facts show that a primary function of the informal prisoner’s system is to solve numerous issues which a prisoner is faced with, starting from imprisonment and isolation, different deprivation, sense of rejection, protection from churls and frauds, and to provide them with a feeling of trust, belonging, dignity, etc. In other words, this system functions as a defense from all the troubles connected to being in prison, it has a function of finding group self-identity and it also functions as means of achieving personal and group goals.

The existence of the informal system in correctional facilities, as a human need, is necessary, and the power of its influence is directly connected to the way every formal system functions, as the other side of social milieu.
PSYCHOLOGICAL ATMOSPHERE AND FUNCTIONING OF PRISON

There are numerous factors which influence the psychological atmosphere in prison, and the functioning of prison itself. In this paper we describe factors that are part of research done by Svetozar Bogojevic, which was published in a collection of papers about prison Zenica in 1991. He emphasized four important factors: repression, entropy, prison code and deprivation. Each of these factors will be further explained.

Repression and resocialization

Integral part of each prison is repressive concept, which is always present in institutions of this type. Repression is a sum of procedures, behaviors, punishments and different acts, which are conducted in order to provide and control the functioning of prison as an institution. Organization and regime, therefore the formal part of the organization, represent a type of repression for prisoners (Bogojević, 1991).

The word repression means penalty or means of compulsion. Repression is about “having authority” on the relation formal–informal community, i.e. level of surveillance, control and applying force, regardless of its efficiency. It depends on the character of the perpetrator, his attitudes to society and social values, and other socially-ethical factors. And yet, repression cannot be completely excluded from the resocialization process. Different educational institutions, schools, religious institutions and prisons, are by their nature focused on repressive methods. Repression is strongly noticed in long-term punishments. In many cases the application of short-term sentences seems shocking, especially those which could be objectively sanctioned with some other punishment measures, which does not include imprisonment.

Reduction of repressive policy and searching of new ways of treating prisoners was influenced by several factors, especially humanization of society, and social-economical and cultural changes. However, repression today appears in a different shape. It is not means of force any more, but means of control through which denying of some commodities or complete suppression of it leads to better results in the work with convicts, especially when it comes to accepting of institutional educational treatment (Davidović, 1983).

According to latest understanding, the goal of prison punishment should not be to punish felons in sense of retaliation and revenge, but in sense of his correction, education and resocialization, and making him acceptable in the society again. Besides that, its socially-ethical and preventive side should dominate in the future. However, besides the efforts of making repression softer, it is necessary in today’s circumstances if we want to fulfill purpose of imprisonment and provide functioning of prison institution.

Entropy and resocialization

There has always been present dissatisfaction of prisoners with their punishment and conditions of imprisonment. But lately, rebellions, strike, protests appear and appeals without objective reasons and as prisoners’ wish to divert attention to them, because of the feeling that they have been neglected or unequally treated. These ways of confrontation to the formal system point to entropy. The term entropy, in terms of the prison system,
could be defined as disarrangement, mess, lack of clarity and uniformity of acts and requests, consistency of prisoners’ treatment by the prison personnel (Bogojević, 1991: 7). Entropy reflects psychological atmosphere in prison. Each mistake, disorganization, non-cooperation between departments, and specially corruption, contribute to weakening of the formal system and at same time strengthening of the informal system. Failures of the formal system often incite members of the informal system to use that opportunity as proof that they were allegedly exposed to different molestation, corruption, unauthorized repressive measures, violation of human rights, etc. which can sometimes cause rebellions inside prison and to attract attention to themselves.

The appearance of entropy was pointed out by Bogojević (1991) during the studying of psychological atmosphere inside prisons Foća, Zenica and Butmir. Results of these research showed that it was most present in prison Foća, and less in prison Zenica and Butmir. The research also showed that the psychological atmosphere in Foća was disturbed through entropy, which endangered the functioning of prison as an institution. So, the results of this research show that entropy is a very important factor with a strong influence on psychological atmosphere in prison and its functioning. Entropy is mainly present during social crisis, when the status and atmosphere from society is transferred to prison institutions. However, entropy can be caused by unprofessional relations between the personnel and prisoners, bad mutual relations between the personnel, non-cooperation between departments, corruption, non-uniformity, etc.

Such state has also a negative influence on the formal system, which disturbs the functioning of any prison institution, and this is why it is very important to take care of work of every and each department, and coherent and consistent following of normative system, pursuant to principles of educational work.

**Prison code and resocialization**

Every human community, including the prisoners’ one, has characteristics which make it differ from other communities. This is especially noticeable in its own rules of behavior and local speech, which makes up a subculture of one community. This is why all prisoners inside prison understand prison’s slang and code. Slang and code are external characteristics of prisoners’ community, despite the fact that all prisoners are not using it or breaking it. These characteristics constitute this community a subculture in relation to general culture of society.

Each isolated community sets up its code and rules, and tries to force them onto the others. Prisoners’ code is present in all prison institutions in our country. This is basically a sum of all principles by which prisoners have to act inside institutions. This code is not a written rule, but rather a common law that lives inside the minds of prisoners. It is from here that the stability of the prisoners’ code comes from, its durability and strength in regulation of prisoners’ behavior, as well as their mutual relations, in relation to the formal system. Beside rules, prisoners’ code contains compulsion measures which force prisoners to respect it. It has been noticed that many prisoners do not exactly follow code rules, they do not respect them to the same extent and in all occasions, although they create and fight for them. This especially stands for those prisoners who have opposite opinions, who try to follow norms of the formal system, and to those who try to stay
away from involvement in prisoners’ groups and other relations. “It is understandable that forcing prisoners to respect prison code of behavior means at the same time confrontation to norms of conventional system, which are created according to needs of education of prisoners. This means that there are two parallel controversial systems of values and norms of behavior inside prison. One strives towards success in resocialization, and the other opposes it, and because of that it can be considered as deviant. If this other system is more expressed and more opposed to the first one and values of general society, then it is harder to have a successful resocialization. Because of that, it is very important to understand the functioning of values and norms of the informal system in every separate prison institution, and based on that act accordingly to reduce its influence on prisoners” (Milutinović, 1977: 218).

In all institutions the ambition of individuals to belong and to be accepted from the group is present. This motive is especially noticeable during the first days in prison, when a prisoner is in adaptation stage, when he is looking for a place in a group. It is for this reason that many prisoners are trying, through prisoners’ code, to find their place inside the group. “Group is social unit which consists of certain number of individuals, who have specified mutual relation and status, and who have their system of norms and values which regulates the behavior of members, especially the issues related to the group (Milosavljević, 2001: 19). Most psychologists consider this motive as inborn, and they see its roots in the habit of belonging to a group. However, a tendency to be a part of a group and community does not mean at the same time ambition to help others. It is the same in prisons, where prisoners join groups, primarily to achieve some common interest. This motive is often connected to affiliative motive. «But the primary motive is focused on belonging to a group, a crowd, and affiliative motive is a desire to be in company with other individuals» (Rot, 1989: 226). Inside prison, through group membership, prisoners achieve two important needs:

1. **Belonging.** This need is connected to the need for protection, or deprivation of security.

2. **Power.** Inside group different roles with different status exist. Most of members wish to become a leader, to satisfy the need for domination.

Basic characteristic of informal group is prisoners’ code, through which group directs and controls behavior and develops interest and needs. Prisoners’ code contains several groups of behavior principles and it is carried orally, so that everybody inside prison knows it. The largest group of these principles is related to sanctioning of relations between prisoners and prison personnel, and common motto is “do not cooperate”. However, all the structures of prisoners break that basic request, so it is difficult to avoid or reduce “collaborators” or “snitches”. The reasons for this kind of behavior of prisoners lie in the fact to ease their position inside prison, or because they witnessed something in the group what they do not approve of but don’t have enough courage to eliminate it.

«Prisoners rely on prisoners’ code and try to keep dignity, through passive confrontation to personnel, mutual help, protect their interests and interests of other prisoners. Prisoners’ code supports mutual distribution of material goods and services and forbids mutual exploitation. The main principles of prisoners’ code are:
1. **Loyalty to prisoners’ community**

A prisoner should try to support interests of other prisoners in any situation. It is forbidden to share information about prisoners with the personnel. Prisoners have to be loyal to their community and united in confrontation towards the personnel.

2. **Control of emotions**

Prisoners should refrain themselves from conflicts and argues with other prisoners. They should not allow themselves to be provoked by different things from everyday life and to be pushed into a violent emotional reaction. The best thing is to stay cool.

3. **Readiness to help other prisoners**

Prisoners should share between themselves different goods and services, and help each other in solving problems.

4. **Dignity and integrity**

In every, even in the most difficult situation, a prisoner should keep his dignity. He must endure all the sufferings inside prison. In case of attack from other prisoners, he should fight back.

5. **Distance from the personnel.**

A prisoner should keep distance from the personnel. It is forbidden to show respect or good will towards the personnel. The personnel represent society which rejected prisoners» (Mejovšek, 2001: 29).

All prisoners follow these unwritten rules of behavior, i.e. prisoners’ code. Some of basic instructions for learning how to live inside prison are: Be careful what you are doing and trust no one! Do not trust educators! Do not be a snitch! There are no friends in prison! Respect older prisoners! Do not be the best or the worst at anything, golden middle is the best!

Rejection of prisoners from the society and deprivation in prison institution are main motives for the development of prisoners’ code. This code has a partially positive role, because norms of this code should ease life of prisoners and restrain violence in prisons. However, beside these positive sides (e.g. loyalty and enticement of prisoners to mutual cooperation), it also has negative sides (e.g. passive antagonism towards the personnel in every occasion. In the social system of prison institution a complete distance of prisoners towards the personnel does not still exist, although it is recommended by the code.

The personnel, in order to have control over the prisoners, offers their leaders good jobs, unachievable to plain prisoners, and they in return keep order in prison, and that way this system, at least apparently functions quite good (Radovanović, 1992).

**Deprivation of convicts and resocialization**

Organization and functioning of prison, by themselves, impose certain depravation, so prisoners are in many aspects deprived of human needs. Deprivation is a psychological consequence of imprisonment of convicts in prisons. It can be considered as remains of the past, when convicts were cruelly punished. Although it is not as brutal as physical punishment, deprivation has a strong psychological influence on prisoners. The extent of deprivation is caused by many factors, such as distinctive characteristics of an individual,
type of prison, concept of prison institution and the structure of formal organization of prison and its functioning.

Deprivation of prisoners is important for understanding conditions in which prisoners community is formed, so its effects can be monitored and managed better. Prisoners react differently to deprivation, and adapt to that forced frame of behavior through different personality defense mechanisms. This is why it is important to pay attention to each type of deprivation.

a) Deprivation of freedom

Deprivation of freedom is a basic type of deprivation, and all the other types derive from it. Deprivation of freedom is the most noticeable consequence of imprisonment and at the same time the type of deprivation that prisoners most talk about. This deprivation separates a prisoner from the society and significantly limits freedom of movement inside the prison. Our experience shows that all prisoners suffer from deprivation of freedom, and that the extent of suffering is proportional to the extent of deprivation. This is why it is not strange that during the time in remand or reception department there is a higher degree of aggression, in comparison to time spent later in regular prison regime. When a prisoner leaves the reception department, he has more life space and more possibilities for communication. The same feeling suffering caused by deprivation of freedom is manifested by asocial and anti-social types of prisoners in individual and group counseling. Thus, deprivation of freedom, as the most dominant deprivation of prisoners, should not be intensified through effects of very rigid prison system, such as prisons with maximum security and intensive treatment, advocated by some criminologist in practice. These institutions and conditions only intensify the behavior of prisoners which is caused by the formal system itself, because prisoners react to all types of deprivation with different defense mechanisms in order to protect their mental health.

b) Deprivation of goods and services

Accessibility of different types of goods is significantly decreased in prison. A prisoner receives only those things which are necessary for his existence, and he does not receive anything which expresses his personality (special clothes and shoes, special drinks, cigarettes, etc.) This form of deprivation strongly affects those prisoners who enjoyed many material goods when they were free. “The explanation of causes for this type of deprivation requires two approaches: difference in life standard between freedom and prison, and psychological, i.e. subjective impression of prison. The first assumption is rejected relatively fast, because in modern prisons the standard of prisoners is at the same level of living standard of the population, so differences are not that noticeable to cause suffering of prisoners. Based on that, reasons should be in subjective impression of material goods. Exactly in this standardization of goods is subjective impression of deprivation, since people are used to satisfying their needs in many different ways, through which they manifest their personality in social community, and in prison, which is, as we have already said, a specific type of community” (Nikolić, 2000: 97).

This means that prisoners’ way of life in prison regime, where someone else prescribed what they will eat, where they will sleep, what they will do, is directly opposed with their need to take care of themselves. This reason often motivates them to try to get some of forbidden goods in an illegal way, because it has a special value and represents a way of overcoming sense of deprivation. These goods are mainly object of theft and
resale between themselves. Although this way of providing goods is strictly forbidden, it is more or less always present and represents one of the ways for overcoming this type of deprivation which is created inside prison.

c) Deprivation of security

For most prisoners, this is the hardest type of deprivation. It is the result of high concentration number of violent people in a small space. Forced residing of each prisoner inside prison implies sharing destiny with other prisoners, with different criminal past and career, and with different habits and behavior. All this causes certain anxiety and fear with prisoners, since they cannot completely rely on the protection of the formal system, whose priority task is this. And even more because prisoners are aware that they can be victims of not only violators who endanger their physical security and personal integrity, but also of those who can endanger them with tricks, stealing something from them, or just irritating them with their behavior. This is why prisoner often say: “It is not the prison that is hard, but the prisoners”, with whom they have to live.

Deprivation of security is a natural feeling of people in all new environments, and its effects are more or less noticeable, depending on surroundings and the type of person. Because of present anxiety and potential fear, some prisoners can act violently. However, some prisoners look for a way to break out of prison or to injure themselves, while others become members of informal groups where they seek attention (Bošković, 2000).

d) Deprivation of autonomy

The result of high number of rules for prisoners is a reduction of their behavior autonomy, in the sense of limitation or elimination of possibility to decide how to behave. Some authors consider it good for prisoners, because it serves them as external super ego, or “welcomed escape from freedom”, for decreasing their anxiety. On the other side, this strict formalization of life «pushes» prisoners into informal communities, thus providing it with a possibility to become a carrier of silent or even open rebellion (Milutinović, 1981).

The goal of prison regime is to control the behavior of prisoners, by prescribing and defining all activities from morning to night. However, the way of implementing this regime, as given frame for behavior, implies including prisoners into the life of prison without the decrease of behavior control. This is why planned activities are important in the reduction or increase of the effect of autonomy deprivation.

e) Deprivation of heterosexual relationships

Deprivation of heterosexual relationships is not hard for prisoners only because of the impossibility of satisfying sexual needs, but suffering is also caused by loosing role which a man had in sexual relationships, which is, according to our opinion, the main result of this type of deprivation. Therefore, the understanding that people in prison see the reduction of their sexual impulses and that, according to that, sexual frustration is not so strong as it looks, cannot be true, because it is only superficially understands heterosexual relationships and reduces them to impulses. Modern prison systems are trying to solve this problem in different ways. There are intimate visits in special rooms inside prison, in combination with other commodities, such as free time for visiting town or visiting family, and even free display of homosexuality, as a legacy of civilized society and human rights. «Deprivation of heterosexual relationship is a normal consequence of
isolation of the person from the social community. In these circumstances there is a higher possibility of homosexual relationship. Some prisoners already have this predisposition, some of them are forced to or have tried it occasionally, because they cannot endure the frustration that comes from deprivation of heterosexual relationships» (Nikolić, 2000: 13).

f) Deprivation of spirituality and religion

This type of deprivation has become more significant lately in the resocialization process. By coming to prison, prisoners think that they lose their right to practice religion and religious rituals. We have to bear in mind the fact that among prison population there is a high number of people who want to continue practicing religion in prison as they did when they were free. Practicing religion is guaranteed by law. And this is the reason why many measures are taken which will provide conditions for prisoners to practice religion inside prison. Special religious rooms are made for visits of priests during holidays and celebration of significant dates, depending on the confession in question.

The consequences of entropy, uncontrolled repression, prisoners’ code and present deprivation influence the strengthening of the informal system and creation of strained psychological atmosphere which often motivates prisoners to «rebellion». Because of that it is very important to strictly define rules and obligations for prisoners, to be persistent in their application, and to apply adequate sanctions for each type of deviation. By strengthening the formal system, through uniformed rules and education of prison staff, the influence of the informal system will be decreased and at same time create higher possibility for a more successful resocialization of prisoners.

CONCLUSION:

Correctional institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina are based on the formal system which contains many repressive measures, although a tendency for humanization in prisons is higher every day. The formal and the informal systems are mutually conditioned, if one is stronger the other is weaker, and the other way around. The existence of the informal system in prison institution as a human need is necessary and required, and the power of its influence is directly connected to the way of functioning of every formal system, as the other side of social milieu. Society expects that prisoners will change their behavior and that the formal system will succeed in resocialization. However, the presence of the informal system makes this process harder which is projected on the resocialization and educational process. Many researches show that prisoners’ code is always present as a part of prison subculture and the informal system. The informal system implements control over prisoners through prisoners’ code. The first and the second system have principles which are confronted. Depending on their priorities, prisoners accept one or the other and this way try to overcome all types of deprivation and problems inside the prison community. The relation between the formal and informal system points out to many deficiencies, which we have tried to explain in this paper. Daily punishments of prisoners for breaking house rules, frequent rebellions, riots, obstructions are just some of the indicators that point to the fact that there are no perfect prison systems, and in that
sense quite prisons. This state often leads to doubts about the purpose of punishment and resocialization of prisoners in general. Although we talked about the relations of two confronted system, the fact is that there is only one system, the formal system, and the informal system is just a product of deficiencies and weaknesses of the first one.

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HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT
STRATEGIC APPROACH
TO HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

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Želimir Škrbić, M.A.
Vladimir Ristić

Human Resource Management, as a concise expression of a new philosophy and practice of management, represents the result of accelerated changes in the modern world and the importance attached to people and their potentials nowadays. One of the most significant differences between the human resources management and personnel management is a strategic approach. The strategic approach to human resources management is a developing process that is formed, and which changes according to events within the organization and environment. The paper clarified the basic characteristics of the personnel management and human resource management. We have analyzed the current trends in human resources management and pointed out the strategic approaches to human resources management.

Keywords: human resources, management, personnel management, strategic management.

INTRODUCTION

One of the areas of management which has developed most in recent years is the area of human resources management. To manage employees as the most significant resource of the organization is a very complex and multidimensional process. The transition process, in which we are, with involvement in contemporary integration processes, etc., requires a different approach to people. Traditional models of human resources management are giving way to more modern, more flexible, more practical and more humane forms of governance and development.

Human resources are the most important resources of the organization and they must be considered with the highest level of attention and interest. People, their development, their abilities, motivation and the manner in which they are managed, become a decisive factor of competitiveness and development of each organization.

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1. THE MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERSONNEL AND HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

The approach which is called “management of human resources” (human resources management) appeared in the theory in the 1980s. Until then, it was mostly talked about personnel management. Although many critics thought that it was a new approach and a big change, it was only a rethinking of the processes within the organization. Today, it is necessary to think not only about the processes within the organization but also outside of the box. Organizations are becoming less and less the center of permanent employment, personal safety, career opportunities and resources to meet employee’s needs in relation to work. Thus organizations become different from those we are used to. There is an increase in a significant growth of non-standard forms of employment, such as: temporary employment, part-time employment, external consultant employment and so on. By studying this trend, it can be noted that the concept of organization and operation is very different from what we are used to. As a result, there is a need for new models and new roles that will make these new roads less uncertain. Political society will also need to implement changes.

The importance of human resources is growing and effective management of these resources is of strategic interest to organizations that can provide a competitive advantage over rivals. Human resources management is a subsystem of organization management that provides capable and responsible staff for every position and enables every individual and organization as a whole to achieve maximum business goals. Under the management of human resources it is implied “policies and activities in the process or the process of planning, recruiting, selection, socialization, training and development, evaluation of performances, rewarding, motivating, protection of employees and implementing the work regulations, undertaken by the management of the organization, in order to provide the staff with necessary abilities, qualities, and potentials and their adequate training and motivation to achieve the expected results and acquire organizational and personal goals” (Jovanović et al., 2004).

Human resources management is constantly changing and improving thereby abandoning traditional management models, giving way to more modern, more flexible, more practical and more humane forms of management that characterize humanization of the relations of production expressed through increased motivation, satisfaction and adequate stimulation. A number of domestic and foreign authors deal with defining human resources management and two different meanings are mainly used. One meaning describes the activities of management and personnel management, and the other term is used to designate a specific approach to people management as for human resources management (Torrington et al., 2004).

1.1. Personnel Management

Personnel management activities are implemented by organizational units for Human Resources which are required to meet certain goals in the name of the organization, namely: 1) objectives relating to employees, 2) goals related to work, 3) objectives relating to management changes, and 4) administrative goals (scheme 1) (Torrington et al., 2004).
Scheme 1

The role and objectives of personnel management

1) The objectives relating to employees. - Realization of these goals include: establishing organizational structure, determining the types of contracts relevant for the employees’ work, selection and staff development. It is necessary to start employing and retaining the best workforce, to maintain level of competence required for the employees and the dismissal of those for whom it is estimated that they no longer have a role in the organization.

2) Goals related to work. - Specialists in human resources must take care that individuals are motivated and dedicated to work. To attain these objectives, it is important to provide: training and development, reward system, employee discipline, individual behavior, achievement and retention of high labor standards, employment initiatives and their involvement in the development of new ideas.

3) The objectives relating to management changes. - Changes do not occur as a result of external influences in modern organizations, but they are permanent and run through the need for innovation and competitive pressures. Acquiring these goals is achieved by hiring and developing people who are able to initiate the process of change and recruiting agents for change who have influence on the acceptance of change. If employees participated in creation of changes, they will be supported more.

4) The administrative goals. - These goals include keeping accurate data about employees, the results of work and training, and operations in accordance with the law and which clearly sets out monthly payments for employees. It is necessary to harmonize the taxes and contributions, health monitoring, system safety, conclude collective agreements with employees and payroll compliance and regulation of working time with the legislation.
These objectives are achieved by employing people specialized in certain fields of human resources management. These people are expected to give legal advice, achieve consulting agreements and take care of the whole relation between management and employees. Activities in the field of training and development are given to freelancers, but also to experts in the field of management development within the organization who are responsible for training. Instead of term “clerk” or “manager”, the term “consultant” is increasingly used for a specialist in the area of training. Instead of standardized courses organized by the training department, training line managers determine training as they want it. In organizations, in addition to specialists in these fields, there are people working as generalists. A generalist must have extensive knowledge in the field of personnel management and is responsible for implementing a series of personnel activities, and covers the whole field of personnel management. In addition, a generalist performs certain activities in the area of human resources management, as well as in the sphere of development policy. Specialists must possess in-depth knowledge and expertise to perform complex tasks in the field of personnel management. The increase in size and complexity of the organization, aggravation of the number of laws related to personnel activities and the creation of multinational organizations, raise the need for international human resources management, which requires specialized knowledge (Orlić, 2005). Human resources administrators and assistants who perform administrative work related to personnel, are employed in lower positions in the organization.

1.2. Human Resource Management

In the last two decades of the twentieth century, the shift from personnel management to human resources management led to some changes which resulted in difference of opinions.

The first opinion indicates that the personnel management focuses on the labor force, while the human resources management is focused on resources. Personnel Manager directs his work on his employees, finding and training them, deals with their problems, satisfies the needs of employees in relation to work and takes care of their wages. Personnel Managers are always between the management and employees.

Human Resources Management is mainly directed toward the needs of management for the provision and use of human resources (this may not always be employees). Activities are carried out with other members of management who deal with human resources, rather than directly with employees, and the emphasis is on planning, monitoring and control, not on mediating. The differences between these two approaches are shown in the second scheme (Torrington et al., 2004).

Another opinion is that the differences between these two managements are very small.

According to this view, human resource management gives more emphasis to what has been done for managers, rather than what managers have done for employees, and that there is a preventive role of line managers.

It can be concluded that human resource management is a contemporary mutational change in the long development of personnel management, that had six stages of development and management of human resources represents the seventh stage.
Comparative review of personnel management and human resource management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personnel Management</th>
<th>Human Resources Management</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short-term, reactive, ad hoc, marginal</td>
<td>The perspective of time and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obedience</td>
<td>Psychological relationship</td>
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<td>The external control</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pluralistic, collective, lower levels of trust</td>
<td>The perspective of the employee</td>
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<tr>
<td>The bureaucratic / mechanistic, centralized, formal and defined roles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experts / professional</td>
<td>Roles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minimization of costs</td>
<td>The criterion of evolution</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The long-term, preventive, strategic, integrated</td>
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<td>Dedication</td>
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<td>Self-control</td>
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<td>Unitarist, individual, high level of confidence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Organic, portable, flexible roles</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mostly integrated into the line management</td>
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<td>Maximum benefits of engaging people</td>
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The main role of human resource management is the alignment of structures and human resources to the planned scope and structure of business of the organization. This is a concern about the human component of the organizational structure of the organization. We distinguish between strategic and operational human resource management (Babić & Stavrić, 1999). Strategic management of human resources is based on the general strategy of the organization and the strategies of its organizational units, and operational management develops strategic plans for the staff.

Development of human resources management as a scientific and teaching discipline is characterized by favoring liberal goals and principles. The modern concept of human resource management is not just a man who goes to work and gets paid, but matters and is treated as a subject of management. Human resource management is increasingly becoming a collective activity involving managers and employees. The environment of constant change, rapid development of science and technology, increase of competitiveness, daily facing with specific difficulties and challenges, requires from the organization’s management to constantly search for good and adequate solutions.
Basic characteristics of human resources management are:
- Employees are viewed as assets or as human capital which should be invested in by providing opportunities for learning and development of “learning organization”;
- Human resources are viewed as a source of competitive advantage;
- Reducing the number of management levels for more direct communication between the managers and employees;
- Decentralization of the management process and the transfer of part of management competencies from higher to lower levels of management;
- Participation of employees in management through the involvement and active participation in performing management activities;
- Ongoing flexibility of management process and control activities in order to find acceptable and sustainable solutions for environmental requirements;
- Increased independence of employees in decision-making and work, making them happier and more motivated to work;
- Favoring knowledge, skills and creativity, “which leads to the intellectualization of work overall, when thoughts and ideas become fuel of economy” (Ilić, 1997);
- Orientation to the man and his values as the most important resource of the organization;
- Commitment to achieving individual goals and interests, not only organizational and
- Humanization of productive relations between the organization’s management and employees.

It can be concluded that there was a decisive move in the treatment and management of human resources in the organization. All this gives importance to human resources management, and those who are in charge of it are faced with serious challenges.

2. CURRENT TRENDS IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Modern world is affected by rapid changes, in which industrial technology gives way to information technology, and traditional ways of organizing are greatly transformed and adjusted to requirements of the XXI century. All that changed the concept, structure and layout of traditional organization. Organizations in which people work are constantly changing and evolving, creating new trends and issues that require consideration and resolution. New trends and new circumstances have a direct impact on human resources management. Such trends or circumstances are seen as: 1) increasing competition; 2) management of international business; 3) technological innovation; 4) operations in accordance with current regulations; 5) union activities; 6) ethical issues; and 7) the best practice versus best fit.

1) Growing competition – The novelty that human resource management is faced with in contemporary environment is growing competition in the labor market, which lowers prices and affects the organizational unit of human resources to cancel certain workplaces and to develop new ways for intensifying work. If the organization decides to increase the value and quality rather than reduce prices, this will entail the need for finding and motivating highly skilled workers. Regardless of whether the strategy of “low price” or “higher values” is adopted, we need fundamental changes towards employees. Faced with increased competitive pressures in recent years, organizations are
increasingly resorting not only to formal contracts but also to a “psychological contract” with employees. The psychological contract refers to expectations, i.e. what one party can benefit from the other. Certainly, the novelty is ceasing of long-term employment as well, i.e. employment for life.

Growing competition affects organizational units and increases pressure on human resources department to justify its existence. Lately, there is an increased interest in ways to assess the contribution of the Department for Human Resources in achieving business goals. They remain and survive only where it appears they contribute to the achievement of target values.

2) Management of international business – A consequence of globalization is an increase in the number of multinational organizations, which requires more employed HR professionals working in organizations that are owned and controlled by someone from abroad. The problems that arise in the globalization are institutional and cultural differences. It is therefore necessary to develop a global standardization and establish a balance of global and local human resources managers.

3) Technological innovation – Information technology, telecommunications, laser applications and alike, are constantly evolving and have a direct impact on the development and management of human resources. It is possible to define three types of challenges that are put in front of the organizational unit for human resources, as a consequence of the aforementioned progress.

The first type of challenge is how the organizational units for human resources are engaged in their work, namely: the use of electronic mail and the Internet for communication and gaining information; use of the Internet as a new way for recruitment; development of Internet access to training and learning; the use of computer databases for storing information about employees and report writing; and application of computer technology in everyday tasks such as planning of human resources, administration relating to the calculation of earnings, and alike (Torrington et al., 2004).

The second type of challenges that technology causes is a general change in the organization, demanding a response by the organizational unit for human resources, reflected in the need of recruitment, selection and bringing people of different skills and qualities. Experts in human resources have to plan and implement changes in technological development.

The third type of technology that affects the change in management of human resources is the need for finding new ways of managing employees who work on research and development for the progress of the organization.

4) Doing business in accordance with applicable regulations – Experts in human resources must follow and comply with laws and regulations whose number is growing, and which are related to employment, health and social welfare, gender and racial discrimination, arbitrary dismissals, birth right throughout, union recognition and more. This all leads to an increase in employment costs, the unwillingness of creating new job positions, but also to greater social security of workers.

5) Trade union action – For the management of human resources, it is essential to establish good and productive relationship with the union, which tries to improve business success. Trade unions often support constructive initiatives and contribute to management and help us notice things that otherwise we would not be aware of.
6) Ethical issues – Human resource management has always had an ethical dimension, but it often meets ethical dilemmas typical of cases where there is conflict between what is in the interest of the organization and what individuals on the basis of their ethical principles consider right. When it comes to human resources, the organization can be criticized on ethical grounds, such as: avoidance of answering about the organization work; dismissing an employee because of ill health, ignoring the need for changes in health security because it requires greater investment, providing training opportunities to some individuals, and denial to others, discrimination on the basis of age, and more. Experts in the field of human resources must vigorously advocate the combination of efficiency and fairness and the need to build a solid business foundation for turning to ethics, transparency and consistency to employees.

7) Best practice versus best fit – This view has a consequence on the entire field of human resources and it refers to management, which is currently the most important theoretical debate in the field of human resources. This view raises a question whether there is a best way for carrying out activities related to human resources, and that is applicable everywhere. Some authors argue that there are certain practices of human resources whose implementation helps the organization gain advantage over its competitors and they advocate the view “best practices”.

Human resource practices implement their positive influence by: 1) providing and improving the competence of employees, 2) impact on their motivation and commitment, 3) planning job so that employees are encouraged to give their best at work. By borrowing elements from the theory of expectations, this model suggests that all three elements should be present in order to reach the best results. The positive attitude of an employee should affect the level of the results of the organization, such as low levels of absenteeism, turnover rates of employment and vacancies, and a high quality of productivity (Guest, 2000). “Best practices” in management of human resources include modern methods of selection, commitment to employees, continuing education, employee development, rewards and improved working conditions.

The view of “best fit” emerged in the 1950s. This view emphasizes the connection between the practice of human resource management and achieving the advantage over competitors, but it highlights the dependence of specific circumstances in every organization. What is best for one may not be best for the other. The final decision on both of these views has not been made yet.

3. THE STRATEGIC APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

There are three theoretical approaches to strategic management of human resources, namely: 1) universal access, 2) access to opportunities and fitting, or 3) an approach that is based on resources.

1) Universal access focuses on the concept of human resource management “best practices”, based on four objectives of human resource policies that must be met in order to obtain the desired organizational result (Scheme 3) (Guest, 1989).
Human resources policy objectives are:
- Strategic integration (human resource management is integrated into strategic planning);
- Commitment (employees feel as a part of the organization and they show it by their relationship to performance);
- Flexibility (structure of the organization is flexible) and
- Quality (high quality employees provide high quality goods and services).

2) **Approach to integration or opportunities** is based on two basic forms of incorporation. The first involves external integration (human resources strategy fits the demands of organizational (business) strategy) and the second involves internal integration (all human resources activities fit together making one unit). Support of this model is shown in schemes 4 and 5.

In Scheme 4, the management of human resources is presented with respect to organizational strategy and environmental impact (Fombrun et al., 1984).
Pointing out only the human resources management activities within this model and how they can be united and designed to support the organization’s strategy, is shown in the fifth scheme:

Scheme 5

Human resources activities
In the previous chart one can observe a framework in which a unified selection, evaluation, development and reward, as well as their mutual stimulation of productivity of employees (Fombrun et al., 1984).

Theoretical approach to integration or more options has been analyzed a lot, investigated, confirmed or disputed, but despite criticisms it has been subjected to, this model still exists.

3) **The approach based on resources** focuses on the relation between internal resources, strategy and performance. The development of human capital provides a competitive advantage. There are four ways in which human resources generate competitive advantage, namely:

- The resource must have a value (merging with the requirements of the individual competencies of the organization estimated value);
- Low frequency of resources (organizations that have difficulty in searching for the best talents);
- Difficult to imitate resources (the inability of competitors to copy resource);
- A resource should be indispensable (human resources do not become obsolete as opposed to technology and can switch from one market to another) (Torrington et al., 2004).

The approach based on resources is often devoted to executives. The relationship between human capital, human resource practices and competitive advantage (Scheme 6) (Torrington et al., 2004), provides a conceptual basis for human resources as a source of competitive advantage and creation of strategic capabilities. The pool of human capital must be developed through the practice of human resources and enable the organization to learn faster and more effectively than competitors, making it more intelligent and more flexible than the rivals. Human resource practices must recruit and develop the pool of human resources and create a strong competitive practice within the organization. There also has to be a balance in the organization between employee interests and the interests of the organization.

**Scheme 6**

**Model of human resources as a source of competitive advantage**

Organizational units for human resources are not sufficiently involved in planning and development of organizational strategy and human resources strategy. How many human resources professionals are going to be involved in human resources strategy depends on business environment, organizational culture, chief executive manager and the quality of senior HR professionals. If the organizational unit of human resources wants to have a significant impact in the planning and development of the organizational strategy and human resources strategy, it must:
- Explain the activities related to human resources in terms of success;
- Carry out activities, first as a business manager and then as a human resources manager;
- Set the line managers for human resources;
- Focus on business priorities and
- Offer abilities of changeable management, that can be used immediately (Torrington et al., 2004).

Organizational unit for human resources is often excluded from the process of forming strategy, while the human resources strategy is concerned first with the implementation of organizational strategies. The most successful organizations are those that have the ability to quickly implement a strategy to work, or to carry out implementation of strategy of human resources.

An overview of possible relationships between the organization and strategies of human resource management is provided in Scheme 7. These relations are characterized by five different models, namely: the model of separation (A); model of integration (B); the dialogue model (V); holistic model / model of whole (G); and model based on Human Resources (D).

**Scheme 7**

Possible relationships between the organization and human resources strategy

![Scheme 7 Diagram](image-url)
**Model of separation (A)** is common in smaller organizations, and there is no link between the human resource strategy and the organizational strategy in it.

**Model of integration (B)** assumes integration of the human resource strategy into the organizational strategy and an employee is seen as the key in the implementation of organizational strategy. This model is represented in the organizations that direct their business goals from top management to lower organizational units, but also it is expected from organizational units (including the organizational unit for human resources) to propose a functional strategy that will enable the implementation of the organizational strategy.

**Dialogue model (V)** involves mutual communication and considers other possibilities of the organizational strategy.

**Holistic model (G)** treats human resources as the key of competitive advantage for the implementation of the organizational strategy. According to Baird, there is no strategy without a human resources strategy.

**Model based on Human Resources (D)** recognizes human resources as the key of competitive advantage for the achievement of any strategy. This model reflects strategic HRM perspective, which is based on resources and is considered a turning point of human resources strategy from implementers of the strategy to the driving force in the formulation of the strategy.

**CONCLUSION**

The profession and practice of human resource management are subject to significant change and redefinition. Unfortunately, many organizations and systems have not sufficiently perceived importance and the role of human resources management, so that their role is reduced to perform common administrative tasks related to personnel. The transition process in which we are, transformation and integration in international community, requires a radical change in relation to human resources and how they are managed.

In order to successfully cope with an increasing competition and rapidly changing environment, it is necessary for modern systems and organizations to allow the release of creative potential by applying new principles regarding human factor. The knowledge, skills and creativity must be favored, which leads to the intellectualization of work overall. For this purpose, it is necessary to recruit, develop and retain human resources who are highly trained, motivated and dedicated to his work.

The strategic approach to human resource management, focuses on understanding, predicting, directing, changing, development and adaptation of human behavior and human resources in the organization, which requires a commitment from employees, self-control, a high degree of confidence, professionalism, ongoing education and striving.
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ECONOMIC CRISIS
AND POVERTY
Abstract: The last decade in Eastern Europe and the Balkans, has undergone some reforms, political and economic in nature. The transition process has brought certain changes, that have had a very significant impact on the economy of the countries mentioned above. Most countries, in the earlier period, were in some way led by the so called command economy. With the appearance of transition, many countries were unable to promptly comply with the requirements and were adapting to particular situations of economic change. The fact is that most countries have managed economy politically, starting with privatization. Transition is a time consuming process, and adjusting to economic standards requires certain rules and norms without which it is practically impossible to manage economic reform. The Balkan countries in particular have many problems with sustaining economy, which, guided by the examples of South Eastern Europe, make different models of sustainability. Therefore, most countries try to maintain economic standards, with basic goal of a sustainable economy and accession to the European Union standards.

Keywords: transition, economic development, economic reform

INTRODUCTION

Economy transition, from command to market economy, started in 1990, which was also a period of political change in the South East Europe and Balkan countries. Such market economy was very specific: unregulated, predatory capitalist economy. Command economy was the product of a specific society that the scientific literature called etatism (Horvat, 1982). Therefore, the current transition actually means a transition from etatism to capitalism. Concept of transition, in the scientific literature, is introduced by Marx and Engels, in the middle of last century, which meant: a transition from capitalism to socialism, initiation of the historical process forward to a new social system. When it comes to restauration, it was introduced by historians as a term for renewal, and almost all revolutions were followed by restorations. It represents the process of moving backwards to re-establish a social system that existed before. Therefore, all current transition are in fact a restoration of previously existing capitalism. After the fall of socialism in Eastern Europe political and economic claims emerged, involving serious dilemma in comparing potential losses and gains (Franičević, 1996). The upcoming society is a

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ideal of many intellectuals and political entrepreneurs. Due to lack of knowledge, most post-socialist societies have followed the “logic of imitation of Western models” (Offe, 1997), who implied a marketisation of these societies, which was accomplished through liberalization, privatization and entrepreneurship. This type of orientation was supported by the population of Eastern Europe. Most experts, even the public, expected that after the initial “problems” and the economic shock, the sustainable economic growth would be achieved, and that the market results would be considered acceptable and legitimate as long as there is adequate “safety net”.

ECONOMIC CHANGES AT THE BEGINNING OF TRANSITION

In this section I will try to briefly introduce some of the so-called “shocks”, in economic terms, that have affected the countries in transition. At the beginning of the transition process, economic changes were achieved in the countries of Southeast Europe, and later in other neighboring countries, while indicators of economic developments in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Montenegro have another dimension. The first positive change in GDP in Poland was in 1992, then in the Czech Republic, Romania, Albania and Slovenia in 1993, in Slovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Croatia in 1994, and in Macedonia in 1996. At the beginning of 1991 the GDP fell dramatically in all of the countries. Measured by the GDP per capita, more developed countries made a faster recovery. A group of Yugoslav republics was a subject to both shocks: changes in the social system and disintegration of the common market (Horvat, 1999). Slovenia made up for the loss of the Yugoslav market, acquiring new markets in Europe. Estimated on the basis of trade in 1990, exports to the former Yugoslav republic, in 1995, was 59% lower compared to the usual exports to Yugoslavia before disintegration. Under normal circumstances, and the level of development that is considered, industry was a major component of GDP, and it was growing significantly faster than GDP, leaving other sectors behind. Disorganization was highest at the start of “transition” - high rate of inflation in 1992 - which explains the decline in production back then. While hyperinflation always indicates serious economic distortions, low inflation, or even decline in prices, does not represent orderly economic management. It can only hide economic disorganization, which is reflected in stagnation and high unemployment. Restrictive financial policy reduces production and increases prices, it can even create losses, with blocking inflation. With unused capacity, supply can be increased if there is a demand. Since adjustments in economy are not immediate, they occur in different periods of time, and since the system includes feedback and synergetic effects, financial policy cannot possibly achieve a balance of full employment, except by chance. What is needed is a policy that is aimed at improving various market failures. Restoration has an advantage in the sense that a preferred economic organization is already known and all that is necessary is imitation. International financial institutions and the capitalist market agree to finance restoration. This is something familiar to them and significantly less risky. For the same reason, transition is more difficult: no one knows how the new system works, and the perceived risks are high. So it is expected that transition will be much less effective than restoration. However, reality is something different. The essential feature of the market economy is that prices are formed on the market, while in the command economy, prices
were regulated by government order. In the command economy, privatisation is used to strengthen independence from state enterprises, as a precondition for the existence of the market economy. Social inequality has increased in all countries. Percentage distribution indicates that the share of the poorest tenth of the national income has reduced, while the share of the richest tenth has increased. This process of polarization of income is statistically well documented (Milanović, 1997). Bosnia and Herzegovina’s GDP per capita is still only at about 60% of pre-war level. Starting economic position of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the surrounding, as a result of the war, is moved a few decades back, and the upcoming processes and phenomena that characterize present time - transition, liberalization, globalization, transnationalization - were given a special dimension in this surrounding. It is a reality that cannot be avoided. Nevertheless, one thing is certain, a new priority mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina is a full-fledged membership in the European Union (Efendic, 2006). In the postwar years Bosnia and Herzegovina recorded extremely high rates of economic growth (1996 year, over 80%), which could classify it in the fastest growing economy in the world. However, the economic growth in BiH was more of an investment from the international community in rebuilding of the country, primarily infrastructure, rather than the consequence of investment activity in the country. Also, the important fact is that the GDP of BiH, during the war, noted a very large drop, which by itself put the country at a very low level, so the high growth rate by the end of the war was not surprising. However, high rates of economic growth were rapidly falling, and in 2003 the rate was only 3.5%. After the inflow of foreign assistance was decreased sharply, the rate of GDP growth was reduced, indicating a possible positive correlation between the inflow of financial assistance and the GDP growth of BiH. Gross Domestic Product of Bosnia and Herzegovina, both overall and per capita, is still below its value before the war, and also in relation to economic possibilities. When it comes to labor market indicators context, it must be said that there are many estimates that suggests that the official unemployment rate in the country is overvalued. The main reason is a large share of gray market in total economic activity in BiH, which means a large number of officially unemployed persons who have some kind of occupational activity in informal terms.

**KEY PERIOD OF TRANSITION AND ITS REFLECTION ON THE ECONOMY**

During the first period, it was necessary to make some specific constitutional, institutional choices, which proved crucial in establishing a new path-dependence. These choices were related to the political and electoral system, territorial organization, liberalization and privatization. Therefore, it is also a period when they were still open to different alternatives. Because of the war, it was a period of great uncertainty, high inflation, low fiscal discipline and low levels of respect for property rights and contracts. That period was strongly influenced by nationalism, war and collapse of a large domestic market, so it was a period of unique opportunity to gain capital, profits and appropriation of rents. In this situation, taking into consideration an institutional vacuum caused by the simultaneous shock of transition and the collapse of the federal government, people were faced with strong impulses to violate the rules (formal and informal) and with poor
impulses to build reputation. The war itself created numerous opportunities not only for rapid enrichment in mostly non-transparent ways, but also for diversion of profits to formal economy, especially through privatization. High inflation, caused by the war, weak tax and contractual discipline, pervasive corruption and predatory behavior of new entrepreneurs and new rulers, large asymmetry of information in all markets—all of this led to a tendency towards the establishment of the capitalism partnership and “unproductive entrepreneurship”, to use Baumol’s term (Baumol, 1990). All of this became a major feature, i.e. component of capitalism in the making. At the same time, the context of nation-state in the war significantly reduced the potential social and political challenges to these trends, despite the fact that they created a formal democratic institution. Collapse of the former Yugoslav market and the collapse of trade with former COMECON also had drastic consequences. On the one hand, it opened up new trade opportunities for newly established businesses, and on the other hand, most of the enterprises in the social or public sector (which were faced with a loss or reduction of the market and the collapse of their supply chains) were made vulnerable to transition shocks of liberalization and privatization. In addition, numerous enterprises and other economic members were dramatically affected by war and its damage. Therefore, their capital in the privatization process was significantly compromised. Liberalization, internal and external, was quite radical and fast, with many institutional gaps. This led to an explosion of trade companies and import, as the emerging markets created quasi-rents, as well as new opportunities for the pursuit of rents and instrumentalization of the state in particular purposes. The second period was characterized by institutionalization and consolidation model based on the presence of a strong partnership capitalism, on the one hand, and populism, on the other. During this period, “the tycoon capitalism” (Francićević, 1999) were undoubtedly established as the most prominent feature of the new ownership structure. Its formation and growth mainly helped the state itself. It has also the period in which “large but weak state,” subject to appropriation and plunder, active in the creation of rent and rent-seeking, deeply corrupt and prone to breaking the law, procedures and selective clientelism, emerged as a major actor on the scene. Stabilization policies, often notorious as a great success, in reality, were not truly radical. Despite a strict monetary policy, and still other possible regime of soft budgets in privatized and not privatized companies due to the politics of adjustment, subsidies and arrears (both in the interactions of public and private entities, and between private owners), the unwillingness of governments (and banks and/or suppliers) to administer the bankruptcy, even in the clearest cases. Instead of that, especially if the stakes are high, private actors simply prefer to enter the country - and the socialization of losses. Inability to develop effective mechanisms of self-control has further increased the pressure on already overburdened and inefficient justice system and significantly contributed to a high level of moral hazard in commercial and financial transactions.

Low private investment (Lasić, 1999), de-industrialization (Crkvenac, 1999), low employment rate (rising unemployment, decreasing the number of employed), weak restructuring (limited mainly to the reduction of the workforce), and ineffective corporate governance prevented sustainable economic growth. Many critics warned about new reetatisation instead of privatization and denationalization, as the greatest weakness of the model of “ownership transformation” in 1991 (Rohatinski & Vojnić, 1996, 1997). However, it was a strategic choice: to keep tight control over national resources and
choice of future owners and managers. Privatization was highly implemented as a hierarchical process of social engineering, characterized by a narrow cross-connection between a few groups of new national economic and political elite. Specific rules of privatization affected the behavior of actors, so, for example, there were different specific procedures: privatization of “transformation” of public property, denationalization after transformation, privatization of banks by privatization of their “founders”, while at the same time they were allowed to own and trade non-financial stocks, the model of estimation of the value of capital assets, a special role that is assigned to various state agencies and funds in the stock market, etc. Banks, controlled by the state, were largely included in the privatization process, by transforming companies’ debts into bank stocks, and by using highly questionable practice of recapitalization. Keeping all this in mind, it is possible to understand how a relatively small group of powerful external players with good connections managed to create a huge holding company, and to take control of dozens of companies. In most cases, this happened with a modest initial equity, or even without it. There were approximately a dozen large private holdings that controlled hundreds of companies in industry, commerce, services, media and banks. Biased rules of the game and direct political intervention contributed to it, which additionally dramatized the public perception of unfair and highly concentrated ownership structure. Public perceptions of privatization would be better if general economic trends were different, and in particular that the privatized firms managed effectively (like some of them really did). Instead, the privatization came into disreputation. Another drawback is the nineties were high corruption and widespread activities related to the instrumentalization of the state in particular and the purposes of seeking rent. Exposing publically numerous cases of deep involvement of senior party and government officials in corruption, unethical practices and a scandalous affair, has shown to citizens brutally clear that even sanctioning of such behavior is convincing. Economic science has from the beginning pointed to great dangers that entail uncritical application of the ruling doctrine of economic neoliberalism. In this regard, special emphasis was put on the role and place of the corresponding concept and development strategy, which an active economic policy should rely on. This approach, as pointed out, is particularly important in a country which begins with transition, and which is faced with difficult problems related to the privatization of ownership, pluralisation of markets and democratization of the political structure. In the context of our considerations, an important conclusion is that coincidence of the beginning of transition, and reform of social welfare (which is still in progress) has greatly complicated the effective achievement of transition. This applies particularly to those ideological and theoretical pretensions of transition, which were aimed at achieving the well-being of the society. Another general characteristic refers to the dominance of the doctrine of economic neoliberalism. This doctrine had a hard influence during the eighties, and this means at the same time as a reform of the welfare of the society. These phenomena, in terms of impact of the fourth technological (IT) revolution, and reform of the welfare of the society and the dominance of the doctrine of economic neoliberalism, can be understood and treated as two sides of the same coin. In any case, such an international environment has caused great damage to countries in transition. Objectively determined transitional crisis in such a condition has become even more difficult. However, it is noticable that different countries in transition have followed and perceived such a crisis situation very differently. Countries that were better prepared for the transition have overcome these problems far
easier. This specifically relates to those European countries that have had a longer reform and market transition. In the world, great attention is given to the quantitative (statistical) and qualitative (analytical) monitoring of events in countries in transition. Institutions of the United Nations deal with it, especially the Economic Commission for Europe, as well as institutions in OECD countries. The Vienna Institute for Comparative International Studies, is one of Europe’s scientific institutions that have, for many years, been dealing systematically with these issues. The Institute was founded in 1973, with a mission to deal with issues of reform and transition, on the international level. Studies that this Institute publishes each year (usually in February and June) under the general heading, “WIIW Research Reports” represent one of the best comparative statistical information (as well as analytic) basis for monitoring of relevant events in countries in transition. In the study of the Institute (Astrov et al., 2005), a comparative overview was not given together for all European countries in transition, as in previous years. In this context, one should remember that the economy and politics of transition had to accomplish two basic tasks. First one refers to increasing economic efficiency and effectiveness of economic development. This task is supposed to be realized with a general economic (ownership and market) pluralisation, which is supposed to be followed by the overall restructuring of economy. This applies to property, manufacturing, technology, management, marketing, business finance, IT and everything else associated with these. The second task relates to the increasing of political democracy and general human rights and freedoms. The overall result of transition should be manifested in a general increase of social welfare in transition countries. Generally speaking, we can say that all the countries in transition achieved some progress in the implementation of these two tasks. These developments, however, are very different in terms of level, quality, and also in terms of price these countries in transition had to pay to make progress. The same rule applies in the context of comparative views on the economic achievements of individual countries in transition, which have already been mentioned. Countries with larger market reform and tradition, such as European, especially Central European countries, have made far better progress than all the other countries. They have achieved better results and a lower price for their achievement.

ECONOMIC EXPECTATIONS AND ACHIEVEMENT CAUSED BY TRANSITION

When we talk about reforms that preceded transition, they took place in an environment of social well-being. It is therefore quite understandable that even scientists and politicians, and other reforms and transition activists, as a direction of movement had in mind the welfare of the society. Different realization was influenced by two sets of problems. One refers to the beginning of reform of the welfare of the society. The second relates to dominance of the doctrine of economic neoliberalism. These two facts had a decisive impact which caused transition to go to a slightly different direction than expected and desired. However, in different countries, these flows were very different. It depended on the preparedness of individual countries in transition and the character of political forces that had begun the transition. The preparedness of individual countries in transition and the nature of political power influenced the degree of deviant phenomena
in achieving two main tasks of transition. The first relates to increasing economic efficiency. The second relates to the increase of political democracy and human rights and freedoms. Deviant phenomena in most countries in transition have engulfed the exercise of both of these tasks. General macroeconomic and macro environment in most countries in transition is determined by tycoon privatization and the emergence of market fundamentalism and wild capitalism. World Bank research in the 90s showed that most people preferred the old economic order (The World Bank, 1996). Some countries were dominated by the appearance of original accumulation when the “sheep ate people”. Such macroeconomic and macro environment was accompanied by the appearance of bribery, corruption, organized crime and mafiocracy. Regarding the two aforementioned tasks, it can be said that they were defectively realized. Economic efficiency increased very unevenly, depending on the preparedness of individual countries in transition. Increasing economic efficiency has paid a high cost in terms of reducing production and increasing unemployment. These processes are accompanied by a very large social tensions due to great social differences that are manifested in rapid impoverishment of the majority and rapid enrichment of the minority. In all of this the worst thing is that getting rich quick in most cases is was not caused by raising the quality of management and overall restructuring rather than on abuse of unfinished legal grounds and also on the basis of direct looting in the shadow of political support for those politically favored. However, it should be noted that in accomplishing the task of increasing economic efficiency great differences between European and other countries in transition appeared.

**Speed of economic reforms**

Successful implementation of economic reforms depends on the speed and sequence of adjustment of economy. By examining a relatively extensive literature on the speed and sequence of economic reforms, it is difficult to get a clear answer about what is the optimal strategy for reform. But it is indisputable that three aspects are important: the speed of adjustment, the sequence of reforms within each sector of economy and sequence between different sectors. Nsouli et al. (2002) attempted to provide a practical guidance to policy makers on economic policies and reforms. Speed of adjustment is defined as a period of initial macroeconomic variables to achieve target macroeconomic variables, or the time that has passed from one organizational structure to another. In short, the speed of adjustment refers to the total time required to achieve target macroeconomic variables, starting from the initial macroeconomic variables, and to initiate economic reforms and make them applicable. The sequence of reforms relates to determining the order in which macro-economic policies and reforms are implemented. This refers to reforms that apply to all sectors of national economy (for example, fiscal consolidation and monetary stabilization effect on the overall economy and are prerequisites for liberalization of current account liberalization or price), but it applies to reforms within each sector (for example, it is generally accepted assumption that - in terms of capital account liberalization - in the first phase direct foreign investments should be liberalized as a form of capital flows that will, after liberalization, have destabilizing effect). The sequence of reforms at the level of all sectors and within individual sectors, given the time needed for their implementation, impact the speed of adjustment, i.e. the speed of reforms.
Speed of adjustment

In economic theory there are two opposing opinions on the optimal pace of economic reform. The following lists major works and their arguments. Key recommendations can be formulated as follows: reform must be comprehensive and mutually consistent and prevailing views of those economists who favor gradualism, i.e. the strategy of gradualism in reforms, but at the same be aware of the so called problem »competition of instruments« of economic policy. In addition, key aspects of reform are adjustment costs in economy and their credibility.

Cost of adjustment

Speed of adjustment affects the costs of reforms, depending on the speed the of removal of market imbalance (distortion), due to different speed of adjustment in commodity prices and factor prices and reallocation of resources (due to policy changes and varying price signals). Supporters of shock-therapy find that rapid reforms increase market incentives for the reallocation of resources, which leads to lower costs of adjustment. In conditions of absence of distortion and rational expectations, rapid reforms could actually have lower social costs of adjustment in economy. But if distortion is emphasized more, rapid reforms can result in loss of income and assets, for example, in industries that are restructuring in the reform process. These social costs may be acceptable to society at large if the marginal social costs of “losses” are lower than the marginal social cost of benefits that have arisen due to growth in productivity because of reallocation of resources from one sector in economy to another. On the other hand, supporters of gradualism believe that labor and capital are highly sector-specific and that there is a high degree of inter-sectoral mobility. For example, rapid reforms can result in temporary reduction of production to a greater degree of reduction in gradualist reforms. In short, most authors who are supporters of gradualism believe that rapid economic reforms generate significant short-term costs in the form of increased unemployment and unequal income distribution and increase resistance to reform. According to these views, gradualist reform are superior from speed reforms in many phases, where removal of all control one stage is realized in one phase. Basically, the main problem in using the strategy of shock therapy are potentially high rates of unemployment that can arise in transition towards new balance of economy. However, even supporters of the shock therapy appreciate this aspect of limitation of rapid reforms and recognize that certain aspects of reforms can be carried out for several years.

Credibility of reforms

Credibility of reforms is important for their success, because a higher degree of credibility of reform lowers adjustment costs, due to faster reallocation of resources. For example, the advantage of speed reforms is that it they can easily overcome the resistance of various interest groups. But, on the other hand, gradualists believe the success of reforms in early stages could boost the credibility of government and facilitate further implementation of other reforms in later stages.
Feasibility of economic reforms

The feasibility of reform, in terms of choosing a strategy, is the key to their success. Some authors believe that it is not possible to determine a detailed sequence of implementation of reforms, e.g. in terms of macroeconomic crisis. Gradualists, however, believe that the reforms take time. Basically, the scope of reform and administrative capacity of the authorities impose a strategy of gradualism. However, it seems that most authors consider the gradualist approach to economic reforms as optimal. The reason for this is that many of economic reform policies are mutually conditioned, and some require the fulfillment of certain conditions. The so-called thesis “competition of instruments” of economic policy advocates the gradualist strategy (McKinnon, 1973), according to which various elements of economic reforms require application of different instruments of economic policy, some of which may be mutually conflicting. For example, to illustrate the theory of “competition of instruments” we can analyze the relationship between trade liberalization and capital account liberalization, on the one hand, and exchange rate policies, on the other. In particular, trade reform should be accompanied by real exchange rate depreciation, while the capital account liberalization - due to increased capital inflow - may affect real exchange rate appreciation. As part of a comprehensive economic reform, liberalization of various elements of economic system leads to mutually contradictory results. In short, the criterion of feasibility of reforms suggests the need for reform implementation in several phases, due to possible “competition of instruments”, i.e. the need for their consistency.

Risks and other factors of reform

Risks in implementing reforms represent a very important element of reform strategy. For example, we have already pointed to the risks of applying shock therapy, in terms of a strong increase in unemployment and falling production. On the other hand, partial reforms in several stages can also be unsuccessful, so a failure in one phase of reforms will have an impact on later stages in implementing a complex strategy of reform.

In addition to the speed of adjustment and reform implementation, other factors may be of greater importance for the success of economic reforms. Sectors or areas, in which reforms are implemented, are very important. For example, different is the speed of economic adjustment in the real sector of economy, than the speed of adjustment in the financial sector of national economy (Johnston & Sundararajan, 1999). The initial conditions in the speed of reforms are also very important. When the economic situation in a particular economy is unfavorable, a rapid response of the government is required, a sort of shock therapy strategy. For example, in order for reforms to be successful in conditions of very high inflation and crisis, a quick response is necessary, a program of disinflation, which has the character of big-bang strategy.

ORDER OF ECONOMIC REFORMS

As an important segment of economic reforms is the very order of reforms, the sequence of fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies. The optimal order of economic liberalization may vary, but largely determined by initial conditions in a particular country. For example, the liberalization of capital account deficit must be regarded as part
of a comprehensive program of economic reforms, as part of a strategy of liberalization of economy. As the most influential gradualism advocate of economic reform is considered McKinnon (1993). He proposes several stages of liberalization, in the following order: First, fiscal control has to be implemented (before financial liberalization). After that follows a review of inflation and liberalization of domestic capital markets. Liberalization of domestic capital market would have to include the introduction of real interest rates on deposits and loans, and liberalization of the system of reserve requirements of banks. Deregulation of the banking system and other financial institutions must be consistent with achievement of overall macroeconomic stability. Liberalization of current international transactions must be preceded by the liberalization of international capital transactions. Here, reforms must begin with unifying different courses in a single currency system. Next comes trade liberalization, by removing of all quantitative restrictions on foreign trade and the introduction of reduced import tariffs and export subsidies. After successful completion of (external) trade liberalization, it is possible to introduce of convertibility on current international transactions. The last stage of gradualist liberalization should - according to the optimal sequence of reforms – entail liberalization of capital account. In short, before full convertibility and liberalization of international capital transactions, there should be a liberalization of domestic capital market to stabilize domestic prices (low inflation) and remove high reserve requirements on bank deposits, to reduce the level of so-called “financial repression”, i.e. costs of “financial intermediation”. Premature capital account liberalization could have negative consequences: an unexpected outflow of capital or unsustainable growth in external borrowing countries. However, it is clear that in underdeveloped countries, the focus of reforms was aimed at removing financial repression and liberalization of domestic markets. In transition economies greater attention is given to price liberalization, privatization, and liberalization of financial and labor markets. From this consise review from different research areas it can be seen there is an agreement about the problem of determining the order of reforms. Most authors agree that in the early stages of reforms fiscal and monetary stabilization and institutional reforms are necessary. A higher degree of discrepancy is seen in other areas of reform: trade liberalization, financial sector reforms and the liberalization of capital account deficit. Here the problem is that, basically, there are no clear recommendations for specific reform priorities within a sector, so it is not possible to reach concrete recommendations on the speed of reforms in some specific sectors. This fact makes it difficult to formulate an optimal order of economic reforms. However, there is an expert consensus that trade liberalization must be carried out prior to capital account liberalization. The explanation lies in the fact that in a case of inverse order of reform, domestic distortions would increase due to the influx of capital into inefficient sectors of economy. Moreover, the optimal strategy of liberalization in sectors shows that capital account liberalization - as part of a complex strategy of economic reform – is always the last phase of reform (McKinnon, 1993). The gradualism strategy and determining the order of liberalization are not unambiguous. Specifically, determining the order of liberalization does not necessarily mean “gradualism” as liberalization measures can be implemented in an optimal order in several stages, but very quickly in a drastic policy change. Finally, gradualism, and the optimal order of liberalization (reform) are very closely related.
Recommendations for determining speed and sequencing of reforms

Each country must independently determine appropriate speed and sequence of reforms, based on particular circumstances that are specific to each economy. Nsouli et al. (2002) suggested recommendations for reforms aimed at those who make decisions about economic policies. These recommendations suggest basic principles for determining the speed of reforms: it is necessary to estimate initial conditions in which the actual economy is in, the extent of structural imbalances and mismatches. If initial imbalances and structural discrepancies are significant, then the need for gradualist reform strategy is necessary. Assessment of the availability of financing, which is available, is very important. If a country is already highly leveraged, the speed of reform has to slow down, because further loans for structural reform are no longer possible. It necessary to determine institutional capacities for formulation and implementation of reforms. The greater institutional capacity, the higher speed is for the implementation of reforms. An important aspect of economic reforms is a political economy and political circumstances in a particular country. For example, if the mandate of the government is reaching its end, i.e. it is facing the upcoming elections, it would be prudent to undertake deeper reforms. It is important also to assess whether the government is able to keep up the pace of reform or even speed up economic reforms. In other words, it is important to assess whether the authorities are capable of gaining broad public support for reforms, i.e. if they are capable of achieving a social consensus for reform. There is also the assessment of the impact of strong interest groups that oppose reforms.

It is also important to see whether the authorities can increase the credibility of the reform program. The degree of credibility depends on many factors. Sometimes it is necessary to take decisive action at the beginning of the reform process (English: front-loaded approach), in order to maintain credibility. The assessment how ambitious goals of reform are is also important. Governments should determine priorities for reform and establish realistic deadlines for achieving them. What are the options for policy reform? The same reform goals can be achieved by applying different policies, with different adjustment costs and their effects on income distribution. For example, the system of fixed exchange rate regime, the balance of payments adjustment can be achieved by a combination of exchange rate depreciation and other policies that support a change in relative prices. Or, the same objectives can be achieved through a combination of restrictive fiscal and restrictive monetary policy. In the first case (depreciation) there will be higher inflationary pressures, while the other option (restrictive policy) will be higher short-term adjustment costs: lower growth, but with lower inflationary effects. Here is a comparison of different options and assessment. Is there a backup plan that could be applied in case of failure to reform or unexpected shocks? Appropriate backup mechanism, or policies that might apply in the case of different influences on the reform, could accelerate the reform process.
CONCLUSION

Based on the presented indicators in this work we can conclude the following: the transition process in many countries leaves an inevitable change in economy. In the initial stage of transition, countries are experiencing economic “shocks” but it is very questionable how they will deal with them. Countries that were in the process of transition, and were economically stronger, deal easier with changes. Still, no country in transition is resistant to processes that occur in a given time, and in certain circumstances. To minimize the effects of economic changes during transition, it is necessary to undertake some reforms. This requires a proper approach to economic reforms, which somehow provides a quick way out from an economic crisis.

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Abstract: For establishment of personal identity of an adult two factors are important: family and work. In order to talk about the consequences of unemployment it is necessary to mention the benefits of being employed. We will mention some of them: profit which generates material independence, higher level of activity and social interactions and realization of one’s identity through work. The loss of the mentioned benefits causes stress, and stress happens due to loss of job or incapability of finding one. It is for these reasons that we need to explain the role of social support in overcoming this crisis period.

Key words: family, social support, unemployment, stress

DEFINITION, TYPES AND SOURCES OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

No man is an island, entire of itself. We are by nature social beings who seek interaction and connection with other people no matter how independent, autonomous and self-sufficient we have become. Social support as an important feature of interpersonal relationships has attracted a number of authors and encouraged them to do research which has resulted in a number of different definitions of this concept, especially in the last twenty years. The main reason was the perception that social support positively affects the health and adjustment of the individual, and that the people who are married, have friends and family members who provide them with material and psychological support have better health than people with less contacts and support (Broadhed et al., 1983; Leavy, 1983; Mitchell, Billings & Moos, 1982; according to Cohen & Wills, 1985). Social support is defined as help in difficult life situations. Social support is a concept that is generally understood in an intuitive sense, as the help from other people in a difficult life situation. One of the first definitions was put forward by Cobb (Cobb, 1976). He defined social support as ‘the individual belief that one is cared for and loved, esteemed and valued, and belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligations’. Social support is also defined as ‘the perceived availability of people whom the individual trusts and who make one feel cared for and valued as a person’ (Mental health Information and Determinants for the European Level, MINDFUL, 2008).

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In spite of these widely accepted definitions of social support, there is no consensus in the literature about the definition and consequently the operationalisation of the concept. There is a need for further research, especially about what kind of support is most important for health. A distinction exists between perceived and provided support. In defining social support a distinction can be made between the quality of support perceived (satisfaction) and provided social support. Most studies are based on the measurement of subjectively perceived support, whereas others aim at measuring social support in a more objective sense. One could also distinguish between the support received, and the expectations when in need, and between event specific support and general support. The definition in terms of a subjective feeling of support raises the question whether social support reflects a personality trait, rather than the actual social environment (Pierce et al., 1997; Sarason et al., 1986). Most researchers will agree that the person as well as the situation affects perceived social support, and that the concept deals with the interaction between individual and social variables. Social support is closely related to the concept of a social network, or the ties to family, friends, neighbours, colleagues, and others of significance to the person. However, when the social network is described in structural terms, like size, range, density, proximity and homogeneity, social support normally refers to the qualitative aspects of the social network. Within this context, social support is the potential of the network to provide help in situations when needed. However, the social network may also be the cause of psychological problems. Halle and Wellman present the interplay between social support, the social network, and psychological health in a model: the social network as a mediating construct. This model shows that social support can be seen as resulting from certain characteristics of the social network, which are in turn caused by environmental and personal factors. The model suggests that it is important to distinguish between the structural and quantitative aspects of the social network on the one side, and social support on the other (O’Reilly, 1988). However, it may be difficult to distinguish between the quality of social network and social support. Social integration refers to supportive relationships within the community. Whereas the concept of social support mainly refers to the individual and group level, the concept of social integration can refer to the community level (Berkman & Glass, 2000). A well integrated community refers to well developed supportive relationships between people in the community, with everybody feeling accepted and included. A related concept is social capital, which is often used as the sum of supportive relationships in the community. Social capital may, however, also be used in a somewhat different meaning, such as solidarity (Kawachi & Berkman, 2000). There are several basic types of social support in references: self-esteem support, informational social support, “socializing” and instrumental support. Self-esteem support means that the individual is respected and accepted. Self-esteem develops and increases through communication with people who accept the individual’s values and respect him regardless of his personal difficulties or failures. This kind of support is associated with what we call emotional support, expressive support, ventilation or close support (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Informational support implies defining, understanding and dealing with problems. It is also called advice, support in the assessment or cognitive guidance. “Socializing” means spending free time with other people. This kind of support can reduce stress because it satisfies the need for affiliation or contact with others, it helps the individual to divert his attention from troubles and problems and encourages a positive mood. This kind of support is also known as belonging. Instrumental support is the implies financial assistance, material resources and necessary services.
support can reduce stress by direct resolving of instrumental problems or providing
time for some fun activities or relaxation. This kind of support is also called material
support, concrete help or tangible support. Although the functions of social support can
be conceptually separated, they are usually not independent in everyday life, for example,
people who spend more time socializing with others also have more access to instrumental
help and emotional support. Empirical studies sometimes show high correlations between
various functions of social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985). The effects of social support
depend on the frequency, duration, intensity and nature of stressful events. According to
the hypothesis of agreement (Cohen & McKay, 1984, by Cohen & Wills, 1985) social
support is more effective in reducing the harmful effects of stressful situations on the
mental health of the person depending on the corresponding form of support requirements
in a given situation. Instrumental support and "socializing" are effective ways of support
when they are related to the specific needs that give rise to a stressful event. For example,
stress caused by the loss of friends can be best mitigated by "socializing", and if it is
caused by economic difficulties, the best way to mitigate is the instrumental support.
Stressful events often result in the feeling of helplessness and are a threat to self-esteem.
In such circumstances, emotional support can be a balance against a self-esteem threat.
Informational support helps in the interpretation of a stressor as less dangerous or helps
in finding appropriate ways of coping with situations which seem to lack control. These
two types of support can occur as response to most stressful situations. Kutrona and
Russell (Cutrona & Russell 1990, according to Cohen & Wills, 1985) suggested that
stressors which are not under our control require more emotional support, while stressors
which we can control require more activity-oriented problem solving, such as seeking
information and advice. Sarason and colleagues point out that the measures of perceived
social support, which affect the extent to which the individual is accepted, loved and
included in the relations of open communication, are better indicators of adaptation than
measures of received support (Sarason et al., 1987). They point out that the effects of
social support on adaptation outcomes are to a greater extent a function of quality rather
than quantity of social support, that is a number of supportive social contacts. The fact
that we have at least one close person who supports us is very important. Sources of social
support may vary. However, inside the family most people generally receive emotional
support, warmth, the feeling of belonging, material and instrumental support and similar.
If the marriage is successful, the husband (wife) is one of the major lasting and accessible
sources of social support of adults. Unlike other sources of support and assistance, the
family is usually the one which identifies and offers help to its own family member in
crisis, without him asking for it. In addition to family, an important source of support are
friends, relatives, colleagues and so on.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL SUPPORT
IN STRESSFUL SITUATIONS IN GENERAL

Social support is an important factor in the processes of impact of stressful events
on health, because quality interpersonal relationships may protect a person from the
dangerous consequences of stress (Heller, Swindle & Dusenbury, 1986). When faced
with a stressful situation, people with more social support do not find it that stressful and
cope easier with such experience. It is established that people with few sources of social
support and without developed social networks are more anxious and intolerant in social situations, they have lower self-esteem, they are more neurotic, they are more likely to reject the help that others offer them and have less trust in others (Cohen, 2004). There are consistent findings that the people who are married, have friends and family members who provide them with psychological and material support have better health than people with fewer supportive social contacts (Broadhead et al., 1983; Mitchell, Billings & Moos, 1982; by Cohen & Wills, 1985). There are two basic theoretical and research approaches to social support. The first considers this support as a factor of somatic and mental health in general, and the second treats it as a “mediating” factor between life events and crises. In longitudinal research, which lasted thirty years Vaillant (Vaillant, 1974) showed that adequate somatic and mental functioning in adulthood depends on the quality of social support received in early childhood. The research of Brown and Harris (1977) suggests that women who have the support of someone close rarely develop symptoms of depression (Brown, Harris & Copeland, 1977). Social support as a “mediating” factor between life events and crises affect the genesis, course and outcome of the crisis. The influence of social support is achieved in two ways: directly and indirectly. With its indirect influence social support changes the meaning of life events and affects the outcome of the crisis. Direct influence of social support is achieved through the modification of reaction to life events and reactions in a crisis. The research of Miller P. and Ingame J. (1976), shows that the existence of social support (the presence of trustworthy people) reduces a variety of somatic and psychological symptoms in a crisis. Asthmatic patients who have a strong social support need much less medication than those who do not have such support. Recovery from surgery is much faster and more successful if the medical staff is friendly and close.

**SOCIAL SUPPORT AND UNEMPLOYMENT**

The standard definition of unemployment according to ILO (International Labour Organization) includes all persons over the age limit determined for the measurement of economically active population who were: 1) during the reference period without a job, 2) during that period at all times available for work, 3) actively looked for a job (undertook certain steps to getting a job) (Mrnjavac, 1996). Long-term unemployment causes the decline of living standard, and for many people impoverishment, which in turn has two effects – it limits job seeking resources and prevents participation in social activities. Limited resources and increased social isolation separate people from the necessary information and connections and thus hinder re-employment. In this way, a devastating spiral of social decay continues (Gallie, 1999). On the other hand work is consider to be the best form of social protection, and the reasons are clear: a working man is likely to be economically independent and socially involved. Employment plays a fundamental role in any society. People are often determined (and they often see themselves) by what they do in their life. Sociological and economic studies indicate that employment is not only the most important indicator of the position of people in each country, but it is also essential for creating a sense, income, social stability and the quality of life and participation in society (Jahoda, 1982). Employment is called “the glue that holds our society together” (Smith, 1987). If people are employed, then it is less likely that they will be poor if they are unemployed. However, some of those who work are still poor
because of low incomes and large personal and family expenses. S. Gore interviewed 100 men who were fired after the closure of one factory and found out that those respondents who did not have adequate social support shortly after the dismissals developed many somatic and depression symptoms. Long-term unemployment is particularly dangerous for health. It destroys personal abilities and possibilities, not only material but also social and mental. Also, the effects of unemployment on health accumulate over time. Long-term unemployment undoubtedly to a greater or lesser extent impacts social exclusion. While consideration unemployment, poverty and associated social exclusion, it is necessary to investigate some of the characteristics that affect the individual and society as a whole. Sen (Sen, 1997) states that the list of these characteristics should include the loss of realized output and fiscal burden when the community is in question, and for the individual the loss of freedom to decide (which means more than just reducing income), loss of knowledge and expertise and the resulting long-term damage (equally how to learn through work, and forget due to being unemployed- because the person is outside the world of work and practice), psychological damage, health problems, damage to morale, the loss of motivation for future work, loss of human relationships and family life (unemployment and poverty can be very disruptive to social relationships, and can impair the harmony and unity of families, and jeopardize relationships with friends and relatives), and finally loss of social values and responsibilities (people who have been unemployed and poor for a long period of time can become cynical regarding the fairness of social relationships, and can also create a sense of dependence on others - these effects do not lead to formation of responsibility and self-reliance). There are many studies on the importance of social support with unemployed people. McKee-Ryan et al., (2005) in their meta-analysis highlight that the lack of social support has negative effects on physical and psychological health of the unemployed, and is especially associated with more frequent development of psychosomatic symptoms, stress and depression. They point out that social support in general and support in job seeking are the predictors of re-employment. Adequate social support can increase the perception of an unemployed person in the sense that striving to find a job is worth doing. In the meta-analysis, the authors cite researches that show that the level of social support reduces with the duration of unemployment. They also emphasize that a longer period of unemployment is largely associated with decreased psychological well-being. Jackson (1999) finds that unemployed people receive less social support from employed people and students. Economic hardships of the unemployed may indirectly increase stress by gradually "corroding" the structures of social support and increasing the perception of relative deprivation (Bjarnason & Sigurdardottir, 2003). At the same time other life stressors, except unemployment, also deplete coping resources as well as social support.

Some previous studies have confirmed the finding that unemployed persons who have a partner who supports them have a better relationship, less severe problems and they do not use coping strategies so often (Walsh & Jackson, 1995). As for gender differences, unemployed women have poorer relationships, they have more severe problems, and lack of partner’s support has a greater impact on them. Furthermore, researches show that unemployed women are significantly more affected by stress than women who work or are housewives, but that the support of friends and family significantly reduces such differences with psychological stress (Bjarnason & Sigurdardottir, 2003). Marital status has a profound effect on perception, coping strategies and responses in both sexes (Leana & Feldman, 1991). Marital status, in fact, can serve as a buffer against psychological stress.
for men and women who have lost their jobs. This finding is consistent with previous researches which have confirmed the beneficial effect of social support in reducing stress and tension. These authors found no differences between unemployed men and women in psychological and behavioral symptoms of stress due to job loss, but differences were found in coping strategies with unemployment. While men are more reliant on activities aimed at the problem, i.e. conducts that directly eliminate the source of stress or reduce its impact, such as active job seeking, finding ways to save money, retraining, relocation and similar. Women use more activities aimed at conducts which try to eliminate the symptoms of stress (e.g. loneliness, anxiety) and change the meaning of situation, such as seeking social support, talking with friends, participating in group activities, etc. These results, on the one hand, arise from different types of stressful situations reported by women and men, and on the other, are interpreted by gender stereotypes, i.e. differences in the socialization process when women become emotionally vulnerable, stronger and more likely to express their emotions and are more dependent, while men are taught to hide emotions and emphasize instrumental, analytical problem-solving skills (Arambasic, 2003). Specific stages of life such as childhood or old age, specific life periods such as pregnancy, diseases, life crises (which certainly include unemployment), are such in their nature that they cause an individual to be more or less dependent on others. But also all of those periods in which we feel that we have full control over our life, include the presence of others, although we may not be aware of, who play a significant role in our perception that all is well. We often notice the importance of others only when faced with a situation in which we are completely alone and not because of the old saying ‘you don’t know what you have until you lose it’, but because of the fact that to us as social beings, the presence of others is so natural (Gvozdić, 2010). Although social support primarily has the role of ”bumper” which mitigates the effect of stressful life events, it is also a very important source of strength for overcoming. The knowledge that we are accepted, respected, loved, supported, that there are people that we can lean on and get help from, affects self-esteem and self-image, and all this helps us to easily, quickly and with less bad consequences, overcome the most difficult life situations (Vlajković, 1992).

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